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P R E F A C E

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1942-43, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections.

Both in selection and classification of material the original plan used in the previous editions of the Year Book has been followed as the most convenient one to present this country as it is before the reader.

The new section of "The Greater East Asia War" is added to Chapter VII, National Defense, while a new volume, "The South Seas Handbook" accompanies the present edition.

It is with pleasure that the editor acknowledges with thanks the assistance he has received from many friends, especially from officials of the Government, for material used in the compilation of this book.

Tokyo, October 1942

The Editor

1275368

JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé=	{ 8.26733 lb. (Avoir.) 10.04711 lb. (Troy) }	=3.75000 kilograms
Mommé	= { 0.13228 oz. (Avoir.) 0.12057 oz. (Troy) }	=3.75000 grams
Kin=160 mommé	= { 1.32277 lb. (Avoir.) 1.60754 lb. (Troy) }	=0.60000 kilogram
Koku (fish)=40 kan		
Metric system,		
Kilogram=	2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)=0.26667 kan	
Gram	=15.43210 grains (Avoir.)=0.26667 mommé	
Ton	=1,000 kilograms=2,204.6 pounds	
Gross ton	=1,016.064 kilograms=2,240 pounds	

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken	=2.44030 miles=3.92727 kilometers
Ken=6 shaku	=5.96516 feet=1.81818 meters
Shaku=10 sun	=0.99419 foot=0.30303 meter
Shaku (cloth measure)	=1.25 shaku
Tan (a roll of cloth)	=about 35 shaku
Metric system,	
Kilometer	=0.62137 mile=3,280 feet 10 inches=9.16667 cho

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho=5.95505 sq. miles	=15.42347 sq. kilometers
Cho (chobu)=10 tan= 3,000 tsubo	=2.45064 acres=99.17355 ares
Tsubo (bu)=3.95369 sq. yards	=3.30579 centiares
Ko (Formosa)=2,934 tsubo	
Metric system,	
Hectare=10,000 m ²	=2.471 acres=1.00833 cho
Are=100 m ²	=119.6 sq. yards =30.25000 bu
Sq. kilometer=0.386 sq. mile	= 247.10 acres=0.06484 sq. ri

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go=	{ 4.96005 bushels 5.11902 " (U.S.A.) 47.95389 gallons (U.S.A.) 39.6804 " (British) }	=1.80391 hl.
Koku (capacity of vessels)	=10th of a ton	
Koku (timber)	=about 1 cubic foot×10	
Shakujimé (timber)	=about 1 cubic foot×12	
Taba (fagot, etc.)	=about 3×6×6 feet	
Metric system,		
Hectoliter { 2 bush., 3.35 pecks (Dry) 26.42 gal. (Liquid) }		=5.54352 sho

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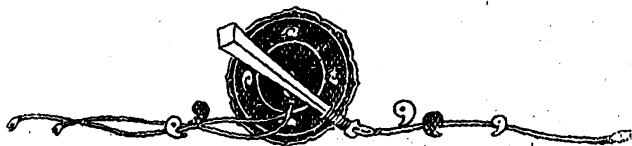
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IMPERIAL COURT



IMPERIAL COURT

At the heart of the Japanese nation and at the head of the Japanese State is the Emperor,¹ known to the people as the Tenshi, the Son of Heaven, or Ymmo, Heavenly King. Though the ancient title Mikado persists in foreign countries, it has lost currency in Japan itself except in poetry or on very formal occasions.

The Imperial Dynasty of Japan is the oldest reigning family in the world, Japanese history dating its earthly origin from 680 B. C. The present Emperor is the 124th of the line.

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),² a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Marriage to

Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Shōwa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal enthronement took place in Kyōto on November 10, 1928, and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage, January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAKO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer]. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10,

¹ For the powers of the Emperor, see Chapter IV, and Articles I—XVII of the Constitution (Appendix).

² The personal names of members of the Imperial Family and Peers are parenthesized.

¹ Prince (Shinno or O) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Shinno and O see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H.I.H. Prince TSUGU (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent. He entered the elementary department of the Peers' School in April 1940.

OTHER CHILDREN OF THE EMPEROR

H.I.H. Princess TERU (Shigéko) was born on December 6, 1925, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1932, and advanced to the middle school course in 1936.

H.I.H. Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1936.

H.I.H. Princess YORI (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1937.

H.I.H. Prince YOSHI (Masahito) was born on November 28, 1935.

H.I.H. Princess SUGA (Takako) was born on March 2, 1939.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

H.I.H. Prince CHICHIBU (Yasuhito), Colonel in the Army, was born on June 25, 1902, 2nd son of the late Emperor Taisho. The name Atsu was given to him at first. In 1909, he entered the Peers' School and on completion of the second year of the middle course in 1917 was enrolled in the Central Military Preparatory School. This course he finished in 1920, when he joined the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Azabu-ku, Tokyo, as a first private. Later in the same year, he entered the Military Academy, completing the regular course in 1922.

On attaining his majority in 1922, he took the name Chichibu and by Imperial order founded a new house. He was promoted to the rank of Second Lieutenant, attached to the 3rd Infantry Regiment. After becoming Lieutenant in May 1925, he went abroad, studying at Oxford University until the illness of the Emperor Taisho compelled his return to Japan in January 1927. While in England, he was decorated by the late King George V with the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order.

Marriage to Miss Sétsubo Matsudaira,

born on September 9, 1909, niece of Viscount Morio Matsudaira and 1st daughter of Tsunéo Matsudaira (at present Minister of the Imperial Household), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of Captain in 1930 and to that of Major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hirosaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. The Prince and Princess left Yokohama on March 18, for London where they represented the Throne at the Coronation of King George VI of Great Britain, which was held on May 12, 1937, and returned to Tokyo on October 15 by way of Canada. He was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in 1939 and Colonel in 1940. His residence is at Omotécho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Commander in the Navy, 3rd son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on January 3, 1905. At first he was named Teru. He entered the Peers' School in 1911 and left in 1920 to enroll in the Naval College. On graduation four years later, he was granted the name of Takamatsu and founded a new house to revive that of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, which had become extinct.

In 1925, on appointment as Sub-lieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fusō. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class, came in 1927, Lieutenant-Commander in 1935 and Commander in November 1940.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa) [Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort started on a tour of the world. They returned the courtesies shown by the late King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor. They returned to Japan in June 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shiba-ku, Tokyo. He became Honorably President

of the Italo-Japanese Society in October 1941. In order to express felicitations to the Emperor of Manchoukuo on the occasion of the 10th Anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo, he was dispatched to that country by Imperial Order in May 1942.

H.I.H. Prince MIKASA (Takahito), Captain in the Army, 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915, and was named Sumi. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left it in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. On graduation from the Academy in June 1936, he was attached to the 15th Cavalry Regiment, then entered the Military Staff College in December 1940. He was united in marriage with Miss Yuriko Takagi, 2nd daughter of Viscount Masanari Takagi in October 1941, and in December the same year, graduated from the Military Staff College. On attaining his majority in 1935, he was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house. The residence is the Aoyama Higashi Palace located in the grounds of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER PRINCES

KAN-IN. The present and 6th head of the House is H.I.H. Prince Kan-in (Kotohito), Field Marshal, who was born on November 10, 1865, the 16th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kumli), and adopted in 1867 by the Emperor Komei, the immediate predecessor of the Emperor Meiji. Ordered to France in 1882 for military studies, he remained there until 1891. After participation in the wars with China and Russia, his rise in the Army was rapid, and in 1912 he was appointed General and member of the High Military Council. In 1916, he was ordered to Russia for returning courtesies to the Russian Grand Duke's visit. The Imperial Prince became a Field Marshal in 1919, accompanied the Crown Prince to Europe in 1921 and headed the commission in charge of the Enthronement in 1928. In December 1931, he was appointed Chief of the General Staff and remained in the office until October 1940.

His consort, H.I.H. Princess Kan-in (Chiké), whom he married in 1891, was born on June 30, 1872, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanjo (Sanétomi) [Peer].

The heir is H.I.H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Colonel in the Army, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3,

1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, appointed a member of the Faculty of the Cavalry School. On July 14, 1926, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanétéru) [Peer], who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in 1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. H.I.H. Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kanéko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), was born on August 21, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomasada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

FUSHIMI. The 23rd head of the House is H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), Admiral of the Fleet, who was born on October 16, 1875, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Sadamaru). Ordered to Germany in 1889, he studied there for five years. He was appointed Admiral in 1922, a member of the High Military Council in 1925, Chief of the Naval General Staff in February 1932, Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year, and left the Naval General Staff office in April 1941.

The consort of the late first son, Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanétéru) [Peer], was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H.I.H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929. The third daughter, H.I.H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

The House of Fushimi was founded by a great-grandchild of the Emperor Gofushimi. The residence is at Kioto-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H.I.H. Prince Yamashina (Takéhiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy (1st reserve service), was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). His residence is at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince Yamashina

(Akira), 1st son of H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Kunilé), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kan-shuji.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Tsunénori), Major-General, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in 1920 and Major-General in 1940 and a member of the Faculty of the Staff College. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

On May 3, 1921, he married Toshiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizané) [Peer]. They have seven children: H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Harunori), born on July 3, 1926; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Akinori), born on August 17, 1929; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Fuminori), born on July 12, 1931; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Munenori), born on November 24, 1935; H.I.H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923, and H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Takenori), born on August 5, 1942.

Princess Kaya (Yoshiko) consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori) died on November 26, 1941.

The House of Kaya was founded in 1892 by the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori), 2nd son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). The residence is at Sanban-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

KUNI. H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Asakira), Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi). His consort, H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). They have seven children: H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Kuniki), born on March 25, 1929; H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; the third daughter, H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933; the fourth daughter H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Hidéko) was born on July 21, 1937; the second son H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Asataké) was born on May 11, 1940, and, the fifth daughter H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Noriko) was born on September 18, 1941.

H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Chikako) consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), mother of H.I.M. the Empress, was born on October 19, 1879, 7th daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), consort of the late Prince Kuni (Taka) was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Taka-suké). There are two children remaining: H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Iéhiko), born on March 17, 1920; and H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922.

The House of Kuni was founded in 1875 by the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunilé). The residence is at Miyashiro-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

NASHIMOTO. H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, and Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home and immediately sent to the front in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August 1906—July 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August 1917; High Military Councillor, November 1919; General, August 1923; Field Marshal, August 8, 1932; appointed Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, October 1937.

His consort, H.I.H. Princess Nashimoto (Itsuko), whom he married on November 28, 1900, was born on February 2, 1882, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Nabeshima (Naohiro). The residence is at Mitaké-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H.I.H. Prince Asaka (Yasu-hiko), General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now a member of the High Military Council. The Prince was promoted to the rank of General in August 1939.

H.I.H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Cap-

tain in the Army, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912, and married Chikako, 5th daughter of Count Tōdō (Takatsugu) on December 16, 1938. They have a daughter, H.I.H. Princess Asaka (Fukuko) who was born on December 11, 1941. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), General, was born on December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Higashi-Kuni in 1908, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930, Commander of the Fourth Division in 1934; High Military Councillor, 1935, Head of the Military Aviation Bureau, 1937, and again High Military Councillor, 1939. The Prince was promoted to the rank of General in August 1939.

H.I.H. Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 2nd daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are two sons remaining in the House: H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morioka), Captain in the Army, 1st son, born May 6, 1916; and H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born March 24, 1929. The residence is at Minami-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H.I.H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), died in Mongolia on September 4, 1940. His consort, H.I.H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born August 26, 1916, second daughter of Prince Yoshikuni Tokugawa. H.I.H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Michihisa), their son, was born on May 2, 1937. H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Hatsuko), their first daughter, was born on December 13, 1939.

H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takamichi, Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

KAKEDA. H.I.H. Prince Takéda

(Tsunéyoshi), Major in the Army, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, 2nd daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kintéru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934. H.I.H. Prince Takéda (Tsunétada), their first son, was born on October 11, 1940.

The House of Takéda was founded in 1906 by Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), 1st son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takamichi, Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

Royalty of Chosen

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to those of the Royal House of Chosen, and a Civil List of ¥1,800,000 for their maintenance is included in the budget of the Chosen Government-General.

H.H. Prince Ri* (Gin), Lieutenant-General, head of the House of Shōtoku-kyū since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Séki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of Major-General in July 1938, and Lieutenant-General in December 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri (Masako), whom the Prince married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa). On promotion to the rank of Captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927-28 he and Princess Ri made a year's tour of Europe. They have a son Ri (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H.H. Princess In, consort of the late Prince Ri (Séki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-éi.

In Keijo, the capital of Chosen, the residence of this branch of the Royal House of Chosen is the Garyudo, and in Tokyo its residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku.

H.H. Prince Ri (Ken), Major in the Army, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Aca-

* The house name of the Chosen Royalty is pronounced "Yi" in Chosen, but here it is given as "Ri" according to Japanese pronunciation.

demy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry, Captain in 1936, and Major in 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri (Yoshiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Yutaka Matsudaira, of the house of Count Hirohashi. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) on March 4, 1935, and the first daughter Ri (Haruko) on December 19, 1938.

H.H. Prince Ri (Ko), 5th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei), father of Prince Ri (Ken), was born on March 30, 1877. His consort, H.H. Princess Kin, whom he married in 1893, was born on December 22, 1880, 1st daughter of the late Baron Kin Shi-éi.

H.H. Prince Ri (Gu), Captain in the Army, 2nd son of Prince Ri (Ko), was born on November 15, 1912, and in 1917 was made successor to the late Prince Ri (Shun), who had died heir-

less.

H.H. Princess Ri (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku Ei-ko. They have two sons, Prince Ri (Sei) who was born on April 23, 1936, and Prince Ri (So) who was born on November 9, 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri, consort of the late Prince Ri (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883.

H.H. Princess Kin, consort of the late Prince Ri (Shun), was born on July 8, 1878, 1st daughter of Kin Zai-tei.

Former Princes

In accordance with the Imperial Household Law, Princes of the Imperial Family may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or by petition with family names to be granted by the Emperor. The following table shows those living who have renounced membership in the Imperial Family:

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Téruhisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	" Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	" Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigémaro)	" Kuni ("Kuniyoshi")	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	" Kuni ("Kuniyoshi")	1931
Marquis Otowa (Tadahiko)	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	1936
Count Fushimi (Hirohidé)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1936
Marquis Awata (Akitsuné)	Higashikuni (Naruhiko)	1940

Former Princesses

The following table shows Princesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal

House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers:

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Viscount Takénouchi (Korétada)	1892
Eiko	" "	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Telko	" Fushimi ("Sadamaru")	Marquis Yama-uchi (Toyokagé)	1901
Sadako	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	" "	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	" Kuni ("Asahiko")	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takéko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaaki)	1911
Shigéko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kuroda (Nagamichi)	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto)	1915
Hiroko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	heir of Viscount Count Futara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagataké), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	" "	Sanjo-nishi (Kin-osa),	1924
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	heir of Viscount Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokuhei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takéyuki)	1931

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Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Kikuko Asaka	(Yasuhiko)	Nabéshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Minéko Late Kitashirakawa	(Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanékatsumi), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako Late Takéda	(Tsunéhisasa)	Sano (Tsunémitsuru), heir of Count	1934
Shinén	„ Ri (Shun)	In (Gen-zen)	1934
Sawako	„ Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935
Kuniko	„ Kuni (Taka)	Prince Niho (Sukémoto) [Peer]	1939
Taeko	„ Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tokugawa (Kunlyoshi), 2nd son of Prince	1941
Kiyoko Asaka	(Yasuhiko)	Count Ogyu (Yoshitatsu)	1941

Palaces, Gardens, etc.

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(3) Omiya Palace. Also within the grounds of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.
(4) Shinjuku Imperial Garden. At Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuya-ku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of Takato, Nagano Prefecture, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Ministry and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden

parties.

(5) Akasaka Detached Palace. On part of the former property of the Lord of Kii, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1889 during the construction of the present Imperial palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

(6) Hama Detached Palace. Situated in Tsukiji, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, its grounds were used by the Shoguns in feudal times for falconry and are now the scene of Imperial duck-hunting parties.

(7) Kasumigaséki Detached Palace. Formerly the residence of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, it is located behind the Foreign Office in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

(8) Katsura Detached Palace. Located at Katsura, Ukyo-ku, Kyoto, it was formerly the residence of Prince Katsura [Katsura-no-miya] and became a detached palace in 1883.

(9) Shugakuin Detached Palace. Widely known for its beautiful garden, it was built by the Tokugawa Shogunate in the reign of the Emperor Gomizuno-o at what is now Shugakuin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, and was made a detached palace in 1883.

(10) Hakoné Detached Palace. On Lake Ashi in the Hakoné region, it was seriously damaged in the 1923 earthquake and has been left unrepared.

(11) Muko Detached Palace. At Suma, Kobé, it became a detached palace in 1908.

(12) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayama-machi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favorite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Taisho died in 1926.

(13) Isé Detached Palace. It is located at Doai, Mié Prefecture, specially

built for Imperial use on the occasions of His visits to the Grand Shrines of Isé.

(14) Taté-ishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishimura-mura, Miura-gun, Kanagawa prefecture.

(15) Numazu Imperial Villa. The palace is at Agehara-machi, Numazu, on Suruga Bay, Shizuoka prefecture.

(16) Nikko Imperial Villa. Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture, is the location.

(17) Tamoza Imperial Villa. This also is at Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture.

(18) Shiobara Imperial Villa. The palace is at Shiobara-machi, Tochigi prefecture, a district noted for its maples.

(19) Ikao Imperial Estate. This estate or preserve is at Ikao-machi, a mountain resort in Gumma prefecture.

(20) Nasu Imperial Villa. Mountain views are the main attraction of Nasu-mura, Nasu-gun, Tochigi prefecture, where the palace is situated.

(21) Nagara River Preserve. This preserve for ayu lies in Gujo-gun, Mugi-gun and Inaba-gun, Gifu prefecture.

(22) Yédo River Preserve. There are two parts, one in Higashi-Katsushika-gun, Chiba prefecture, and the other in Minami-Saitama-gun and Kita-Katsushika-gun, Saitama prefecture. The preserve abounds in water-hens, herons, snipes, quails, white swans, wild geese, ducks, plovers, pheasants, water-rails, etc.

(23) Jintsu River Preserve. This preserve for trout, salmon and other fish is located in Nei-gun and Kami-Niikawa-gun, Toyama prefecture.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by the National Treasury and no approval of the Diet is necessary except when an increase in amount is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Ministry and its present Director-General is Mr. Michio Kinoshita. Baron Ikki and Count Makino are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The area of the land possessed by the Imperial House was 1,307,652 cho in

1938, details being as follows:

	Area in "cho"
Palace grounds	714
Woodlands	1,262,998
Farms	39,391
House-lots	226
Miscellaneous	4,323
Total	1,307,652

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries.

Present Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is Marquis Kōichi Kido.

The Imperial Household Ministry

The Imperial Household Ministry is divided into eleven principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Bureau of the Imperial Table, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperial Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as are mentioned below coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household:

- The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,
- The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,
- The Board of the Imperial Auditors,
- The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,
- The Imperial Poetry Bureau,
- The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),
- The Peers' School,
- The Peers' School for Girls,
- The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.
- The Kyoto Office of the Imperial Household.

Since 1884, it has been placed outside

the pale of the administrative system, so that the Minister is in no way affected by any Cabinet change.

The present and preceding Ministers of the Imperial Household Ministry are:

Name	Time of Appointment
Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898
Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahéi Yuasa	Mar., 1933
Tsunéo Matsudaira	Mar., 1936

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. In regard to its organization and function see "the Privy Council" in Chapter IV, Government. The present and preceding presidents of the Privy Council are given below:

Name	Year of Appointment
Count Hirobumi Ito	1888
Count Takato Ohki	1889
Count Hirobumi Ito	1891
Count Takato Ohki	1892
Count Aritomo Yamagata	1893
Count Kiyotaka Kuroda	1895
Marquis Kinmochi Saionji	1900
Marquis Hirobumi Ito	1903
Marquis Aritomo Yamagata	1905
Prince Hirobumi Ito	1909
Prince Aritomo Yamagata	1909
Viscount Keigo Kiyoura	1922
Viscount Arata Hamao	1924
Baron Nobushigé Hozumi	1925
Dr. Yuzaburo Kuratomi	1926
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	1934
Baron Kichiro Hiranuma	1936
Prince Fumimaro Konoe	1938
Dr. Yoshinichi Hara	1940

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of the younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama,

most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage). In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku, were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration. In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 76 Chosenese of distinction were selected to become Peers, 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows at the end of August 1941.

Grade	Number of Families
Prince	19
Marquis	42
Count	108
Viscount	372
Baron	407
Total	948

The number of the Chosen peerage was 7 marquises, 3 counts, 17 viscounts, and 32 barons.

Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious services to the State, orders of merit and decorations were created in 1875 and supplemented in later years. The orders of merit, of which there are nine—the Grand Order and numerical orders from 1st to 8th—are only nominal and serve to indicate the class of decoration to which a holder is entitled. The decorations themselves are of 9 kinds:

Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum.

There are two kinds, the Collar of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum and the Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum, both reserved for those given the Grand Order of Merit. The first, the highest Japanese decoration, is a gold chain or collar from which is hung a small badge representing a chrysanthemum, to which is fastened a large sunburst flanked with chrysanthemum flowers and leaves. The second is marked by the same badges, worn at lower left side at the bottom of a cordon or ribbon of red with purple edges hung from the right shoulder.

Rising Sun and Paulownia. This is a single decoration, combining the de-

vices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder, resting on lower left side, are suspended a small badge showing paulownia flowers and leaves and a larger badge, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun. There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Rising Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive.

Paulownia. Two classes exist, sometimes referred to as the 7th and 8th classes of the Order of the Rising Sun. The Order of the Blue Paulownia is for holders of the 7th Order of Merit, and the Order of the White Paulownia for holders of the 8th Class Order of Merit.

Sacred Treasure. Known as the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure. Of this order there are eight classes. The badge represents the Mirror and Gem of the Imperial Regalia, and the cordon is of light blue with two orange stripes.

Sacred Crown. Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Sacred Crown. The eight classes of this order are bestowed on women only, who were barred from receiving any other decoration until 1919, when they were also made eligible for the Order of the Sacred Treasure. The badge shows the Sacred Crown, with cherry blossoms and bamboo, and the cordon is of yellow with two scarlet stripes.

Golden Kite. Purely a military order, known as the Imperial Military Order of the Golden Kite, this has seven classes. The cordon is green with two white stripes. It carries a life annuity, fixed in 1916 at ¥1,500 for the 1st Class; ¥1,000, 2nd Class; ¥700, 3rd Class; ¥500, 4th Class; ¥350, 5th Class; ¥250, 6th Class, and ¥150, 7th Class. This is granted to the family for one year following the recipient's death, and, if he has died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

Cultural Decoration. Creation of the cultural order to be awarded to those

who have made outstanding contributions to science, arts, literature or other fields of culture was announced on February 11, 1937. There are no grades or classes in the decoration. The device consists of three replicas of the Sacred Jewels, symbolizing philanthropy and virtue, placed in the centre of a white tachibana blossom (a kind of mandarin orange, Citrus tachibana Tanaka), and the decoration is suspended from a light purple ribbon worn around the collar.

Ribands of Honor. The Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Yellow Riband divided into two classes, gold and silver on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defense.

Holders of any decorations who are sentenced to death, penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years are deprived of decorations, accompanying diplomas and, if any, annuities. They may also be ordered to surrender them if guilty of acts of dishonour, depending on the circumstance.

Court Rank

Court rank is specially conferred on persons who distinguish themselves in service to the State, peers and the heirs, officials and army and navy officers. There are 16 grades, from the senior grade of the first rank to the junior grade of the eighth rank, and affairs pertaining to them are administered by the Imperial Family and Peerage Board in the Imperial Household Ministry in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 357,742 holders of Court rank at the end of August 1941, divided as follows:

	Senior	Junior
First	—	—
Third	569	1,092
Second	29	75
Fourth	2,513	6,505
Fifth	11,818	14,971
Sixth	17,869	23,966
Seventh	51,178	117,772
Eighth	107,246	2,139

Stick Granted to the Aged

In the 12th century, Toshinari Fujiwara, a Court noble, was granted on the celebration of his 90th birthday a stick for use at Court by the Emperor Gotoba. This honor, known as Kyuchuzué or Hatozué because the stick has a pigeon top, is today bestowed on Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank who have attained the age of 80 in recognition of signal service to the Court and the State, though it is marked by a monetary gift in lieu of an actual stick. Living holders follow:

Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Baron Uchiyama (Kojiro)
General Shiba (Goro)
Count Makino (Nobuaki)
Admiral Arima (Ryokitsu)
Dr. Mano (Bunji)
Lieut.-General Oshima (Kenichi)
Machida (Chuji)
Baron Ohi (Narimoto)

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court Artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court and present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. The present Court artists are as follows:

Sculptor	Choun Yamazaki
Painters	Séiho Takéuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Taikan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansétsu Hashimoto
	Kélgétsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Takéji Fujishima
Metal Carver	Kamézo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

The Imperial Ordinance for State Funerals was issued in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State

Funeral, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two kinds: the first is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second is called the Imperial Funeral and is for the Crown Prince, the Crown Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funeral services are conducted with special rituals according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honor of those who rendered distinguished services to the country by the special order of the Emperor and the ritual and order of the Funeral is fixed by the Premier with the Imperial sanction.

State Funerals have been accorded to the following since the beginning of the Meiji Era:

Okubo (Toshimichi)	1869
Prince Iwakura (Tomomi)	[Peer] 1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu)	[Peer] 1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanétomi)	[Peer] 1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa	(Yoshihisa) 1895
Prince Mori (Motonori)	[Peer] 1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi)	[Peer] 1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi)	[Peer] 1909
Prince Arisugawa (Takéhito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao)	[Peer] 1916
Grand Prince Ri (Kel)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo)	[Peer] 1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadamaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata	(Mi sayoshi) 1924
Prince Ri (Séki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Hélha airo)	1934
Prince Saionji (Kimmochi)	[Peer] 1940

Imperial Interest in Social Work

On various occasions of great importance in the Imperial Household, grants of money are made from the Privy Purse for social welfare, instances of which follow:

THE IMPERIAL COURT

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Eisho's Funeral—Charity		400,000
1912	Emperor Meiji's Funeral—Charity		1,000,000
1914	Empress Dowager Shoken's Funeral—Charity		600,000
1915	Emperor Taisho's Enthronement—Charity		1,000,000
1924	Prince Regent's Wedding—Promotion of social work		1,000,000
	—Encouragement for the poor to send children to school		1,000,000
1925	Emperor Taisho's Silver Wedding		
	—Young Men's and Women's Ass'ns		750,000
	—Cultural bodies in the Territories		250,000
1927	Emperor Taisho's Funeral—Charity		1,500,000
1928	Demise of Princess Hisa, the Emperor's daughter		
	—Protection of the young		50,000
1929	Emperor's Enthronement—Charity		1,500,000
1934	Birth of the Crown Prince, Akihito		
	—Protection of mothers and the young		750,000

Since 1879, it has been the custom of the Imperial House to make monetary contributions when there are floods, fires, railway accidents, violent winds, shipwrecks, earthquakes, famines, volcanic eruptions, mine explosions, etc. Immediately after the great earthquake and fire of 1923, a grant of ¥10,000,000 was made for relief.

A fund of ¥1,500,000 in 1911 for extension of medical treatment to the poor was used to found the Saiséi-kai, the Imperial Charity Association. Additional money for this work was included in the grant of ¥3,000,000 in 1932 for relief of the poor, and it was extended to overseas territories by a grant of ¥300,000 to the Overseas Ministry.

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor was established the Kéifukukai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies.

On every Kigensétsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the Empire, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made to public and private social welfare organizations, the number of which now reaches over 800.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

The Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

In April 1939, H.I.M. the Empress granted funds to the sum of ¥500,000 for the prevention of tuberculosis and treatment of the patients.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the

Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow:

Genshisai, the celebration of the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is performed on January 3 by the Emperor at the Three Shrines in the grounds of the Imperial Palace, the Kashikodokoro, where the Sacred Mirror is installed, the Koréiden, the shrine of the Imperial Ancestors, and the Shinden, the sanctuary of Shinto deities.

Kigensétsusai, to celebrate the ascension to the Throne of the Emperor Jimmu, is performed by the Emperor at the Three Shrines on February 11. In the evening sacred music and dances are given in a pavilion in front of the Koréiden.

Shunki-Koréisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koréiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

Shunki-Shindensai, performed on the same day in the Shinden, is to offer thanks to the Gods of Heaven and Earth for their blessings and to petition for their continuance.

Jimmu-Tennosai, which takes place in the Koréiden, marks the anniversary of the demise of the founder of the country, the Emperor Jimmu, on April 3. To his mausoleum is dispatched on the same day a Court official representing the Emperor to make offerings. At fixed intervals, the Emperor personally conducts the rite at the mausoleum.

Shûki-Koréisai and **Shûki-Shindensai** are identical in form and purpose with

the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

Kannamé-no-Matsuri, the ritual of offering thanks for the harvest and new rice to the soul of the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, which takes place in the Grand Shrines of Isé on October 16 and 17, is duplicated in the **Kashikodokoro** at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Mitsumé-no-Matsuri, conducted between November 23 and 24, is marked by the Emperor partaking of new rice after offering it to the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, and all the Gods of Heaven and Earth. The same ritual, when performed at the Emperor's entombment, is called **Daijo-sai**.

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, H.I.M. the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koréiden on December 1 in the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at intervals.

ORDINARY RITUALS. These are the rituals which the Emperor does not conduct personally, but which he performs with the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank.

Shinto-Tennosai, held at dawn on January 1 at the Three Shrines, is for worship of the Imperial Ancestors and the Gods, offering thanks to them for the grace of their aid and supplicating for their continu-

Meiji-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, great-grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor, and is held in the Koréiden on January 30. The rite of presenting offerings at his mausoleum is performed on the same day.

Shinto-Tennosai, held on February 17 in the Three Shrines, is the ritual of praying for a bountiful harvest and for the country's prosperity and well-being of the Imperial House and the nation. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the Grand Shrines of Isé to make offerings. Offerings are also presented at various shrines.

Ninko-Tennosai, marking the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Ninko, great-great-grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor, is performed on February 21 in the Koréiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchōsōtsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of H.I.M. the Emperor, is the ritual of praying for the longevity of His Majesty.

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koréiden on July 30 to mark the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijiōtsusai is held on November 3 to praise the great achievements of the Emperor Meiji, to remember his high virtues, to invigorate and develop the spirit of the national revival in the Meiji Era and to pray for increased national prosperity.

Kashikodokoro-Mikagura, a sacred dance, is held in the **Kashikodokoro** in the middle of December. As no definite date is fixed, an auspicious day is named every year by Imperial order.

OTHER RITUALS. The Imperial Court also observes several rituals not specified in the Court Ritual Act:

Shunsai, Tenth-day Ceremony, is held on the 1st, 11th and 21st of every month except January 1, the Emperor observes the ceremony for the Gods more elaborately than on the usual days.

Futsukasai and **Mikkasai** are performed on January 2 and 3, with the New Year's Day Ceremony. These are observed with specially elaborate rituals.

Joyasai, New Year's Eve Ceremony. At the end of the year the Emperor gives thanks to the Gods for their benevolence throughout the year and prays for blessings in the coming year.

Yo-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace on June 30 and December 31.

O-harai, held on the same days as **Yo-ori**, is a similar rite for the purification of all officials and officers from sins committed unconsciously.

SPECIAL CEREMONIES. Two special ceremonies at the Imperial Court are worthy of note:

Kosho-Hajimé, or the ceremony of delivering lectures in the Court at the beginning of the New Year, takes place in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and Court dignitaries in the Phoenix Hall. Usually three lecturers are chosen, with three others held in reserve, from the nation's most erudite scholars of Japanese classics, Chinese classics and Western learning to lecture on subjects related to their specialties.

Utakai-Hajimé, or the Imperial New Year Poetry Party, is usually held in the middle of January in the presence

of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and high Court dignitaries. Though long in existence, it became one of the most important annual ceremonies in 1869. A few months in advance, the Imperial Household Minister announces the theme for the waka, or tanka, poems of 31 syllables, to be submitted. For the honour of having a poem read in the ceremony, anyone may compete. In addition to those by subjects, poems by the Emperor and Empress and other members of the Imperial Family are read.

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CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

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GEOGRAPHY

Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various territories. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Ezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima, or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawarajima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been early under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Territories The first territories, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone which was transferred to Manchoukuo in 1937. Chosen, or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919.

Occupied Territories As the result of the Greater East Asia War beginning in 1941 Japan now occupies Hong Kong, The Philippines, Malaya, Burma, Borneo and other East Indies, Guam and other islands in the Pacific east of the Philippines, which were formerly the possessions of Great Britain, the United States of America and the Netherlands, with an aggregate area of about 2,521,510 square kilometers as outstanding at the end of May 1942.

Area

The Home Ministry's revised investigation puts the total area of the Empire at the end of 1938, at 681,012.03 square kilometers, distributed as shown in the

following table:

	Area in sq. km.
Grand Total	681,012.03
Japan proper	382,560.83
Honshu	230,549.61
Shikoku	18,771.45
Kyushu	42,078.49
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.24
Chosen	220,788.44
Taiwan	35,834.35
Bokoto	126.86
Karafuto	36,090.30
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80

Of 675,400.78 square kilometers, exclusive of the two territories last named, Japan proper occupies 56.6 per cent of the total area, while Chosen occupies 32.6 per cent, Taiwan 5.3 per cent, and Karafuto 5.3 per cent.

The areas of the newly occupied territories are as follows:

	Estimated Area in Square Kilometer
Hong Kong	1,126
The Philippines	296,294
Malaya	132,079
Burma	677,774
Java and Madura	132,000
Sumatra	456,000
Borneo	750,259
Other islands	75,978
Total	2,521,510

(In regard to detailed informations on these territories the readers are referred to the new chapter on the Greater East Asia War and "The South Seas Handbook" published with this volume.)

The area of each prefecture in Japan proper arranged in the order of size follows:

AREA OF PREFECTURES

(In sq. km.)

		%
1. Hokkaido	88,775.04	23.2
2. Iwaté	15,235.31	4.0
3. Fukushima	13,781.98	3.6
4. Nagano	13,626.18	3.6
5. Niigata	12,578.05	3.3
6. Akita	11,663.94	3.0

7. Gifu	10,494.73	2.7
8. Aomori	9,630.92	2.5
9. Yamagata	9,325.66	2.4
10. Kagoshima	9,103.81	2.4
11. Hiroshima	8,438.58	2.2
12. Hyogo	8,323.37	2.2
13. Shizuoka	7,769.90	2.0
14. Miyazaki	7,738.85	2.0
15. Kumamoto	7,433.41	1.9
16. Miyagi	7,273.36	1.9
17. Kochi	7,103.85	1.8
18. Okayama	7,046.47	1.8
19. Shimané	6,625.46	1.7
20. Tochigi	6,436.59	1.7
21. Gumma	6,335.87	1.7
22. Oita	6,333.87	1.7
23. Ibaraki	6,091.14	1.6
24. Yamaguchi	6,084.49	1.6
25. Mié	5,765.28	1.5
26. Ehime	5,667.42	1.5
27. Aichi	5,084.33	1.3
28. Chiba	5,062.09	1.3
29. Fukuoka	4,943.54	1.3
30. Wakayama	4,718.59	1.2
31. Kyoto	4,621.29	1.2
32. Yamanashi	4,465.87	1.2
33. Fukui	4,264.43	1.1
34. Toyama	4,257.42	1.1
35. Ishikawa	4,192.42	1.1
36. Tokushima	4,143.22	1.1
37. Nagasaki	4,075.98	1.1
38. Shiga	4,050.93	1.0
39. Saitama	3,802.68	1.0
40. Nara	3,693.52	1.0
41. Tottori	3,489.48	0.9
42. Saga	2,449.03	0.6
43. Okinawa	2,386.24	0.6
44. Kanagawa	2,360.80	0.6
45. Tokyo	2,144.80	0.6
46. Kagawa	1,856.96	0.5
47. Osaka	1,813.63	0.5
Total	382,560.83	100.0

Geological Formation

The Japanese Islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometers on the Pacific. They are arranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryukyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Mainland (Main Island) and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole Nippon Bow was pushed out toward the ocean by a mountain-making process from the

side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line: they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwenlun mountain system.

Recent excavations seem to show that it is almost impossible to find the oldest rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras, were found in Japan.

Gneiss Distribution Gneiss is distributed mostly in the Nippon Bow and Chosen and cannot be found in the Ryukyu and the Chishima Bows. It runs through the center of the southern half of the Nippon Bow, while in the northern half it may be found in the plateau of Abukuma. In Chosen it is spread over a wide area. Crystalline schist runs generally along the outside of the gneiss system. In the southern part of the Nippon Bow, it starts at the Akaishi range and runs through the Kii range to Shikoku, where it develops in a wide area, taking the place of gneiss; then it crosses the strait to Kyushu and sinks under the Aso volcanic chain to appear again at Nagasaki. In Taiwan it forms the eastern part of the Taiwan mountain range. In the northern half of the Nippon Bow, it appears in the Kanto range and may be found in the Ezo mountain system of Hokkaido and in Karafuto.

Palæozoic System The Japanese Palæozoic system is largely aqueous rock, composed mainly of slate, sandstone, silica stone, limestone, grit stone and graywacke, with a compound of such igneous stones as granite and diorite. It is widely distributed and has much to do with the geological formation of Japan. But at the Palæozoic era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palæozoic stratum of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous system, and any decision on older beds must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palæozoic system forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archæan system of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akaishi, Kii, Shikoku and Kyushu mountain ranges. Traces are also visible in the Hida

range, Hida plateau, Tamba plateau, Chugoku range and Tsukushi range. In the northern half, it runs through the Kanto, Ashio, Hachimiwo, Abukuma and Mikami ranges to the Ezo range and Karafuto. It can also be seen in Taiwan and Chosen in wide areas.

Mesozoic System The Mesozoic stratum of Japan is composed of stones similar to those of the earlier stratum. Fossils are sufficiently numerous to assure the era in which it was formed. It appears in the Kil range, the southern part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Keisho district. In the Chugoku district, the western part of the Main Island, it comes to the surface, leading to the belief that the plains of this district were formed in this era.

Neozoic System The Neozoic stratum is composed mainly of aqueous rock and volcanic stones. In this era, the transformation of land and sea was incessant, and volcanic activities were most vigorous, creating most of the present volcanic chains. Through the tertiary and quaternary periods, andesite and basalt were emitted in great volume. Most of the coalfields, oil-fields and metal mines of Japan were formed in the tertiary period. In the diluvial day of the quaternary period, volcanic explosions followed one after another, and the hills by the rivers and the high plains of the Kanto took their present form. In the alluvial, or the most recent period of the same era, the lowest and the newest beds at rivers, lakes and the sea shore, or sand-banks and sand hills, came into existence. According to the investigation of the Geological Research Office, the areas of rocks of different geological eras in Japan proper are as follows:

	Sq. km.	%
Archæan stratum	14,189	3.50
Palæozoic "	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic "	29,844	7.15
Neozoic "	196,079	49.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary vomitted rocks	79,970	19.16
Total	417,388	100.00

Block Movements According to this investigation, two-thirds of the land is of the Neozoic stratum, showing that Japan must have been upheaved upon the surface of the sea in the most recent geological era, and the large volume

of vomitted rocks speaks of violent volcanic activities.

In the Palæozoic era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akaishi mountain peaks, which form the ridge of the Mainland, are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges began to expose their heads above the waters. It was a golden age for the Mollusca and fishes, the Amphibia coming to existence at the end of it. In the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogamia grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mesozoic era, China and most of Chosen appeared upon the surface of the sea, but the land of Japan was still covered with waters, except for the great mountain ranges, which began to show their complete figures. It was the age in which the cycad, the ginkgo and the Coniferæ grew in abundance and toward the end of which the latifoliate trees came into existence. In the animal kingdom, the reptiles made great progress, and queer gigantic animals lived everywhere in the sea, in the air and on the land.

When the Neozoic era dawned, Japan became a stage of great block movements of earth, and it was severed from the continent, taking the form of a chain of countless islands. The present location was assumed, although the northern part was a little later than the southern half. The line which connects the islands runs from south to north because the pressure of the block movement was from west to east. As the movements gradually ceased and the dividing lines of land and sea became stationary, the present animals and vegetables began to grow, and finally primitive men appeared.

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a close connection with the Kwenlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island, running

through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akaishi range through Shikoku Island and Wakayama prefecture. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 meters deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In sharp contrast, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, palæontology provides further proof that Japan was formerly a part of the Asiatic Continent. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, fossil teeth of elephants are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. Thus it may be concluded that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

The mountains of Japan are divided into two great systems, one to the north and the other to the south. The Karafuto system, framing Northern Japan, is composed of the Ezo, Kitakami, Abukuma, Kanto and Echigo ranges, arranged from north to south, roughly speaking. Southern Japan is framed by two branches of the Kwenlun system, which has its origin in China. One branch first appears in the northern part of Kyushu as the Tsukushi range and then runs to the east, forming the Chugoku range, the Tamba plateau, the Hida plateau and the Kiso range. The other branch appears in the southern part of Kyushu, forming the Kyushu range, from which it runs east, becoming the Shikoku, Kii, Suzuka and Akaishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi ranges were formed by the creasing process; such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Mahiru mountain ranges were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in the northeastern Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Gifu and Aichi prefectures are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

Volcanic Chains According to the Geological Research Office, the total number of volcanoes in Japan is 192, of which 58 are active. They may be grouped in 11 chains:

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or Oshima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwaki-yama, Kampuzan, Moriyoshi-yama Chokai-san, ending with Gatsusan.

(2) The south Japan inner, or Hakusan, volcanic chain, extending from Hakusan along the Japan Sea to the west through Daisen, Mitsubé-yama, Aono-yama and other smaller volcanoes and then to the Goto Islands of Kyushu.

(3) The Hokkaido volcanic chain, which links such mountains as Hakodaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Tarumayé-daké and some islands in the peninsular part of western Hokkaido.

(4) The north Japan central, or Nasu, volcanic chain, including Osoré-yama, Hakkoda-san, Towada Lake, Iwaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Kurigoma, Numasawa, Arao, Funagata, Za-oh, Bantai, Azuma, Adatara, Nasu, Nantai, Shirané, Akagi, Haruna, Tsuno-otoshi and Arafuna, which are mostly active volcanoes.

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Hera-daké, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washibadaké, Iwo-daké, Norikura-daké and Ontaké.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaiji-san, of Aichi prefecture, and running westward to O-hara-yama, Mikasa-yama, Miminari-

yama, Futakami-san and Kabuto-yama of Hyogo prefecture.

(7) The Seto, or Inland Sea, volcanic chain, embracing the old volcanic mountains along the coasts of the Inland Sea and extending to Kyushu, including such mountains as Futako, Kokonoyé, Yufu, Onsen and Tara. The volcanoes are all dormant.

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, taking in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waruwa-jima, Tori-shima and Aguni-jima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aono-yama of Shimané prefecture and Tokusa of Yamaguchi, appears then in Kinpo-zan and Shiguma-daké near Tokuyama, and Ebiné-jima of Suo, meets with the Inland Sea chain and runs to Yufu, Kokonoyé and a part of Aso, and extends as far as Luzon Island, sinking to the bottom of the ocean west of the Ryukyu Islands on the way and then running along the eastern coast of Taiwan.

(10) The Fuji volcanic chain, which runs across the heart of the Main Island from the coast of the Japan Sea to that of the Pacific Ocean, and continues to the Izu, Bonin, Sulphur, Mariana and Caroline Islands, including such mountains as Myoko, Togakushi-yama, Tate-shima-yama, Yatsuga-daké, Fuji-san, Rakoné and Amagi on the Main Island.

(11) The Chishima volcanic chain, which comes into Hokkaido from the Chishima, runs along the Ezo mountain system, suddenly turns to the north and seems to disappear in Karafuto.

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks: pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, hornblende andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsu-san, Nasu, Hakada, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains which belong to the inner volcanic chain—Hakusan, Dai-sen and Mitsubé-yama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Morikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Hornblende andesite is limited to the district of Echiki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the

Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave of Toyooka, Hyogo prefecture, Oné-shima, Hamada, Hagi, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukué of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

With the exception of the northern frontiers of Chosen and Karafuto, every part of the Empire is surrounded by water. To the east is the Pacific, washing the Chishima, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, the Ryukyu, Taiwan and the mandated islands north of the equator. Between the Chishima and Karafuto is the Sea of Okhotsk, and between Karafuto and the continent the Gulf of Tartary, known to the Japanese as the Mamiya Straits. The Sea of Japan lies between Honshu and the eastern shore of Chosen. To the west of Chosen is the Yellow Sea, or Hwanghai, opening into the Eastern China Sea, or Tunghai, which touches Kyushu, the Ryukyu and Taiwan. Purely Japanese is the famous Inland Sea, enclosed by Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 meters, sounded by the warship *Manshu* in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawara Is. 30° 49' N. Lat. and 142° 18' E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 meters of the *Tuscarora Deep*, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644 kilometers. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometers, has a mean depth of 838 meters. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometers, has a maximum depth of 3,440 meters and a mean depth of 1,350 meters. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometers and a maximum width of 77 kilometers, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometers and reaches its greatest depth at 124 meters.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North

Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 26° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast and the offshoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 160 to 805 kilometers, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio at Kinkazan. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen coast.

Tides. Tides in the Japanese Empire show wide variation. High on the shores of the Yellow Sea and the Eastern China Sea, they reach from 10.4 to 10.7 meters at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 meters at Milké, Omuta on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 meter. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 meters; along the Pacific coast, from 1.8 to 2.7 meters, and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 meters.

Coast-line. The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,231.787 kilometers for the whole Empire, exclusive of the Kwantung L.T. and the mandated South Sea Islands. For Japan proper, it is 30,605.458 kilometers, which means a kilometer to every 12.43 square kilometers of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometers, a kilometer to every 12.12 square kilometers. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbors, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbors of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

In Japan proper, there are 250 mountains with peaks higher than 2,000 meters above sea level, the highest be-

ing the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 meters above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Taiwan 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Nittaka-yama, 3,950 meters, being the highest mountain in the Japanese Empire. The highest mountains in Japan proper are converged in the central part of the Main Island in the prefectures of Nagano, Toyama, Yamanashi, Shizuoka and Gifu, but there are, of course, many other mountains famous geographically and historically in other parts of the country.

MOUNTAINS (Above 2,500 meters)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodaké	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadaké	Nagano	3,180
Akashi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095
Shirané	Nagano	3,093
Ontaké	Nagano	3,090
Hotaka	Shizuoka	3,083
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,047
Shiomi	Yamanashi	3,033
Senjo	Nagano	3,032
Minamidaké	Gifu	3,032
Kitahotaka	Shizuoka	3,026
Nootori	Gifu	3,026
Norikura	Shizuoka	3,011
Hijiri	Toyama	2,998
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,992
Tatéyama	Toyama	2,977
Suisio	Yamanashi	2,966
Komagadaké	Gifu	2,959
Marishiten	Toyama	2,933
Shirouma	Toyama	2,926
Yakushi	Toyama	2,924
Goro	Gifu	2,908
Mae-Hotaka	Toyama	2,903
Yari	Nagano	2,900
Akadaké	Gifu	2,897
Kasa	Toyama	2,890
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,885
Wakaréyama	Nagano	2,873
Mitsudaké	Toyama	2,872
Jodo	Gifu	2,868
Mamaoya	Shizuoka	2,865
Komori	Toyama	2,864
Akaushi	Nagano	2,864
Karaki	Nagano	2,860
Rengé	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Gifu	2,858
Mamako		

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Name	Location	Height (m.)
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
Ho-o	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839
Subari	Nagano	2,838
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835
Yoko	Nagano	2,830
Misumi	Nagano	2,830
Masago	Nagano	2,826
Ehlsu	Gifu	2,823
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819
Nukido	Gifu	2,812
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803
Rengé	Toyama	2,799
Choko	Yamanashi	2,799
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799
Asahi	Nagano	2,786
Gongen	Nagano	2,786
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779
Rengé	Niigata	2,769
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762
Jonen	Nagano	2,757
Tatésawa	Nagano	2,754
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744
Iwo	Nagano	2,742
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725
Kiso	Nagano	2,721
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710
Akazawa	Nagano	2,706
Hoeisan	Shizuoka	2,702
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700
Kitaarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698
Jiji	Nagano	2,657
Koramatsu	Nagano	2,646
Narusawa	Nagano	2,697
Onogataké	Nagano	2,664
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661
Kamigataké	Nagano	2,658
Kitami	Nagano	2,667
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,696
Nôshû	Toyama	2,661
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631
Zarugataké	Shizuoka	2,629
Gakidaké	Nagano	2,627
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625
Washitaké	Toyama	2,625
Eboshitaké	Nagano	2,621
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621
Senninyama	Toyama	2,617
Tobiama	Toyama	2,614
Okakiyama	Nagano	2,614
Kôshiyaku	Nagano	2,613
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605
Chausu	Nagano	2,600
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,599
Fudo	Toyama	2,595
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592
Hikari	Nagano	2,591
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585
Shirané	Tochigi	2,577
Nagabéi	Nagano	2,565
Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Itotaké	Nagano	2,554
Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Asama	Gumma	2,542
Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Tatéschina	Nagano	2,530
Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Nittadaké	Shizuoka	2,524
Maédaké	Nagano	2,520
Kohikagé	Nagano	2,505
Minoto	Nagano	2,500

Chosen

Hakuto	Kankyonando	2,744
Kanbo-san	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Hokusuihaku	Kankyonando	2,522
Shonichi	Kankyonando	2,506

Taiwan

Niitaka	Taichushu	3,950
Tsugitaka	Taichushu	3,931
Shukoan	Karenkocho	3,833
Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Chuosenzan	Karenkocho	3,715
Kanzan	Kantocho	3,667
Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Kiraishuzan	Karenkocho	3,605
Tôguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Daisétsu	Taichushu	3,600
Taihasenzan	Shinchikushu	3,573
Sétsupô	Takaoshu	3,569
Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Tôrantaiizan	Taichushu	3,465
Gôkanzan	Taichushu	3,394
Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Tantalzan	Karenkocho	3,371
Hakkotaizan	Taichushu	3,349
Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Nôkôzannanpô	Karenkocho	3,333
Pinnanshuzan	Takaoshu	3,305
Kantakumanzan	Taichushu	3,304
Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Guntaiizan	Taichushu	3,292
Tarokotaizan	Karenkocho	3,292
Koséki	Takaoshu	3,255

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Nōkō	Karenkocho	3,252
Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Hainotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Mablisán	Taihokushu	3,167
Hakuséki	Karenkocho	3,138
Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Rantaizan	Taichushu	3,076
Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052
Taiséikiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosétsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsuí	Kantocho	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Séki sui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,833
Héigan	Taichushu	2,879
Sékisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattuséki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Klnajii	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sékisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Kéinan	Takaoshu	2,642
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubéyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Oh-u district

Name	Height (m.)
Iwaki-yama ¹	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwaté-yama	2,041

¹ The suffixes: yama, také, daké, san, zan, miné, and sen—all mean "mountain."

Name	Kanto district	Height (m.)
Komaga-také		1,637
Chokai-san		2,230
Gassan		1,924
Zao-san		1,841
Funagata-yama		1,500
Azuma-san		2,024
Adachitaro-yama		1,700
Bandai-san		1,819
Otake-yama		1,193
Nasu-san		1,917
Taishaku-san		2,060
Nantai-san		2,484
Akagi-san		1,828
Haruna-san		1,448
Myogi-san		1,104
Mikuni-yama		1,828
Kobushi-také		2,483
Tanzawa-yama		1,567
Hakone-yama		1,439
Tsukuba-yama		876

Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)

Oé-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,377
Hira-také	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiéi-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-také	1,720
Odaigahara-san	1,695
Shaka-také	1,800
Koya-san	985

Chugoku district

Kori-yama	1,510
Daisen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908

Shikoku Island

Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Sasaga-miné	1,860
Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Onigashiro-yama	1,142

Kyushu district

Tsurumi-yama	1,375
Yufu-také	1,584
Tara-také	983
Aso-san	1,592
Unzen	1,360
Shiraga-yama	1,417
Sakurajima-také	1,118
Kaimon-také	924
Yaé-yama	1,935

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by

numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power. Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1936 was about 5,039,321 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

	Navigable	
	Length in Km.	Length in Km.
Honshu		
Shinano	369	283
Toné	322	275
Kitakami	243	232
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	134
Fuji	161	70
Oh	154	86
Ohmono	149	137
Sho	149	55
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	361
Teshio	306	181
Tokachi	196	86
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusuikei	165	—
Shimotansuikéi	156	—
Sobunkéi	132	—

Navigable
Length in Length in
Km. Km.

Tansuigawa	130	—
Chosen		
Ohryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	439	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Seisenko	199	152
Reiseiko	174	65

Lakes

The Empire contains numerous lakes, especially in Honshu and Hokkaido, remarkable for their beautiful setting rather than extent. The most interesting are those high above sea level, formed in most cases by volcanic eruptions damming the head-waters of rivers.

The major lakes, with their height above sea level, area and depth follow:

	Above Sea		
	Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Honshu			
Biwako	86.3	716.31	95.0
Hachirogata	0	223.29	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	189.17	7.6
Inawashiroko	514.0	104.83	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	82.32	6.4
Towadako	401.0	78.02	378.0
Hamanako	0	72.04	15.8
Ogaranuma	1.5	62.26	27.0
Kitaura	1.0	39.85	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	25.95	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	25.65	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	22.85	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.3	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.45	7.0
Karéniuma	—	12.20	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	11.88	2.9
Chuzenjiko	1,271.0	11.29	170.0
Oguraiké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikédako	66.0	10.98	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	150.53	19.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	85.54	125.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	76.18	363.0
Toyako	83.0	74.54	183.0
Notoriko	0	58.49	22.0
Furenko	0	52.13	11.0

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Abashiriko	0	34.04	17.6
Akkéshikanko	0	31.99	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbetsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	12.93	36.6
Karafuto			
Taraikako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waaiko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibésanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugétsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaiké	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the north-eastern provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones:

- (a) Tropical forest zone, or the banian (*Ficus retusa*) zone.
- (b) Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (*Quercus acuta*) zone.
- (c) Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (*Fagus Sieboldi*) zone.
- (d) Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (*Pinus pumila*) zone.

I. The Tropical Forest Zone The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Taiwan lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Ryukyu, Ogasawara, Sulphur and the South Sea Islands. The aerial roots of the *Ficus retusa* are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Islands, the Ryukyu Islands and Taiwan it forms impenetrable for-

ests. The cocoanut tree is rare but grows well. In Taiwan the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave American grows quite tall. The cycad (*Cycas revoluta*), the tree fern (*Cyathea spinulosa*), the coffee plant (*Coffea Arabica*), the gum tree, the orange tree, the sugarcane, the mangifera (*Mangifera Indica*) and the papaw-tree (*Carica papaya*) grow luxuriantly.

II. The Subtropical Forest Zone The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Taiwan, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Ryukyu Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Chosen peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21°C. (55° to 70°F), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island; 760 m. in Shikoku, 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the *Ternstroemia Japonica*, evergreen and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (*Pinus thunbergii*) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshige. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (*Cinnamomum camphora*) is abundant. The hemp-palm (*Trachycarpus excelsa*), the Nagi (*Podocarpus nagi*), the banana plant (*Musa basjoo*) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (*Brassica campestris*), colza, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III. The Temperate Forest Zone The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole

area, and in the mountainous portions of Chosen; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Taiwan, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the *cryptomeria*, the *Picea jezoensis*, the hemlock and the Taiwan five-leaf pine (*Pinus parviflora*). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Niigata prefecture grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (*Quercus glandulifera*), the *Quercus crispula* and the horse-chestnut (*Aesculus turbinata*), while among these, in some places are found varieties of aceros trees such as the Japanese cypress, the *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, the hatchet leaved *arborvitae* (*Thujaopsis dolabrata*), the fir (*Abies firma*), the *Tsuga Sieboldii*, the *Abies homolepis*, the Chosen pine (*Pinus koraiensis*), the *Larix kaempferi*, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Taiwan,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Shizuoka prefecture; 1,500 m. in Nagano and Yamanashi prefectures; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the center of Hokkaido.

The agricultural plants in this zone are barley, wheat, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the *Panicum frumentaceum* and the peanut. In the north rice is often subject to damage from early frost. The forests in the southern half of this zone are the most beautiful in Japan, especially those sections dominated by trees of the Kiso valley, namely the Japanese cypress, the *Thuja standishii*, the *Thujaopsis dolabrata*, and the *Sciadopitys verticillata*. The *cryptomeria* forms vast natural forests in Akita prefecture.

IV. The Arctic Forest Zone The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Taiwan, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in

Shikoku the belt lies between 1,800 m. to 2,580 m. The *Abies veitchii*, the fir-tree (*Abies sachalinensis*), the hemlock, the *Larix kaempferi*, the *Abies firma*, the yew-tree, the *Alnus firma*, the *Sorbaria randaiensis* and the Alpine-rose (*Rhododendron himalaianthes*) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Taiwan, the *Abies sachalinensis* is the principal tree, the *Abies veitchii* on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island; the *Abies firma* and the *Larix kaempferi* in the districts further north, and the *Abies sachalinensis* again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the *Abies sachalinensis* and the spruce (*Picea ajanensis*) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the *Juniperus chinensis* along the seashore.

Marine Flora According to Dr. Okamura, the marine flora of Japan in the Pacific Ocean is divided into two by Oshima Island, to the south of which, including the Ogasawara Islands, is the Tropical division, while from north of Oshima to Kinkazan lies the Temperate division. The ocean district north of Kinkazan belongs to the Arctic division, although at the southern end of this division can be found, to a certain extent, Temperate-zone seaweeds. On the western side of Japan, that is, along the coast of the Japan Sea, the Tropical and Temperate seaweed zones are divided at Makurasaki or Noma Peninsula at the west end of Kyushu Island, while the arctic zone begins at the Tsugaru Straits.

Chosen As may be inferred from the geographical relation existing between the continent and the peninsula on the one hand and between the latter and Japan on the other, the flora of the northern part (38°-43° N. Lat.) of the peninsula bears a great resemblance to that of the eastern Asiatic continent, while the flora of the southern part has a close resemblance with that of the western part of the Main Island of Japan.

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. *Pinus koraiensis* is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Chosen. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, *Hanabusaya Nakai* and *Chosenia Nakai* may be mentioned as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family Campanulacæ, and the latter to the family Salicacæ.

The South Sea Islands *Pamphis acidula*, *Scaevola frutescens* and *Tournefortia agentea* grow on the shore. Coconut palms and screw pines grow among the littoral bushes. *Allophylus timorensis* and *Wedelia biflora* are the most common species and form a dense growth in the interior of the islands. Generally speaking, the flora of the islands is extremely poor as far as the number of species is concerned. This suggests that it is of comparatively recent origin.

Classification For a full classification of nearly 20,000 species of Japanese flora we refer to the "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo Botanical Association.

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamæ alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are briefly dealt with in the following paragraphs.

Fuji (*Kraunhia floribunda*) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan, and strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called *murasaki fuji*, or purple wistaria.

The Japanese wistaria is divided into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (*Kraunhia brachybotrya*), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistral. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called *shira fuji*, or white wistaria. It is a variety of yama fuji. The ordinary

fuji grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Saitama prefecture belong to this species. Its flower-clusters sometimes measure several feet long.

Sakura Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonic form of sakura in the compound), (*Prunus serrulata* var. *spontanea*), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms.

This species grows in the districts stretching from Kyushu in the south to Kinki (near Kyoto) in the Main Island. Many places which are noted for this sakura are found in the belt lying between these two districts. The most famous of them is Yoshino Yama near Nara.

Certain scientists have attempted to call it *shiro yamazakura*, or white wild cherry, because they have the name of *beni yamazakura*, or red wild cherry, to the other species. But the name *oyamazakura* (*Prunus serrulata* var. *sachalinensis*) has already been given to this red wild cherry.

Oyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto.

The ordinary *yamazakura* grow in mountains and are planted in public and private gardens or along public roads.

The so-called *satozakura*, or village cherry, does not grow in the mountains. They must have varied from the original *yamazakura*.

The sakura which is called *Yoshino-zakura* by florists and is widespread to-day all over the country with Tokyo as the center, is known as *somei-yoshino* (*Prunus yedoensis*), among botanists. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at *Somei* got its seedlings is not known. It was about 1872 that they were planted in Ueno Park.

The *somei-yoshino* was found only in Tokyo up till 1902, when it was transplanted elsewhere.

Higan-zakura belongs to a different species. It is divided into two classes in botany. The trunk of one class is large, while that of the other is small. The former is found in Ueno Park, Tokyo, and the latter is rarely seen in the Kanto district.

The small *higan-zakura*, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (West Main-

(land) district and its blossoms are prettier than the other variety.

The large higan-zakura is not found in such great numbers as the other. Umda-zakura of Nagano, and Ishiwari-zakura of Iwaté belong to this species. Shidare-zakura (the willowy sakura) also comes from this species and is called azuma-higan.

Sumiré (*Viola mandshurica*) The species of sumiré is called viola in botany and violet is the popular English name, while sumiré is the popular Japanese name. This name is said to have derived from the carpenter's "sumitsubo" or sumiré, or India inkstand made of wood resembling the flower in shape. Hence "sumiré" became gradually "sumiré."

In botany, sumiré is restricted to a species with flowers of deep purple-colour. Varieties are ko-sumiré, tsubo-sumiré (*Viola verecunda*), tachitsubo-sumiré (*Viola grypoceras*) akané-sumiré (*Viola phalacrocarpa*), ezo-sumiré, Kiumiré, tsukushi-sumiré (*Viola diffusa*), etc.

In Japan there are more than a hundred species. No other country in the world compares with Japan in this respect.

Susuki (*Miscanthus sinensis*) Susuki, or pampass grass is called in some places kaya. The tassel-like bunches of its flowers are called "obana," which is included among Nanakusa, or seven herbs. (See Chap. XXXVII, Calendar of Annual Events).

The graceful form of susuki with obana on them has been the subject of many celebrated poems. Susuki grows abundantly on mountains and in fields. Kiku (*Chrysanthemum sinense*) Kiku or chrysanthemum is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is the national flower and is used as the Imperial crest.

The Chinese chrysanthemum, from which the Japanese kiku is derived, had been cultivated in China before it was transplanted to Japan.

The scientific name of this flower is *Chrysanthemum sinense*. *Sinense* is the name of the species and means China. *Chrysanthemum sinense* means the Chinese chrysanthemum and *Chrysanthemum japonicum*, is the scientific name of the Japanese chrysanthemum or ryūno-giku. *Chrysanthemum arcticum*, or arctic chrysanthemum, is the scientific name for kohamagiku.

The chrysanthemums which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were

brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of the chrysanthemum of to-day. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original *Chrysanthemum sinense*, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Ryukyu Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobé. He gave it the name of *nojigiku* (*Chrysanthemum sinense* var. *japonense*).

Fauna

Japan possesses an exceedingly rich and varied fauna closely related to the adjacent continent and classified into two principal groups, the Palæarctic, and the Oriental. Of these the Palæarctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, such as the Kuriles, Karafuto, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Chosen, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Taiwan and Ryukyu.

Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Taiwan, the Ryukyu, and the Ogasawara Islands belonging to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*), the Taiwan leopard (*Felis dardi brachyurus*), the *Manis pentadactyla* and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In Ryukyu live such rare species as the *Trimeresurus flavoviridis*, a poisonous snake, and the leaf-butterfly (*Kallima inachus formosana*). South of Bird Island, Izu, albatross frequent the blue waters; while in the Ogasawara Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulphur Island tropical birds with red tails can often be seen. From Kyushu northward according to the biological theory, extends the Palæarctic zone with its fauna of the Temperate zone, specially domestic animals; while the wild animals found are the antelope (*Capricornis crispus*), deer (*Sika nippon*), wild boar (*Sus leucomystax*), bear (*Ursus torquatus japonicus*), fox (*Vulpes vulpes japonicus*), badger (*Nycterotes procyonoides*), the *Meles anakuma*, the *Martes melampus*, and the squirrel (*Sciurus lis*). Different species of monkeys are also found. Among birds there are the green pheasant (*Phasianus versicolor versicolor*), copper pheasant (*Graphophasianus soemmerringii scientillas*), snowy heron (*Egretta garzetta garzetta*), hawk

(*Astus gentilis schvedowi*, etc.); the crow (*Corvus coronoides japonensis*) is most common. In the northeastern districts of the Main Island, and in the high mountains, are found all the birds of the north, and also such arctic rovers as the hare (*Lepus brachyurus brachyurus*) and the ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) both of which become white in winter. In Chosen, the hedgehog (*Erinaceus koreanus*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), Chosen pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus karpowii*), crane (*Megalania japonensis*) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Chosen, so also is there quite a difference between those of the Main Island and Hokkaido. In Hokkaido the monkey is no longer seen; the Hokkaido bear (*Ursus arctos yesoensis*) takes the place of the bear (*Ursus torquatus japonicus*); while the species of deer, rat, squirrel and ptarmigan are unlike those of the Main Island.

Karafuto again differs from Hokkaido in its species of animals. The rat, squirrel and the *Ursus arctos yesoensis* are the same, but there are also such species as musk-deer (*Moschus moschiferus parvipes*) and wild cat (*Lynx lynx borealis*), while in winter the tiger comes across the frozen sea from the nearby continent.

Coming to the urodele; there are various species, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by *Hynobius peropus*, which is found at high denburgi, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Gifu, and also in Kyushu. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded *Hynobius peropus*, which is found at high altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are *Diemictylus pyrrhogaster* and *Onychodactylus japonicus*, the former being the commonest of all.

Freshwater fishes are known for their immense variety of species, but many of them appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while still others are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the following species inhabit the south-

ern districts: *Achellognathus limbatus*, *Sarcocheilichthys variegatus*, *Opsarichthys uncirostris*, *Zacco temminskii*, *Brittosus kawamebari*, *Stenopterus japonicus*, *Rhinogobius hadropterus*, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such species as *Oncorhynchus*, *Pseudoperilampus typus*, *Chloea senbae*, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs ayu or *Plecoglossus altivelis*. The river Nagara, in Gifu prefecture, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

MARINE FAUNA

Greatly influenced by ocean currents Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their northern limits in the Behring Sea and the southern off the Ogasawara group respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other.

Northern Zone (Chishima to Kinkazan) This district is frankly sub-arctic, containing animals characteristic of the Behring Sea on the one hand, and of the Okhotsk Sea on the other. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea otter (*Enhydra lutris*) is circumpolar in range, being confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubata*) and several seals (*Phoca vitulina*, *Ph. fasciata*, etc.) frequent the more southern waters, some of them occasionally appearing in the seas off Hokkaido and Amurland. The northern fur seal (*Callorhynchus ursinus*) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to (Seal I.), a small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Chishima group.

Turning to cetacea, there are three whalebone whales, such as *Balaena glacialis*, *B. mysticetus*, and *Rhachianectes glaucus*.

Around the Chishima group, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring.

In comparatively shallower waters are found some ascidians, like *Halcynothia roretzi*, *Chelyosoma siboja*, *Molgula crystallina*, *M. redikorzevi*, etc. The first two are largely eaten in this country. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echino-

derms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica*. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, *Chionectes opilio*.

A large number of molluscs are found in this district, of which the most valuable species are *Ostrea gigas*, *Macar saxhalinensis*, *Pecten yesoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

Amongst medusae, such forms as *Eulachystus* spp., *Aurelia limbata*, *Cyanea* spp., *Chrysaora* spp., *Staurophora discoides*, and *Sarsia* spp. frequent the northern waters.

Middle Zone (Kinkazan to Shimoda) In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be recorded here. The blue whale (*Balaenoptera Sieboldi*) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common finwhale (*Bal. physalus*) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (*Bal. borealis*) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles, Nemuro in Hokkaido, Kinkazan, the Shionomisaki, the Goto group, and Chosen.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like *Distaria cyanocincta*, *Hydrua pluvialis*, *Caretta olivacea*, and *Eretmochelys squamosa* which sometimes extend north up to Hokkaido.

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be *Cynos manazo*, *Hyporhamphus sajori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, *Halichoeres poecilopterus*, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonito and tunny are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, *Scomber japonicus* and *Thunnus orientalis*

are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (*Sardinea melanosticta*), which is replaced in the north by the herring and in the south by *Etrumeus micropus*. *Engraulis japonicus* also occurs in great abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

Amongst ascidians there are some species like *Halocynthia karasboyae*, *Microcosmus hartmeyer*, *Styela kroboja*, etc.

Echinoderms are plentiful, being comprised of a number of interesting species of *Ophiostiba hideki*, *Asteroschema japonicum*, brittle-stars, sea-urchins, and sea-cucumbers.

Amongst crustaceans, one of the most notable is a giant crab, *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which appears to be confined to this zone, on the Pacific side. *Neptunus trituberculatus* is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, *Pallinurus japonicus*. Besides, there is a good catch of penaeid prawns which are decidedly stragglers from the southern zone.

In the Japan Sea the water is by no means simple or isolated, but compound and connected with those of other seas. Of fishes the bonito and *Euthynnus* are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like *Chionectes opilio*, etc., are of great commercial value and huge quantities are caught. Besides, some shrimps and prawns, belonging to the genera *Pandalus* and *Crangon*, are also found in abundance. Amongst the cephalopods, one of the most notable is an oegopsid, *Watasenia scintillans*, which emits luminescence. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May. *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus* is thickly and extensively distributed in the Sea, its thickest distribution roughly coinciding with the extension of the Tsushima stream.

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less charac-

teristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighboring shores of the islands of Ogasawara, Ryukyu, and Taiwan, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the southern islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

Exclusive of the hair seal (*Zalophus lobatus*), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales.

Intensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as *Laticauda laticaudata*, *L. colubrina*, *Emydocephalus ijimae*, *Disteira melanocephala*, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

Of fishes there is a number of forms which are of great economic importance. Of scombroid fishes, such forms as *Rastrelliger chrysozonus*, *Grammatocynus bilineatus*, and *Gymnosarda nuda* which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Ryukyu; *Acanthocybium solandri* and *Euthynnus yalto* are spread, on the Pacific side, into the middle zone; and *Katsuwonus pelamis* is of very wide distribution, ranging from Taiwan to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. *Cybius chinense* and *Sarda orientalis* are rather abundant about Kyushu, but they are found in northern Honshu, both off the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts. Of other important fishes, *Pagrosomus major*, *Eynniss cardinalis* and *Talus tumifrons* are distributed from Taiwan to middle Honshu. Besides, some forms like *Embolchthys mitsukurii*, *Halichoeres*

opercularis, *Chaetodon setifer*, *Ch. vagabundus*, and others are found to extend to, or about southern Kyushu; *Kuhlia marginata* ranges from the southern seas to Izu, and *Safole toniura* to Misaki.

As they proceed southwards, ascidians seek a lower level of the sea for their habitat. Echinoderms are very much in evidence, presenting a number of species which inhabit the southern tropical seas. Some crabs like *Scylla serrata*, *Neptunus pelagicus* and *Trapezia* extend their range northwards to about Ryukyu and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where there are such forms as *Coralium japonicum*, *C. elatius*, *C. konojoi*, and *C. inutile*. The first two corals are also found forming a bed in the waters near the Ogasawara group, as well as north to Taiwan.

The sponges are very rich and varied. The sponge of some commercial value is represented by *Euspongia irregularis*, which abounds in the southern seas.

Classification. For the classification of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan see the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others.

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are most frequented by earthquakes. But earthquakes are usually harmless, and only 14 major ones are recorded in the past three centuries, the Kanto Earthquake and Fire of 1923 leading the list.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN

Date	A.D. Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
Jan. 31	1605 (Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611 (Keicho 16)	Aizu (North east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611 (Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
Dec. 31	1703 (Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido district	5,233
Oct. 28	1707 (Kan-éi 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 21	1792 (Kanséi 4)	Mt. Unzen (Kyushu)	15,200
May 8	1847 (Koka 4)	Nagano and Niigata prefectures	12,000
Dec. 24	1854 (Anséi 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855 (Anséi 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Oct. 28	1891 (Meiji 24)	Gifu and Aichi prefectures	7,275
June 15	1896 (Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923 (Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
March 7	1927 (Showa 2)	Western Kyoto prefecture	3,017
April 21	1935 (Showa 10)	Shinchiku, Taichu in Taiwan	3,185

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CHAPTER II

POPULATION

CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually trebled in the past 65 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density (199 per square kilometer) is such that the land within Japan proper leaves scant room for expansion.

(This chapter deals mainly with the population of Japan proper, because that of each territory is given in its own chapter.)

The fifth quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1940, showed a total population for the Empire of 85,226,101 including Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Mandated Islands. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

The first estimate of population after the Restoration, made in 1872, was roughly 33,000,000. By 1889, the total was 40,000,000, and the 50,000,000 mark was passed in Japan proper about 1909. Each decade showed an accelerated increase:

1870-1880	5%	1900-1910	12%
1880-1890	7.6%	1910-1920	13%
1890-1900	10%	1920-1930	15%

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and parallel Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.36 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920.

But the records of recent years show an adverse tendency in the population of Japan proper, the birth rate falling from 32.36 in 1930 to 30.18 in 1935 according to the census figures. With a total area of 382,560.83 square kilometers, Japan proper has a population density of 199 persons to the square kilometer in 1940.

In 1935 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the north-eastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), and Shikoku, it was below 5, the lowest being Yamaguchi and Kochi prefectures with 4.6. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8. Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE

According to the Census of October 1, 1930

	Total Population	Male	Female	Popula- tion per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	90,396,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Chosen	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Taiwan	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1

POPULATION

	Total Population	Male	Female	Popula- tion per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Karafuto	295,196	163,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Leased Terri- tory and South Man- churia Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Is- lands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Popula- tion per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	97,697,555	49,242,822	48,454,733	145	101.6
Japan proper	69,254,148	34,734,123	34,520,015	181	100.6
Chosen	22,899,038	11,662,645	11,236,393	104	103.8
Taiwan	5,212,426	2,659,819	2,552,607	145	104.2
Karafuto	331,943	186,225	145,718	9	127.8
Kwantung Leased Terri- tory and South Man- churia Railway Zone	1,656,726	995,447	661,279	441	150.5
South Sea Mandated Is- lands	102,537	57,333	45,204	48	126.8

ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1940

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per Sq. Km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	105,226,101	52,896,862	52,329,239	154	101.0
Japan Proper	73,114,308	36,566,010	36,548,297	199	100.0
Chosen	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	110	101.7
Taiwan	5,872,084	2,970,655	2,901,429	163	102.4
Karafuto	414,891	239,835	175,056	11	137.0
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,367,334	781,502	585,742	406	133.4
South Sea Mandated Islands	131,157	72,540	58,617	61	123.7

Note: Those persons who were in defense services in regions outside the Empire on October 1 are also included in the above figures.

Population in Occupied Territories As the result of the Greater East Asia War beginning 1941 Japan now occupies Hong Kong, the Philippines, Malaya, Burma, Borneo and other East Indies, Guam and other islands in the Pacific east of the Philippines. Their estimated population of the newly occupied territories is as follows:

	Estim. Population
Hong Kong	1,050,000
The Philippines	16,000,000
Malaya	5,500,000
Burma	15,000,000
Java and Madura	41,710,000
Sumatra	7,980,000
Borneo & other islands	6,440,000
Total	93,680,000

(In regard to detailed informations

the readers are referred to the new chapter on the Greater East Asia War and "The South Seas Handbook" published with this volume.)

Quinquennial Increase The number and rate of increase since the first national census of 1920 are as follows:

Quinquennial Increase of Population

	Empire	Japan Proper
Oct. 1,		
1920	77,728,731	55,963,053
1925	84,278,999	59,736,822
Number increased	6,550,268	3,773,769
Rate of increase	8.4%	6.7%
1930	91,421,410	64,450,005
Number increased	7,142,411	4,713,183
Rate of increase	8.5%	7.9%

	Empire	Japan Proper
Oct. 1, 1935	98,934,173	69,254,148
Number increased	7,512,763	4,804,143
Rate of increase	8.2%	7.5%
1940	105,226,101	73,114,308
Number increased	6,291,928	3,860,160
Rate of increase	6.4%	5.6%

(Note: For purposes of comparison, the figures are exclusive of the population in the South Manchuria Railway Zone, extinct since 1937.)

Both in the actual number and the rate of increase, the last quinquennial census recorded a decrease as compared with former quinquennial figures.

The population of Japan proper in 1940 increased by 3,860,000 as compared with 1935, an increase similar to that of the 5 years between 1920 and 1925 so far as the number is concerned. But it is about one million less than other quinquennial increases, the inevitable effect of the China Affair on the rate of increase and the greater movement of people to the continental countries in recent years.

According to different prefectures, those prefectures which witnessed an increase of population since 1935 are Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kanagawa, Hyogo, Nagasaki, Niigata, Saitama, Gumma, Chiba, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Nara, Mie, Aichi, Shizuoka, Yamanashi, Gifu, Miyagi, Fukushima, Iwate, Aomori, Yamagata, Akita, Toyama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi,

Wakayama, Ehime, Fukuoka, Saga, Miyazaki and Hokkaido. Of these 33 districts, those which increased more than 10 per cent are Tokyo (number of increase 985,000), Osaka (495,000), Kanagawa (348,000), Hyogo (297,000), Aichi (303,000) and Fukuoka (338,000); they are prefectures where the largest economic and industrial centers in Japan are situated.

Those prefectures whose population decreased since 1935 are the 14 prefectures of Shiga, Nagano, Fukui, Ishikawa, Tottori, Shimané, Okayama, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kochi, Oita, Kumamoto, Kagoshima and Okinawa, the greatest decrease being witnessed in Ishikawa, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kumamoto and Okinawa. The fact that all of these prefectures which showed a decrease in population are those which lie to the west of Tokyo district is worthy of note. Another noteworthy fact is that the number of prefectures which decreased in population rose from 3 in 1935 to 14 in 1940, perhaps as a result of the greater movement of people within Japan proper and to the continental countries on account of the improvement of transportation facilities and industrial development in such districts as Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi and Fukuoka.

In regard to the six biggest cities in Japan, Tokyo gained the largest number and Yokohama the largest rate of increase during the last 5 years as indicated below:

INCREASE IN THE SIX BIGGEST CITIES

1935—1940

	1935	1940	Number of Increase	Rate of Increase (%)
1. Tokyo	5,875,667	6,778,804	903,137	15.4
2. Osaka	2,989,874	3,252,340	262,466	8.8
3. Nagoya	1,082,816	1,328,084	243,268	22.7
4. Kyoto	1,080,593	1,089,726	9,133	0.8
5. Yokohama	704,290	968,091	263,801	37.5
6. Kobe	912,179	967,234	55,055	6.0

Divided according to rural and urban areas, the aggregate population in the urban area was 27,577,000 and that in the rural area 45,536,000, showing an increase in the population percentage of urban area, from 31.2 per cent in 1935

to 37.7 per cent in 1940, while that of the countryside decreased from 68.8 per cent in 1935 to 62.3 per cent in 1940, the percentages being in reference to the total population of Japan proper.

POPULATION

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF JAPAN SINCE THE FIRST
NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1920

Year	Population of Empire Japan Proper	Others	Births	Japan Proper Deaths	Natural Increase
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,091	1,210,706	875,385
1930	64,450,005	28,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398
1933	67,238,600	27,641,765	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266
1934	68,194,900	28,281,415	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099
1935	69,254,148	28,443,407	2,190,704	1,161,936	1,028,768
1936	70,258,200	27,821,464	2,101,969	1,230,378	871,591
1937	71,252,800	29,602,604	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835
1938	72,222,700	30,066,765	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516
1939	72,875,800	—	—	—	—
1940	73,114,308	32,111,793	—	—	—

Note:—The National Census has been taken five times, quinquennially, since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimates.

JAPAN'S POPULATION IN 1941

The population in Japan proper as on October 1, 1941 is estimated to have stood at 73,939,600, showing increase of 825,300 over the figures for October 1, 1940.

Thus, it is noted that a population as large as that in Toyama prefecture rose during the one year since 1940. The concentration of population to city zones from agricultural communities is noted in the movement of population in the one year under review, as shown by the following table.

INDEX NUMBER OF POPULATION
IN DIFFERENT DISTRICTS

(October 1, 1940 as 100)

Districts	October 1, 1941
Hokkaido District	104.2
Kwantō District	107.2
Tozan District	101.9
Kinki District	103.6
Shikoku District	99.9
Okinawa District	97.1
Tohoku District	101.3
Hokuriku District	101.8
Tokai District	104.7
Chugoku District	102.2
Kyushu District	103.5

It is noted that the population in the Kwantō odistrict comprising the Tokyo-Yokohama area and the Tokai district including the City of Nagoya made a sharp increase while the Okinawa district and Shikoku district marked a recession. Specially noteworthy is the advance of population of Kanagawa Prefecture which includes the city of Yokohama, fifth largest town in Japan, and Kawasaki, leading industrial center in the Kwantō district, as shown in the following table:

POPULATION INCREASE IN
LEADING PREFECTURES

(October 1, 1940 as 100)

Prefectures	October 1, 1941
Tokyo	109.9
Osaka	105.1
Hyogo	107.2
Aichi	107.3
Kanagawa	114.6
Kyoto	99.1
Fukuoka	109.8

The decline of population in Kyoto prefecture reflects the character of the old city of Kyoto.

The increase of population in Japan during the past twenty odd years is classified by sex as follows:

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

Prefecture	Census Population on October 1, 1941	Population estimated on October 1, 1941	Male	Female	Total
Prefecture to South	(sq.km.)	1940			
Hokkaido	88,775,036	3,272,718	36	1,714.7	1,595.0
Aomori	9,630,924	1,000,509	103	502.2	509.6
Iwate	15,235,306	1,095,793	71	550.4	557.8

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Census Popu- lation on October 1, 1940	Population on October 1, per sq. km.	Population estimated on October 1, 1941 (Unit: 1,000)		
		1940		Male	Female	Total
Miyagi	7,273,754	1,271,238	174	645.1	640.5	1,285.6
Akita	11,663,861	1,052,275	92	529.9	534.2	1,064.1
Yamagata	9,325,757	1,119,338	120	554.6	577.4	1,132.0
Fukushima	13,781,613	1,625,521	117	808.8	835.1	1,643.9
Ibaraki	6,090,990	1,620,000	265	811.0	827.3	1,638.3
Tochigi	6,436,585	1,206,000	187	598.3	622.0	1,220.3
Gumma	6,335,823	1,299,027	204	644.9	668.8	1,313.7
Saitama	3,802,700	1,608,039	422	807.3	818.9	1,626.2
Chiba	5,078,810	1,588,425	312	785.3	821.1	1,606.4
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,354,971	631	3,838.7	3,599.3	7,438.0
Kanagawa	2,353,484	2,188,974	930	1,150.8	1,062.9	2,213.7
Niigata	12,578,050	2,064,402	164	1,028.6	1,059.1	2,087.7
Toyama	4,257,419	822,569	193	405.8	426.1	831.9
Ishikawa	4,197,513	757,676	180	368.0	398.2	766.2
Fukui	4,017,969	643,904	160	315.6	335.6	651.2
Yamanashi	4,465,866	663,026	148	331.8	338.7	670.5
Nagano	13,626,130	1,710,729	132	843.4	886.6	1,730.0
Gifu	10,494,701	1,265,024	101	640.0	639.3	1,279.3
Shizuoka	7,769,912	2,017,860	259	1,008.1	1,032.5	2,040.6
Aichi	5,081,142	3,166,592	623	1,600.4	1,601.9	3,202.3
Mie	5,765,280	1,198,783	207	592.0	620.3	1,212.3
Shiga	4,050,929	703,679	173	345.5	366.1	711.6
Kyoto	462,196	1,729,993	3,742	873.2	876.3	1,749.5
Osaka	1,813,631	4,792,966	2,642	2,488.4	2,358.7	4,847.1
Hyogo	8,322,875	3,221,232	387	1,641.1	1,616.5	3,257.6
Nara	3,688,600	620,509	168	309.1	318.4	627.6
Wakayama	4,723,423	865,074	180	432.0	442.8	874.8
Tottori	3,489,481	484,390	138	236.6	253.3	489.9
Shimane	6,618,042	740,940	111	327.0	377.3	749.3
Okayama	7,046,475	1,329,358	174	658.6	685.8	1,344.4
Hiroshima	8,436,517	1,869,504	221	947.5	943.1	1,890.6
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	1,294,242	212	665.7	643.1	1,308.8
Tokushima	4,143,221	718,717	173	358.4	368.4	726.8
Kagawa	1,858,730	730,394	392	363.2	375.4	738.6
Chimé	5,667,108	1,178,705	207	587.4	604.6	1,192.0
Kochi	7,103,620	709,286	99	352.9	364.4	717.3
Fukuoka	4,939,646	3,094,132	626	1,594.9	1,534.2	3,129.1
Saga	2,443,897	701,517	286	346.9	362.5	709.4
Nagasaki	4,075,777	1,370,063	458	706.5	679.0	1,385.5
Kumamoto	7,437,723	1,368,179	183	674.4	709.2	1,383.6
Oita	6,333,880	972,975	154	478.9	505.1	984.0
Miyazaki	7,738,846	840,357	108	421.9	427.9	849.8
Kagoshima	9,103,810	1,589,467	174	774.3	833.1	1,607.4
Okinawa	2,386,288	574,579	240	273.7	307.4	581.1
Total	382,314,390	73,114,308	191	39,978.8	36,960.8	73,939.6

Note:—Figures for the areas of prefectures slightly differ from those given in the Chapter on Geography which were revised after the Census of 1935.

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to about 64,400,000 males and 32,050,000 females, most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, though they are also found scattered

in almost every part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and immigration are taking place between Chosen and Japan, but the main population of Chosen is Korean and numbers about 22,000,000 in 1935.

The Ainu inhabit Hokkaido, Chishima (the Kuriles) and the Japanese part of Karafuto (Saghalien).

Most of them are found in Hokkaido,

especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 15,867 in 1938. In Karafuto there were 1,274 in 1938; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of their Japanese neighbors.

The Gilyaks, whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickbun" and were reported in 1938 to be 84 in all. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes, who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians. The number of the Orokes was 251 in 1938.

The Inhabitants of Taiwan may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien provinces and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island their number being estimated at 5,392,806 in 1938; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Saiset, Tsuou, Bunun, Palwan, Ami and Yami. They were estimated to be 152,350 and belong either to the Malay or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 50,000. The natives of Salpan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Sal-

pan, although some have emigrated to the islands of Palau and Yap, and comprised 4,036 in all in 1939. The other, commonly known as the Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, numbered 47,687 in 1939.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"—uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, English, Portuguese, etc., numbering about 120 and these form a sort of foreign settlement of their own.

POPULATION OF JAPAN PROPER BY DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES (1930 Census)

	In 1930	In 1920
Japanese subjects	64,395,685	55,927,484
Japanese	63,972,025	55,884,992
Koreans	419,009	40,755
Formosans	4,611	1,703
Gilyaks and Orokes	22	31
Westerners in the Bonin	18	3
Foreigners	54,320	35,569
Chinese	39,440	22,427
Russians	3,587	1,714
Americans	3,640	3,966
British	3,144	4,188
Germans	1,228	630
French	694	674
Others	2,587	1,970
Total	64,450,005	55,963,053

Age Distribution

Figures for 69,254,148 persons residing in Japan proper on October 1, 1935, show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 36.8 per cent of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 55.8 per cent and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7.4 per cent. (For details see the Japan Year Book, 1940-41, pp. 39, 40.)

1935 Age Distribution. According to the Census statistics taken on October 1, 1935, the distribution by age in the Empire including territories and Japan proper were as follows:

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE

The Empire on October 1, 1935

	Total	Male	Female
Total	99,456,818	50,295,614	49,161,204
Age			
Under 1	3,211,161	1,628,399	1,582,762
1	2,856,450	1,444,608	1,411,842
2	2,816,200	1,422,278	1,393,922
3	2,758,311	1,397,321	1,360,990
4	2,619,370	1,324,760	1,294,610
5	2,597,688	1,314,431	1,283,257

AGE AND VOCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

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Age	Total	Male	Female				
6	2,499,601	1,264,055	1,235,456	42	946,350	494,315	452,035
7	2,471,279	1,252,585	1,218,694	43	987,938	514,815	473,123
8	2,482,404	1,256,274	1,226,130	44	989,644	467,251	432,413
9	2,366,509	1,202,558	1,163,951	45	933,691	483,961	449,730
10	2,329,728	1,179,561	1,150,167	46	931,697	481,827	449,870
11	2,218,043	1,124,312	1,093,731	47	925,902	479,897	446,005
12	2,184,707	1,106,309	1,078,398	48	872,366	448,068	424,298
13	2,193,334	1,111,348	1,081,986	49	769,356	393,353	376,003
14	2,113,944	1,078,075	1,035,869	50	774,375	394,838	379,537
15	2,131,382	1,086,861	1,044,521	51	795,168	402,170	392,998
16	1,807,626	921,726	885,900	52	779,243	389,933	389,310
17	1,824,730	929,882	894,848	53	771,376	385,134	386,242
18	1,881,584	957,467	924,117	54	793,737	396,102	397,635
19	1,862,266	948,427	913,839	55	716,069	355,493	360,576
20	1,788,083	908,558	879,525	56	756,936	375,427	381,509
21	1,808,942	912,324	896,618	57	677,047	334,325	342,722
22	1,750,397	885,020	865,377	58	637,977	311,356	326,621
23	1,729,025	879,889	849,136	59	659,753	320,633	389,120
24	1,715,726	877,500	838,226	60-64	2,580,507	1,235,165	1,345,342
25	1,594,827	814,093	780,734	65-69	1,858,568	849,109	1,009,459
26	1,620,854	826,755	794,099	70-74	1,210,924	527,445	683,479
27	1,528,215	785,866	742,349	75-79	736,087	297,382	438,705
28	1,455,338	749,951	705,387	80-84	324,516	118,198	206,318
29	1,368,541	713,101	655,440	85-89	98,240	31,519	66,721
30	1,353,223	695,318	657,905	90-94	17,213	4,671	12,542
31	1,247,508	648,368	599,140	95-99	2,177	558	1,619
32	1,310,019	677,737	632,282	100 and over	387	89	298
33	1,305,222	675,763	629,459				
34	1,291,569	673,108	618,461				
35	1,246,298	647,734	598,564				
36	1,144,670	597,046	547,624				
37	1,211,411	630,717	580,694				
38	1,133,901	593,180	540,721				
39	1,103,276	574,257	529,019				
40	1,063,195	557,854	505,341				
41	1,002,997	527,204	475,793				

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1930, the percentage of the unoccupied was 54 per cent, that of persons actually engaged in agriculture was 22 per cent, in industry 9 per cent, and in commerce 7 per cent of the total population in Japan proper. Details follow:

VOCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

Japan Proper

(October 1, 1930)

	Total	%	Male	Female	Number of Households investigated	People who belong to the Households	%
Total Population	64,450,005	100	32,390,155	32,059,850	11,655,206	60,365,705	100.0
Occupied	29,619,640	46	19,030,237	10,589,403	11,036,968	57,838,718	95.8
Agriculture	14,140,107	22	7,743,065	6,397,042	4,743,519	27,159,448	44.9
Fisheries	546,624	0.9	501,078	45,546	257,082	1,394,623	2.3
Mining	251,220	0.4	210,174	41,046	168,582	797,848	1.3
Industries	5,699,581	8.9	4,269,151	1,430,430	2,297,639	11,226,984	18.6
Commerce	4,478,098	7.0	3,013,903	1,464,195	2,096,452	10,443,214	17.3
Transportation & Communications							
Officials, Educators, Writers, etc.	1,107,574	1.7	1,028,595	78,979	507,530	2,325,230	3.8
Domestic	2,044,151	3.1	1,691,803	352,348			
Miscellaneous	781,319	1.2	84,203	697,116	885,458	4,160,377	6.9
Unoccupied	570,966	0.8	488,265	82,701	45,996	183,024	0.3
	34,830,365	54	13,359,918	21,470,447	34,710	147,970	0.2
					618,238	2,526,987	4.

POPULATION

	Total	Male
Total Population	64,450,005	32,390,155
Occupied	29,619,640	19,030,237
Agriculture	14,140,107	7,743,065
On the farm	13,549,491	7,453,883
Stock-raising	60,630	44,637
Sericulture	354,644	99,404
Forestry	175,342	145,141
Fisheries	546,624	501,078
Mining	251,220	210,174
Coal mines	182,558	147,134
Mineral mines	31,873	28,424
Oil-fields	2,845	2,768
Stone-pits	33,944	31,848
Industries	5,699,581	4,269,151
Ceramics and stone cutting	169,414	141,205
Metal, Machinery, Shipbuilding, etc.	705,395	685,555
Precision machinery	57,921	55,345
Chemical	127,537	102,279
Spinning	1,361,153	434,705
Clothes	497,695	317,392
Paper & Printing	265,263	227,623
Leather, Brush	33,119	28,602
Bamboo, Mat, etc.	703,325	635,981
Salt	21,848	18,222
Foolstuffs	446,803	342,333
Building, etc.	1,000,078	996,567
Gas, Electric, etc.	128,624	128,486
Other industries	181,406	154,856
Commerce	4,478,098	3,013,903
Wholesale and retail	3,255,215	2,511,073
Banking and insurance	61,843	56,756
Entertainments	1,161,040	446,074
Transportation and Communications	1,107,574	1,028,595
Transportation	935,922	904,732
Communications	171,652	123,863
Officials and Free Occupation	2,044,151	1,691,803
Officials, civil	436,293	420,005
Navy & Army officers on service	242,796	242,796
Judicial	7,492	7,492

	Total	Male
Educational	327,192	225,305
Religious	151,248	126,776
Medical	266,637	126,569
Secretarial and Scrivener	439,418	399,405
Writers, Artists, Actors, etc.	114,773	89,841
Others	58,302	53,614
Domestic	781,319	84,203
Miscellaneous	570,966	488,265
Unoccupied	34,830,365	13,359,918
Those who have income	190,836	120,194
Children, the aged, etc.	34,639,529	13,239,724

Marriages and Divorces

In 1938 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 538,831, a decrease of 135,669 as compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 7.46 or 2.01 lower than the previous year. The number of divorces in the same year was 44,656 or 1,844 less than in 1937. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.62 or 0.03 lower than the previous year. Before 1920 the number of divorces surpassed the 100,000 mark in a year and the proportion per 1,000 population was from 2.0 at the lowest to 3.0 at the highest, but it has kept a rate lower than 1.0 since 1929.

The years of age both of husbands and wives who marry for the first time are steadily rising.

Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population	Marriages	Divorces
1933	486,058	49,282	7.23	0.73	
1934	512,654	48,610	7.52	0.71	
1935	556,730	48,528	8.04	0.70	
1936	549,116	46,167	7.82	0.66	
1937	674,500	46,500	9.47	0.65	
1938	538,831	44,656	7.46	0.62	

MARRIAGES BY AGE GROUPS

Husbands

Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Under 19	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,734	6,635	6,186	5,775	5,022	5,004	4,511
20-24	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569	131,592	136,871	127,360	148,047	109,351
25-29	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402	223,695	250,418	255,849	313,497	245,401
30-34	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934	78,274	85,506	83,382	111,989	89,781
35-39	28,299	28,718	27,893	29,299	29,129	30,075	32,547	32,438	45,427	37,271
40-49	27,664	27,565	24,948	25,303	25,454	26,967	28,635	28,430	31,653	32,151
50-59	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740	11,441	12,111	11,666	13,029	14,051
Over 60	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195	4,424	4,867	4,969	5,854	6,271
Total	497,410	508,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	566,730	549,116	674,500	538,831

MARRIAGES AND BIRTHS

39

Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Under 15	27	34	26	37	19	38	28	15	30	29
15-19	109,115	105,467	96,039	92,064	80,592	78,091	79,058	72,492	83,702	65,011
20-24	230,233	263,962	267,714	279,728	263,644	280,497	305,857	301,948	357,288	277,016
25-29	77,795	77,755	76,526	83,836	83,152	92,582	105,956	109,613	146,325	117,645
30-34	27,656	27,432	26,155	28,567	27,181	27,975	30,272	29,660	41,929	35,573
35-39	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320	13,867	14,968	14,767	19,734	17,711
40-49	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987	12,966	13,487	13,596	16,894	16,941
50-59	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999	5,710	5,524	6,687	6,836	2,069
Over 60	1,136	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161	1,265	1,394	1,501	1,911	2,069
Total	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058	512,654	556,730	549,116	674,500	538,831

FIRST MARRIAGES AND AVERAGE YEARS OF AGE

Year	Number		Average	
	Husbands	Wives	Years of Age, Husbands	Wives
1929	428,828	456,401	27.36	23.22
1930	437,094	465,128	27.33	23.21
1931	429,714	457,271	27.29	23.25
1932	447,287	475,273	27.40	23.39
1933	420,363	447,906	27.57	23.58
1934	445,059	473,044	27.69	23.71
1935	485,452	515,706	27.76	23.81
1936	480,720	509,342	27.86	23.92
1937	595,576	626,498	28.09	24.16
1938	468,647	497,062	28.39	24.41

Births and Deaths

The natural increase of population or the excess of births over deaths has become greater with the advance of years. For several years since 1910

the natural increase kept to the 700,000 mark. In 1916 and 1917 it decreased a little, and in 1918 it reached the lowest figure of 300,000, largely due to the prevalence of a severe influenza epidemic. In 1919, however, the increase regained, reaching the 500,000 mark, and it continued to increase till the 940,000 mark was attained in 1926. There have been ups and downs since, but 1932 was a record year, registering an increase of 1,007,000, the million mark being attained for the first time. In 1935 a new record was established with 1,028,768. But 1936 recorded 871,691 and it fell to 668,516 in 1938, smallest in the last decade. It may be premature, however to come to any decisive conclusion on the general tendency until 1940 when accurate results may be obtained from the fifth census.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

Japan Proper

	Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths	Rate per 1,000 of Population		
				Births	Deaths	Excess of Births over Deaths
1927						
1928	2,060,737	1,214,323	846,414	33.61	19.81	13.81
1929	2,135,852	1,236,711	899,141	34.38	19.91	14.47
1930	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,798	33.00	20.04	12.96
1931	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234	32.36	18.17	14.19
1932	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893	32.17	18.98	13.19
1933	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398	32.92	17.73	15.19
1934	2,111,253	1,193,987	927,266	31.55	17.76	13.79
1935	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099	29.97	18.11	11.86
1936	2,190,704	1,161,936	1,028,768	31.63	16.78	14.85
1937	2,101,969	1,230,278	871,691	29.92	17.51	12.41
1938	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835	30.61	16.95	13.65
	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516	26.70	17.44	9.26

Urbanization

As in other countries where industry is of importance, Japan has experienced a shift of population from the countryside to the towns and cities. Concurrently, municipalities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban centers; the first, the increase in

the number of municipalities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population residing in these larger municipalities. For 1920, 1925, 1930 and 1935, the figures are based on the national censuses of these years, but the earlier figures depend on less comprehensive statistics compiled by local authorities.

POPULATION

CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED

According to Population

	1898	1903	1908	1913	1920	1925	1930	1935
Total Number	14,027	13,323	12,457	12,356	12,244	12,019	11,865	11,546
Population up to 499	646	461	228	163	126	82	70	64
500—999	738	512	360	306	304	265	258	250
1,000—1,999	3,311	2,667	2,190	1,982	2,354	2,277	2,092	2,015
2,000—4,999	8,018	8,065	7,652	7,584	7,204	7,052	6,886	6,564
5,000—9,999	1,081	1,343	1,654	1,852	1,639	1,734	1,878	1,953
10,000—19,999	152	185	268	335	374	392	426	466
20,000—29,999	33	25	35	55	76	78	93	86
30,000—39,999	25	33	26	25	40	36	38	44
40,000—49,999	3	7	15	17	20	31	27	16
50,000—99,999	12	16	19	26	31	51	65	54
Above 100,000	8	9	10	11	16	21	32	34

DISTRIBUTION PER 1,000 OF POPULATION IN CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES¹

Size of Communities	End of 1898	End of 1903	End of 1908	End of 1913	Oct. 1, 1920	Oct. 1, 1925	Oct. 1, 1930	Oct. 1, 1935
up to 499	3.5	2.3	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3
500—999	12.4	8.1	5.3	4.3	3.6	3.6	3.2	2.9
1,000—1,999	115.2	87.3	67.6	67.2	60.9	60.9	51.8	46.3
2,000—4,999	540.5	518.1	469.2	412.2	377.2	377.2	343.2	305.2
5,000—9,999	151.3	177.2	207.5	193.4	192.1	192.1	193.5	186.8
10,000—19,999	44.1	50.7	69.3	90.7	87.5	87.5	88.7	90.3
20,000—29,999	17.5	12.4	16.3	32.3	30.3	30.3	34.2	29.8
30,000—39,999	18.7	23.3	17.8	25.1	20.9	20.9	20.1	21.5
40,000—49,999	2.8	6.3	12.8	15.9	23.1	23.7	18.5	10.7
50,000—99,999	17.0	22.2	26.1	37.6	57.7	57.7	68.8	53.2
Above 100,000	77.0	92.1	107.0	120.7	146.3	146.3	178.2	253.2

1. For administrative purposes, all of Japan proper is divided into cities, towns and villages, persons residing in what would be known as rural districts in other countries belonging, as the case may be, to the nearest cities, towns and villages.

In October 1940, there were 167 cities in Japan proper, which meant an increase of 8 every year since the 1935 census. According to the census on October 1, 1940, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 45, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo lead-

ing others with 6,778,804. The total urban population comprises, 27,577,000 or 37.7 per cent of the population of Japan proper. The rapid growth of cities may be proved from the fact that the rate of increase of population in cities is much higher than that of Japan proper, as is shown below:

	Population		Quinquennial Increase		Rate of Increase	
	Japan Proper	Cities	Japan Proper	Cities	Japan Proper	Cities
1925	59,739,822	16,606,809				
1930	64,405,005	19,439,405	3,773,769	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1935	69,254,148	22,655,920	4,713,183	2,832,596	7.9	17.06
1940	73,114,308	27,577,730	3,860,160	4,921,810	5.6	21.7

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

(On April 1, each year)

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632
1898	52	1,169	13,557
1908	66	1,164	11,233
1913	69	1,246	11,033
1920	83	1,366	10,782
1925	100	1,510	10,451

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1930	109	1,702	9,980
1934	124	1,683	9,788
1935	127	1,702	9,721
1936	129	1,720	9,662
1937	141	1,707	9,568
1938	146	1,711	9,524
1940	167	1,757	9,253

A village is an administrative unit consisting of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER
Census of October 1, 1935 and 1940

	Population in 1935	Population in 1940		Population in 1935	Population in 1940
1. Tokyo	5,875,667	6,778,804	55. Kiryu	76,145	86,086
2. Osaka	2,989,874	3,252,340	56. Tobata	67,800	84,260
3. Nagoya	1,082,816	1,328,084	57. Okazaki	77,195	84,073
4. Kyoto	1,080,593	1,089,726	58. Hidachi	34,536	82,885
5. Yokohama	704,290	968,091	59. Morioka	69,130	79,478
6. Kobe	912,179	967,234	60. Nobéoka	56,421	79,426
7. Hiroshima	310,118	343,968	61. Oita	61,732	76,985
8. Fukuoka	291,158	306,763	62. Nagano	77,325	76,861
9. Kawasaki	154,748	300,777	63. Hachinohe	62,210	73,494
10. Yawata	208,629	261,309	64. Matsumoto	73,353	72,795
11. Nagasaki	211,702	252,630	65. Takasaki	64,283	71,002
12. Kuré	231,333	238,195	66. Ichinomiya	53,376	70,792
13. Sendai (Miyagi Prefecture)	219,547	223,630	67. Yamagata	69,931	69,184
14. Shizuoka	200,737	212,198	68. Tsu	65,971	68,625
15. Sapporo	196,541	206,103	69. Shimizu	61,123	68,617
16. Sasebo	173,283	205,989	70. Otsu	71,063	67,532
17. Hakodate	207,480	203,862	71. Nagaoka	62,152	66,987
18. Kanazawa	163,733	196,297	72. Miyazaki	64,726	66,497
19. Shimonoseki	132,737	196,022	73. Mito	63,816	66,293
20. Wakayama	179,732	195,203	74. Suita	33,237	65,812
21. Kumamoto	187,382	194,139	75. Naha	65,208	65,765
22. Yokosuka	182,871	193,358	76. Beppu	62,345	64,724
23. Kagoshima	181,736	190,257	77. Yokkaichi	58,471	63,732
24. Sakai	141,286	182,147	78. Kushiro	56,170	63,180
25. Amagasaki	71,072	181,011	79. Hachioji	59,494	62,279
26. Kokura	110,372	173,639	80. Akita	60,646	61,791
27. Gifu	128,721	172,340	81. Choshi	48,352	61,198
28. Hamamatsu	133,338	166,346	82. Urawa	44,328	39,671
29. Otaru	153,587	164,282	83. Takaoka	57,249	59,434
30. Okayama	166,144	163,552	84. Bôfu	30,606	58,890
31. Niigata	134,992	150,903	85. Miyakonojo	36,575	58,819
32. Toyohashi	140,735	142,716	86. Ichikawa	46,711	58,060
33. Moji	121,611	138,997	87. Koriyama	54,709	57,402
34. Fusé	48,696	134,724	88. Nara	55,968	57,273
35. Toyama	83,324	127,859	89. Fukuyama	58,186	56,653
36. Omuta	104,992	124,266	90. Ogaki	49,273	56,117
37. Tokushima	97,021	119,581	91. Imabari	51,602	55,557
38. Matsuyama	81,940	117,534	92. Matsue	52,033	55,506
39. Takamatsu	86,840	111,207	93. Numazu	49,824	53,165
40. Muroran	65,095	107,628	94. Ujiyamada	52,494	52,555
41. Kochi	103,405	106,644	95. Uwajima	51,280	52,101
42. Himéji	91,375	104,259	96. Hiroasaki	46,014	51,498
43. Nishinomiya	89,909	103,774	97. Iwakuni	—	51,045
44. Kôfu	82,664	102,419	98. Funabashi	26,449	50,907
45. Ube	76,642	100,680	99. Saga	50,154	50,406
46. Aomori	93,414	99,065	100. Higashimaizuru	—	49,810
47. Kawaguchi	53,716	97,115	101. Tottori	45,335	49,261
48. Fukui	75,273	94,595	102. Handa	18,217	49,153
49. Chiba	57,446	92,061	103. Yonezawa	50,448	48,816
50. Kurumé	91,920	89,490	104. Onomichi	30,777	48,726
51. Wakamatsu (Fukuoka Pref.)	73,345	88,901	105. Ashikaga	48,875	48,310
52. Utsunomiya	87,129	87,868	106. Fukushima	48,484	48,287
53. Asahigawa	91,021	87,514	107. Wakamatsu (Fukushima Prefecture)	46,190	48,091
54. MaéBASHI	87,181	86,997	108. Akashi	42,644	47,751
			109. Yonago	36,635	47,051
			110. Nogata	43,943	47,026

POPULATION

	Population in 1935	Population in 1940
111. Iizuka	39,629	46,685
112. Kishiwada	39,097	46,486
113. Seto	57,553	45,775
114. Toyonaka	24,126	45,013
115. Isahaya	—	44,418
116. Hiratsuka	38,348	43,148
117. Niihama	—	42,392
118. Kamaishi	36,230	42,167
119. Kamakura	29,412	40,151
120. Okaya	—	40,033
121. Isezaki	23,588	40,004
122. Kumagaya	37,649	39,412
123. Mihara	21,130	39,072
124. Tokuyama	32,062	38,419
125. Kawagoé	35,192	38,407
126. Noshiro	25,756	37,054
127. Fujisawa	30,184	36,769
128. Obihiro	35,695	36,555
129. Sanjo	34,649	36,541
130. Ishinomaki	33,530	36,442
131. Hikone	23,366	36,142
132. Tsuruoka	37,224	35,986
133. Ikeda	31,457	35,494
134. Tamano	—	35,467
135. Matsuzaka	35,661	35,391
136. Tsuyama	36,092	35,111
137. Ueda	35,380	35,069
138. Shikama	—	35,061
139. Yamaguchi	34,803	34,579
140. Sendai (Kago- shima Pref.)	33,354	34,289
141. Yatsushiro	—	33,586
142. Kudamatsu	—	33,212
143. Shingu	32,055	32,403
144. Hagi	32,587	32,270
145. Kurashiki	34,716	32,228
146. Sakata	31,866	31,958
147. Fukuchiyama	22,895	31,848
148. Yawatahama	30,500	31,728
149. Tsuruga	26,828	31,346
150. Karatsu	31,058	31,342
151. Takayama	20,145	31,296
152. Tochigi	31,335	31,195
153. Shimabara	21,892	30,411
154. Takada	31,284	30,152
155. Taira	25,741	30,126
156. Nanao	—	29,986
157. Kashiwazaki	25,521	29,567
158. Sumoto	31,565	29,461
159. Nakatsu	30,328	29,414
160. Kainan	29,917	29,091
161. Kuwana	28,366	28,944
162. Tatéyama	20,547	28,591
163. Iida	17,991	28,494
164. Marugamé	29,615	26,928
165. Tajimi	24,695	26,820
166. Atami	17,768	24,477
167. Shuri	19,305	17,537

CITIES IN TERRITORIES

CHOSEN (Korea)

	1935 (Census)	1937 (Estimate)
Keijo (Seoul)	404,206	706,396
Fusan	180,271	213,142
Heijo	172,746	185,419
Talkyu	105,716	110,866
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	80,420	102,473
Kaijo	53,457	56,595
Shingishu	54,317	51,347
Kankyo	52,634	61,430
Gensan	58,409	63,996
Chinnampo	48,314	48,838
Seishin	50,085	66,958
Moppo	59,046	62,457
Masan	29,858	32,411
Kunsan	41,077	42,851
Taiden	36,739	40,001
Zenshu	40,593	42,520
Koshu	52,674	57,461
Salshu	36,188	36,260
Konan	39,092	58,077

TAIWAN

	1935 (Census)	1939 (Estimate)
Taihoku	283,085	340,114
Tainan	107,887	131,079
Kiirun	84,650	100,182
Takao	81,582	118,435
Kagi	70,083	90,235
Taichu	63,414	81,614
Shinchiku	54,100	59,983
Shoka	51,152	58,491
Heito	41,715	53,999

KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

	1930 (Census)	1936 (Estimate)
Dairen (Dalny)	292,552	377,000
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	33,933	35,000

KARAFUTO

	1931	1930
Odomari	33,312	46,200
Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Foreign Residents

The number of foreign residents in Japan proper, for the past 5 years has been as follows:

	At the end of	Diplomatic and Consu- lar Corps	Total	Male	Female
1934	400	32,641	21,895	10,746	12,709
1935	423	38,475	25,766	13,363	10,991
1936	422	40,865	27,502	18,847	10,493
1937	419	30,838	19,847	18,364	10,493
1938	355	28,857	18,364		

Information given with the 1938 figures shows 6,825 foreigners engaged in commerce; 4,011 in professional work; 2,834 studying; 1,190 in mining and manufacturing; 52 in transportation; 15 in agriculture and forestry; 312 in various other occupations, and 13,618 without occupations.

Emigration

Emigration of the Japanese people to foreign countries other than Manchoukuo and China is decreasing in recent years. In 1937 the total number was 10,744, a decrease of 375 or 3.3 per cent from the previous year. Brazil received the largest number as in preceding years with 4,675 or 43 per cent of the total, a decrease of 682 in actual number and 5 per cent in the similar percentage, while Philippines, the second country of destination for Japanese emigrants in the same year, received 3,876 or 36 per cent, gaining 985 and 10 per cent over the previous year.

In 1937 the total number of the Japanese

residing in foreign countries, including Manchoukuo and China, was 1,042,972, an increase of 45,859 or 4.6 per cent over the previous year, and in 1938 it increased to 1,059,913, a gain of 16,939 or 1.6 per cent as compared with 1937.

According to the figures for 1937 merchants comprise the largest number among Japanese foreign residents with 110,291 or 10 per cent of the total, farmers come next with 86,755 or 8 per cent, to be followed by those who are at work in public and private offices, industrialists and those who are engaged in transportation business in the order named.

The figures for 1938 show the fact that larger numbers of the Japanese emigrants are destined toward Manchoukuo and China in recent years, with 513,823 or more than 50 per cent residing in these two countries, an increase of 42,483 or 9 per cent over the previous year. It is said that in 1938-1939 this increasing tendency was further accelerated with an increase of 200,000 for China alone.

EMIGRANTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES (Manchoukuo and China excluded)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Brazil	5,565	15,092	23,299	22,960	5,745	5,357	4,675
Philippines	1,109	747	941	1,544	1,802	2,891	3,876
Peru	299	369	481	473	814	593	166
Canada	106	98	1	105	57	82	109
U.S.S.R.	1,238	1,096	1,095	1,320	322	297	259
Straits Settlements	549	356	322	598	583	534	414
Mexico	283	149	85	80	53	62	65
Argentina	362	239	135	112	201	349	307
Dutch E. Indies	447	533	468	356	389	145	131
Australia	34	92	59	105	92	223	222
Others	392	262	341	434	755	586	520
Total	10,384	19,033	27,317	28,087	10,813	11,119	10,744

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Male	Female
1935	689,818	398,060	291,758
1936	997,115	561,590	435,525
1937	1,042,974	592,216	450,758
1938	1,059,913	598,490	461,423
1939	1,321,395	—	—

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES BY OCCUPATION

October 1, 1937

	Male	Female
Agriculture	83,862	2,893
Fisheries	8,177	129
Mining	5,756	198

	Male	Female
Man. Industry	39,582	2,937
Commerce	86,179	24,112
Transportation	35,158	1,410
Public and private professions	43,273	5,775
Domestic works	6,876	7,732
Other occupations	15,172	3,653
Without occupation	268,181	401,917
Total	592,216	450,758

JAPANESE RESIDENTS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES (1939)

Asia	
Manchoukuo	491,947
China & Hongkong	105,902
South Sea Islands	41,950

Other countries	1,524
Total	641,323
North & South America	
North America	264,771
Hawaii	151,199
Canada	23,045
Brazil	199,880
Other countries	36,512
Total	675,407
European countries	2,577
Australia & the others	1,869
Africa	219
Grand total	1,321,395

Population Plan

In order to realize a greater increase of population in Japan proper, competent authorities of the Planning Board, the Welfare Ministry and the Population Commission drafted a population plan and presented it to the Cabinet Meeting on January 22, 1941, and the plan was approved by the Government.

The birth rate of Japan proper was highest in 1920, being 36 births per 1,000 of population, but since then it began to decline to be 27 per 1,000 in 1938. The death rate has decreased from 27 per 1,000 in 1918 to 17 in 1937, but this is not satisfactory as compared with other advanced countries. The population problem, therefore, began to draw a keen attention from the Government and thoughtful individuals. Along with the expansion of Japanese activities in East Asia, Japan has to secure sufficient man power in the years to come by increasing her population, carrying out proper measures for the maintenance and increase of birth rate, and protecting the health of mothers and infants.

The gist of the adopted Population Plan is as follows:

1. The Goal. The goal of the population increase plan is to have 100 million people in Japan proper by the end of 1960, aiming at securing the steady increase of population in future, at maintaining the highest birth rate and the best quality in the world, at securing sufficient man power for defense and industrial services, and at a proper distribution of people in East Asia where the Japanese are to lead other races in the area.

2. Means for Increase. Within the coming 10 years, the average year of age for marriage should be lowered by 3, aiming at an average number of 5 children for each family. In order to en-

courage the birth rate and achieve an average of 5 children for each family, theories discouraging child bearing shall be stamped out and the love for the old family system shall be fostered; public and private matrimonial agencies shall be strengthened; when necessary wedding expenses shall be advanced; and education in girls' schools shall put more emphasis on matrimonial and maternal subjects. Labor conditions for female laborers shall be so improved that labor will not hinder early marriage or injure the health of young mothers-to-be. Families which have many children shall be commended and given protection and assistance in various ways.

In regard to the decrease of infant mortality, the plan shall aim at prevention of diseases attacking infants, thereby to lower the present death rate in general by 35 per cent within the coming 20 years. The activities of health consultation rooms, nurses, settlements in farming villages shall be enlarged and strengthened; material and food-stuffs necessary for bringing up strong children shall be secured; and a movement for lowering the death rate of infants shall be carried out. All medical facilities connected with the health of infants and mothers shall be improved.

3. Proper Distribution. Along with the progress of the Land Planning, a proper distribution of population according to different districts and abilities of individuals shall be made so as to prevent a greater concentration of population in cities, by dispersing factories and schools in country districts. A proper percentage of population in Japan proper shall devote themselves to farming industry so that at least 40 per cent of the population shall remain farmers throughout Japan, Manchoukuo and China.

The measures included in the scheme have already been put into operation since 1940; for instance, the number of borrowers of wedding expenses during 1940 was 1,272 with the aggregate amount of ¥358,981 or on an average ¥280 per couple. The Peoples' Chest is ready to advance up to ¥2,000 per couple. The propaganda for early marriage called forth prompt response from the people and the columns of daily papers are full of articles witnessing the happy results of early marriage blessed with many strong children.

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CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF THE CULTURAL HISTORY OF JAPAN

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OUTLINE OF THE CULTURAL HISTORY OF JAPAN

Prehistoric Culture

(2,000 B.C.—200 B.C.)

Land and Inhabitants Regarding the origin of this country the mythological legends tell us that ages ago, the first ancestral deity of the Imperial Family gave birth to the Japanese islands. With firm faith in this legend of the origin of this land which has furnished a source of inspiration for their national life, the Japanese people, since the foundation of this Empire, have unwaveringly pursued the course of creative development centering around the Imperial Family, with which they have maintained a happy and indivisible relationship.

According to geological, palaeontological and other scientific researches, the islands of Japan once formed a part of the Asiatic continent, but were detached from it some 450,000 years ago.

Since their formation the Japanese islands had been left in an uninhabited condition until about 2,000 B.C. when for the first time some Neolithic tribes (or people in the New Stone Age) using the pottery of the Jomon type, a clay pottery with corded pattern, migrated from the continent into some parts of the islands, gradually extending their influence all over the islands. As to the racial origin of these first inhabitants, it was believed that they belonged to the Palaeo-Ainu stock, but a new theory has been advanced recently according to which the primitive inhabitants were the common ancestors of the Japanese and the Ainu now living in Hokkaido, Saghalien, and the Kurile Islands. In the light of this new theory, it may be concluded that developing from this ethnological prototype this original stock gradually established themselves as a unitary mixed race known as Yamato race, by gradually absorbing various ethnological elements immigrating from the Asiatic continent and the South Sea Islands, such as the Ainu, the Mongols, the Hans, the Koreans, the Indonesians, the Negritos, etc.

Relics of the Early Neolithic Culture

The Neolithic tribes coming to these islands in great succession in small groups were a roving people, who moved from one place to another along the coast of the islands in pursuit of fishes and shells. Having no fixed abode, they usually took shelter in mountain grottoes to protect themselves against inclement weather or attack by the enemy. Many relics of these cave dwellings still remain to be seen in various parts of this country, especially in the eastern part of Japan.

In course of time, however, they began to settle down, though temporarily, in such places where fishes and shells were obtained in abundance. They constructed their dwelling places by hollowing out a shallow pit either square or rectangular in shape, on the diluvium of the seashore or coastal isles, planting one pole in the center with four main poles at the corners and several other poles around it, and covered with a roof. The dwelling pits were spacious enough to hold several persons, with a fireplace in the center, and with a ditch dug around it to keep the floor from moisture. The deepest of these dwelling pits reaches one meter, the older ones being deeper and more angular in shape than later ones. The fact that many remains of these dwelling pits crowd together at certain places, suggests that Neolithic people lived a community life on these sites.

Relics of the Later Neolithic Culture

But with the approach of the beginning of the Christian era, these Neolithic people penetrated far into the hinterland of the diluvial region, where they took to hunting side by side with fishing. Their dwellings were also removed to plateaux, or the banks of rivers or lakes.

The construction of their dwelling pits also underwent a change. They became shallow, increased in area, and changed from square to round or oval shape. Finally they began to be con-

structed partly or entirely above the ground, with an earthen floor or floor paved with flat stones. The extension of the scope of habitation signifies, on the one hand, an increase in the population of those primitive inhabitants, and on the other, the remarkable progress made in the manner of fishing and hunting which began to be conducted as a joint undertaking by the entire community.

Skeletons, Stone Implements, and Earthenware Pottery, stone implements and skeletons, usually with the bones of animals, birds and fish and shells, occur in abundance on many sites of those primitive habitations or in the shell mounds in their neighborhood.

More than 1,000 human bones excavated in those Neolithic sites represent the Neolithic people who first migrated into Japan and who constituted the ethnological prototype of the later Japanese and the present Ainu. It is also known from those human remains that the original inhabitants in these islands had some Tungusic strain.

Among the various Neolithic implements, stone arrow heads, stone spears, stone axes, etc. were used in hunting, while stone sinkers, antler harpoons, bone hooks, etc. constituted the fishing tools. Besides these, there were some kitchen utensils such as stone knives, stone clubs, stone plates, stone spoons, etc. as well as some earthenware of various shapes such as bowls, vases, bottles, etc. which were used as containers of food. Most of these stone implements, which belong to the earlier Neolithic phase, were manufactured by chipping, but began to be finely polished in the later Neolithic period. The pottery obtained from Neolithic sites are known as the Jomon type, because of the rope or mat impressions upon the surface or the designs composed of curved lines arranged artistically. These Neolithic pottery vessels were all made by hand, without being turned on the wheel, modelled after bamboo baskets. They were made by shaping clay into the desired form of vessels by hand, or by coiling up a long string of clay into that form, or by piling up many rings of clay into that shape. In other cases, they were made up of many strips of clay. They were dried in the shade and then baked in uncovered furnaces at the maximum temperature of 650 degrees.

Primitive Costumes and Animism If considered on the basis of clay idols unearthed from Neolithic remains, it seems that the Japanese proper were clad in a two-piece fur dress composed of the upper and lower garments. The upper garment for women opened in front, while the male attire was a shirt-like garment to slip on over the head. However, from the fact that basket-making was already known to the people in those primitive stages, it may be imagined with good reason that they wore clothes made of vegetable fibers woven by themselves.

On the other hand, human remains and clay idols obtained from shell mounds and other Neolithic sites go to show that the primitive people made various personal adornments of shells, horns, teeth, bones, etc. to be worn at the ears, in the hair, around the neck and the arms, or at the waist. In the later periods, however, more advanced adornments such as ear-rings, comma-shaped beads, etc. came to be added to those already existing.

What demands attention in this connection is that just like clay idols, clay tablets, stone idols, stone tablets, stone clubs, etc. those personal adornments possessed a great deal of magical significance peculiar to animism.

There are many evidences to show that the Japanese proper were generally under the influence of animism, but the most remarkable of them all is the fact that without abandoning dead bodies they had the custom of burying them together in one place 2 to 3 feet underneath the ground. Especially noteworthy is the manner of burying them. They are often buried with their knees bent, with a stone held at the breast or abdomen, or with an earthen vessel placed upon the head, which had the animistic significance of preventing the souls from going out from the dead body. Red colored skeletons and relics of fires built by the side of the corpses often occurring in Neolithic remains also suggest some animistic magic.

Maternal Clan Community It is a noteworthy phenomenon that relics found at Neolithic sites such as dwelling pits, shell mounds and burial mounds, are confined to articles of daily use that are simple and similar in shape and design, and do not include any particular article of luxurious quality or of elaborate design. From this fact it might

be inferred that there prevailed no class distinction among the earliest inhabitants in Japan and that they represented a primitive type of society.

In those primitive times people formed communities called "Uji" (or clan), who under the leadership of the clan elders shared the common economic activities either in production or consumption, while enjoying together the cultural benefits available. They were, however, still in the stage of self-sustaining economy, and barter economy was still unknown among clan groups. Clans were the units of social formation, and were not still divided into families. Marriages were generally consanguineous among the same clan members, and the clansmen's lineages were counted by their maternal line. Thus it may be said that the primitive inhabitants formed many maternal clan communities, which were scattered all over the Japanese Islands.

Culture of Ancient Japan

(200 B.C.—531 A.D.)

Age of Traditions According to the "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals), the first book of history compiled by Imperial order in 720 A.D. in the reign of the Empress Gensho, the Japanese islands were unified as far back as 660 B.C. by the first Emperor Jimmu under his rule. But being the record of the remote ages it would be most reasonable to call the period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu to the Emperor Keitai, who reigned from 507 to 531 A.D., the Age of Traditions.

Ancient Japan during that period still belonged to the Neolithic phase and had hardly entered into the Bronze Age. In the early years of that period the Jomon Neolithic pottery was being used in eastern Japan, while in the western district polished stone implements and the Yayoi Neolithic pottery were prevailing. It was only in the latter half of the period that Japan stepped into the historical period, together with the practice of building sepulchral mounds and the use of iron implements.

Relics of the Early Yayoi-type Culture About the 3rd century B.C. the Jomon culture was still flourishing on plateaux in eastern Japan, while in western Japan a culture represented by the Yayoi pottery accompanied by bronze utensils made its way from the Asiatic contin-

ent to gradually extend its influence. This Yayoi-type culture may be classified into the two categories: the one accompanied by bronze swords and bronze halberds which flourished in the extensive region covering northern Kyushu, Shikoku and Chugoku with the first named district as its center, and the other characterised by the Dotaku or bronze bells which extended its influence to the Yamato region via the San-in (the part facing the Japan Sea west of Kyoto) and Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) districts.

The bearers of these two types of culture built their villages in the alluvial lowlands on the seashore or by the rivers, living in pit dwellings or habitations built above the ground. Various remains of this phase of the so-called Yayoi culture are obtained chiefly from large jar coffins, which contain skeletons and some stone implements. The Yayoi pottery, the first product to be manufactured by means of the wheel, is graceful in shape, with a design more elegant than that found on the Jomon pottery. Crude vessels of the Yayoi type were used as pans and kettles for cooking food, while the jars and pots served as food containers.

By this time, a primitive form of agriculture had begun to be conducted, along with hunting and fishing. No wonder that bronze implements newly imported from the continent were utilized for farming, with a greater degree of convenience than the existing stone implements.

Relics of the Later Yayoi-type Culture

With the approach of the Christian era, the villages removed gradually into the hinterland, the bordering regions between the alluvial plains and the diluvial plateaux. In addition to the imported bronze implements, the people in this period had learnt to cast excellent arms as well as some agricultural implements. With these new farming conveniences they had taken to rice cultivation in the terraced paddy-fields on the fan-shaped hillside. Thus the growth of agriculture increased the value of land, converting it into property; while at the same time a strong demand for slaves as suppliers of necessary labor began to be acutely felt by various clan communities so that there was a keen struggle among them in securing laborers.

By and by the Yayoi culture extended

its influence to the sphere of the Jomon culture in eastern Japan, through the intermediate three districts in the western half of the Main Island and Kwantō, remaining for about one century in each of the districts. Under such circumstances, it was only about the 5th century that the extreme north-eastern district came under the influence of the Yayoi culture and a new culture characterized by the use of iron implements and the construction of sepulchral mounds reached its zenith.

Ancient Culture Characterized by Sepulchral Mounds and Iron Implements It was about the 2nd century that iron implements made their appearance for the first time in northern Kyushū. At the beginning, iron works owed their development to Korea both in the technique of tempering and the supply of ores. But with the discovery of excellent sand iron in the San-in and Chūgoku districts, the natives began to make themselves various implements with the domestic material.

The appearance of iron spades and ploughs and other farming tools contributed a great deal towards the development of agriculture. Paddy-field cultivation came to be conducted on a large scale with the employment of cattle; farm products such as beans, barley, millet, barn-yard millet, etc. were raised largely; ponds and canals were dug out to bring the farming area under irrigation; river banks were constructed to avoid the floods; and swamps were dried for arable land.

Against such growing agricultural background powerful clans were brought into existence in the country. Influential clansmen lived in stately houses built on raised floor and grand burial mounds were constructed in honor of the leaders of the clans, and hence this period came to be known as the age of ancient sepulchral mounds, which lasted from the 2nd to the 5th centuries chiefly in western Japan with its centers in the provinces of Chikushi in northern Kyushū, Hyūga in southern Kyushū, Izumo in the San-in district, Kibi in the Chūgoku district, Yamato in the Kinki district, etc. Especially in the Yamato region this type of culture attained the height of its development during the 5th century.

The influence of this type of culture made itself felt in eastern Japan much later than in western Japan. The prac-

tice of building burial mounds began to be evident both in the central provinces and the Kwantō district only in the latter part of the 4th century and continued until the 8th century. This custom was very late in reaching the extreme north-eastern districts of Japan, where burial mounds began to be constructed in the 8th century, by which time the practice began to disappear in the Kwantō district.

Food, Clothing, and Habitation of the Ancient Japanese In ancient Japan agriculture formed the islanders' principal industry chiefly devoted to the raising of rice, barley, millet, barn-yard millet and beans, which formed their main foodstuffs. They also grew peaches, nuts, chestnuts, etc. and brewed saké which was their favorite beverage. Although animal meat and fish also supplied them with subsidiary foodstuffs, owing to the geographical conditions of the islands unsuited to cattle raising, the ancient Japanese passed from the age of fishing and hunting directly into the agricultural age, without experiencing a pastoral life.

Bronze and iron tools and articles replaced polished stone implements, while the Haji and the Sué potteries took the place of the Yayoi earthenware as containers of food. The Haji pottery, brown in color, was baked in oxidizing flame in an open kiln, and the Sué pottery, harder and gray in color, was fired in a white heat. Both vessels were made in mass production by means of the wheel, in various shapes and forms according to the purposes which they were intended to serve.

From Haniwa or clay figures excavated from burial mounds, one can know the kind of clothes the ancient Japanese wore. With a striking resemblance to the present Korean costume, the male attire consisted of the upper garment called "so" and the trousers called "hakama"; while the female attire had the skirt called "mo" instead of "hakama." They were generally made of vegetable fiber, though silk fabrics were newly introduced to be worn by the nobles. Personal adornments consisted of jewelled necklaces and brooches as well as gold or copper crowns, belts, bracelets, earrings, etc. In fighting or hunting the warriors went out on horseback, clad in iron armor and wearing an iron helmet, with a straight sword at the waist and bow and arrow in hand.

The dwelling places of the plebeians were usually crude thatched huts; but it is suggested from some ancient clay figures that noblemen's habitations were wooden buildings with raised floor, thatched either with weeds or shingles. In some cases they were imposing two-story buildings.

Beginning of the Primitive Shintoism
In those remote days animism still prevailed as the popular belief side by side with the custom of worshipping powerful natural phenomena. A kind of Shamanism was born out of this belief and a female Shaman prayed to the deities for the welfare of the clan-head and conveyed the divine will to him, thereby adding weight to the authority of the clan-head over his community. Thus was developed the primitive Shintoism partaking many of the Shamanistic characteristics and was followed principally by the aristocratic classes in ancient Japan.

In its most primitive form, Shintoism appeared as the worship of "Uji-gami" or clan deities, which was connected with reverence for the ancestors of the clan-heads. The members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, but as the faith came to be finally embraced by all the inhabitants of the village belonging to the clan, the clan deity became the tutelary deity of the place as well as the guardian god of agriculture, in addition to being regarded as the object of ancestor worship. At this stage of religious development, all affairs of the clan began to be conducted through services to the clan deity, which marked the birth of the unity of religion and politics. Under this system, the political control of a clan-head over the people and land belonging to the clan was considerably strengthened, because it was sanctified by the religious services to the clan god.

There were in those days repeated struggles among different clans, resulting in the conquest or subjection of many weak clans by a few powerful ones. As a result of such clan and tribal fightings, the deities of the vanquished clans were subordinated to the gods of the conquering clans. The repetition of such a process gave rise to the establishment of genealogical relations among the different clan deities, reflecting the status of each clan in relation to another. Thus, the eight million

deities of Japan were gradually systematized into definite genealogical relations centering around the Ama-terasu-O-Mikami.

Primitive Art and Literature Being under the strong influence of animism and Shamanistic belief, the ancient Japanese believed in the presence of souls or spirits within the human body. Acting according to their religious belief that as Heaven was the abode of the deities, Hades was the land of the spirits of the dead, they buried human remains in sepulchral mounds with due ceremony and worshipped them with reverence. Stone chambers, stone coffins and sarcophagi, and such objects as swords, mirrors, jewels, etc., as well as stone figures, stone horses, clay figures, etc. which were buried within the sepulchral mounds, were, therefore, regarded as absolutely pure and extremely sacred, while extraordinary magical significance was attached to the shapes of these articles and the decorations such as the symbols and pictures contained by them. Arms such as swords, armor, bow and arrow, etc. were also revered as the source of magic power, and so was the Dotaku, a kind of musical instrument.

All products of industrial art were therefore valued solely for their magical power, but later they came to be valued for their æsthetic qualities. Among the other phases of the cultural life in ancient Japan, literature, music, and dancing also possessed religious significance. Literature had its genesis in the oracles pronounced by clan priestesses or words sung by the clansmen in praise of gods, which were handed down from generation to generation in the form of ballads. In course of time these ballads were enriched with clan histories, and developed into lyrics and later into epics. Although those lyrics and epics were in the earlier times sung by clansmen themselves, there appeared later a professional singer called "Katari-bé" in each clan, who sang at clan gatherings the annals of the clan, the achievements of gods, the brave deeds of the heroes of victorious battles, etc.

Music and dancing first found their significance as a means of honoring their gods, but later they were performed in celebration of such great occasions of the clan as the harvest or a victory in war. After still further de-

velopment, both these arts finally attained an independent status and began to be practised for pleasure.

Age of the Patriarchal Clan System Clans had by now become divided into classes—the leading classes centering round the clan-heads and the other constituent members of the clans being under their rule. There were also slaves who were either the common possessions of the clan or the private property of the clan-head.

With the ascendancy of agriculture as the principal industry of the people, drastic changes occurred in the social life. The communal society was now transformed into territorial groups, and the maternal system was replaced by powerful patriarchism, in keeping with the development of private property. Clan fights and struggles continued, however, for some time for the acquisition of land, which opened up a gulf of difference between the rich and the poor among the clans. This finally led to the creation of a new social system called "Kabané," which established the differences of social position for all clans in the country, putting an end to the equality of social status. In the political phase, this took the form of "Uji-Kabané" or a system by which people were divided into distinct classes.

Foundation of the Empire This process of transition is described, though not very clearly, both in the "Nihon-shoki" already referred to and the "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which was completed eight years prior to the Nihon shoki in 712 A.D. in the reign of the Empress Gemmyo. In the light of historical researches, it is reasonable to conclude from Emperor Jimmu's Eastern Expedition and the founding of the Japanese Empire in 660 B.C. that the culture represented by the Yayoi pottery reached the northern districts by about the 1st century, when the inhabitants of northern Kyushu were actively engaged in the importation of the culture of the Han dynasty of China by way of Korea.

The advance of the ancient culture characterized by the use of iron implements and the construction of burial mounds during the period between the 3rd and the 4th century, corresponds to the active process of national unification represented by the dispatch of the four generals by the Emperor Sujin

(88 A.D.) to repress the incursions of the barbarous tribes, the expeditions conducted by the Emperor Keiko (71-131 A.D.) etc. From the 4th to the 5th century, Japan dispatched large forces to subjugate the Korean kingdoms, while it was busily occupied in absorbing the continental architecture, sculpture, painting, textile and dyeing industries, and other phases of cultural life, by maintaining close relations with the Wei and Chin dynasties in North China and the Sung, the Chi, the Liang, and the Chen dynasties in South China. This fact is not only referred to in the Kojiki and the Nihon-shoki, but also definitely mentioned in the ancient Chinese historical records. Moreover, the fact is eloquently endorsed by the various articles such as mirrors, swords, etc. found in the ancient burial mounds.

The period from the 5th to the 6th century witnessed the construction of magnificent sepulchral mounds in the Nara region, the practice gradually extending to northern provinces. This represents the completion of the national unification by the Imperial Family as well as the extension of the Imperial rule to northern districts.

Asuka Period

(532-709 A.D.)

By the 6th century A.D. Japanese social and economic conditions were well suited for the introduction and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant ages of the Sui and Tang dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shoto-ku-Taishi, striving for the promotion of learning, religion and art, tried his best to make a radical improvement in the state administration and in the social life of the people. His work was a forerunner of the Taika Reformation.

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government, their conflict becoming greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion. The former finally got the upper hand, but so abused its power that

It stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-no-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenji. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step toward the Taika Reformation.

As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various ways, and consisted of, first, land owned ever since the time of the Emperor Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead members of the Imperial family.

Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes, given them by nobles as offerings. The patriarchs or clan heads in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labor of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became local lords. The clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it quickly.

Social classes The aristocrats of this period were the clan heads, an idea of whose life may be formed from the luxurious relics found in their large tombs or mounds in the district around Nara and Kyoto. Next came the direct subjects of the Imperial House whose occupation was mainly agriculture. The third class, which was the largest and constituted the main productive element of the nation, consisted of the subjects of the local clan heads. They worked for their respective clans at making clothes, ceramics, brewing, the manufacture of lacquer goods, furniture making, etc., besides being farmers, fishermen and hunters. The lowest class of people

was that of the "yakko" or serfs who served in the lowest kind of occupation for the aristocrats. They were often presented to shrines and temples as slaves. The slaves in Japan originated in captives taken from Ezo and Korea, and to them were later added those who had sold themselves for monetary reasons. Once enslaved, their social status remained unchanged unless emancipation came through the benevolence of their lords or paid for by themselves or some other people. The number of slaves, however, was rather insignificant.

The Taika (Talkwa) Reformation When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-no-Ohyé to the head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari as his right hand man, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. In the summer of 1305 from Jimmu (645 A.D.), he introduced from China the system of "nengo" or year-names, and called the period Taika or "Great Reformation." This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. The Taika Reformation was the first of the three great changes that Japan has experienced in politics since the founding of the nation. The second was the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows:

- (1) To bring all the private lands into public possession;
- (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes;
- (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division.

These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken, thus bringing about a centralization of political power according to the Chinese pattern.

A Premature Trial The Taika Reformation, however, could hardly be considered as reformation of a government which had already been well organized, but rather as an attempt at the

formation of a real central government. Corruption within the old clan system had made a purging of the social and political system of the country urgent. Chinese cultural and political influence which stimulated the longing in the hearts of the authorities for the construction of a shapely government was a second cause of the reform. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbor, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were rather too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned.

Its Lasting Merit But the fundamental and imperishable meaning of the Taika Reformation is that it was the first systematic organization of the Central Government and the establishment of the spirit of national unity.

It was in this age that the whole of Japan was united into one. The Ezo tribes in Hokkaido Island and the inhabitants of the southern islands came to pay homage to the Central Government, and Buddhism was propagated among the northern islanders and the Kyushu tribes in the south as a cultural enterprise of the Government.

Taiho Law (Taiho-ritsu-ryo) After half a century, or in 701, the Taiho Law, which completed the work of the Taika Reformation, especially in the organization of the Government, was promulgated. The construction of the Daijokan (the Great Government), which was regulated in the Taiho Law, and revised once in 718, was the form of central government which continued till the Meiji Restoration, when it was revived in power and called the Dajokan. The Government consisted of the Daijo Daijin, the Sa (left) Daijin, the U (right) Daijin, four Dai Nagon, three Sho Nagon, four secretaries, ten scribes, three Sa-benkan, and three U-benkan.

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal counsellor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of the importance of the position it was not filled when no suitable man was to be found. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the adminis-

trative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

The U Daijin took the work of the Sa Daijin in his absence and his responsibility was the same as that of the Sa Daijin. The Dai Nagon acted as counsellors in national affairs with the three Daijin just mentioned and assisted them, directly reported all political affairs of importance to the Emperor, handed Imperial orders to the departments, and performed the offices of Imperial attendants. The Sho Nagon administered affairs of minor importance, the secretaries and scribes administered the business concerning public documents and Imperial edicts, etc. The Sa (left) Benkan administered the following four departments: the central, the ritual, the administrative, and the civil. The U (right) Benkan administered the other four departments: the military, the judicial, the treasury, and the Imperial House. That is to say, the practical administration of the eight departments was executed by the Left and Right Benkan in accordance with the decisions and directions of the three Daijin and four Dai Nagon.

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of continental culture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724-749 A.D.) and kept in the Sho-so-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyuji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintoism was formulated as the national religion. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Period

(710-793 A.D.)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the *Talka* Reformation in 646, the Government rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the city of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them with great rapidity. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had never known before.

Throughout most of the 8th century Nara was the Imperial capital and towards the end of it Japanese civilization, favored by peaceful social conditions, began to assume its own form and characteristics. The Japanese poetry, *waka*, took a definite style and the range of subjects handled in the poems came to include all phases of life and nature as seen in the *Manyōshū* collection of *waka* of this period (See Chapter XXXIV).

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters began in this period for the convenience of copying books, in an age without much printing, although block-printing was introduced from China by 770 A.D., and prepared a way to the invention of Kana characters in the following Heian period.

Division of the Rich and the Poor As mentioned above, the economic plan of the *Talka* Reformation soon began to collapse. It was not, however, a return to the old patriarchal system but an advance to feudalism.

The even distribution of land under the *Talka* Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall heavily into debt. On the other hand, the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants, and people of the

upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "*Shōen*."

For the cultivation of new arable land, labor and the digging of water courses were required, and such land naturally came into the hands of the wealthy people. Besides the addition of newly cultivated land they enlarged their estates by purchasing the land of the poorer people, confiscating mortgaged land and conquering weaker landowners by force. This tendency in the rural districts went its course unchecked, while the Central Government was occupied with political and diplomatic affairs mostly concerning matters in the capital cities of Nara and Heian (Kyoto), and Court nobles gave themselves up to luxurious living.

Korea, China and Japan (660 B.C.-1019 A.D.) From the time when these islands were first populated the inhabitants of the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially, according to traditions, was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Izumo district. At the time of the Emperor Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbor, Silla, scorned Japan until it was subdued by the Emperor Jingo in 200 A.D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan until finally the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 562. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquered the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan interfered in these affairs when suitable chances offered, but all her attempts were in vain and she lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chi-

nese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

In 607, when Shotoku Taishi was regent, an ambassador was sent to the Sui Dynasty and friendly official intercourse was opened. Later, when the Tang Dynasty replaced that Sui, diplomatic relations were still unbroken between the two nations and many a young man and monk went to China for study. The culture and civilization of the continent flowed into Japan and greatly influenced her politics and social life. In the Era of the Emperor Tenji, this intercourse was once checked by difficulties with Korea, but the Tang Emperor sent his delegates again to Japan to re-establish friendly relations, and they were accordingly restored. During the Nara Period, especially, travel was most frequent between the two countries, and science, religion, the fine arts, architecture and forms of living were all taken from China, such imitation continuing till the beginning of the Heian Period. Chinese civil wars proved a hindrance to these friendly relations and the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates in 894.

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later and came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade these islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Heian Period (794-1192 A.D.)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial scepter retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, the Fujiwaras gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their

family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

In those days the Fujiwara family gave themselves over to luxury, and greatly influenced the city life of Kyoto, making it indolent and vicious. But on the other hand literature and the fine arts made special progress. As the result of the cessation of sending delegates to China Japanese habits and inherited ideas regained favor and developed a style which was most graceful. Buddhism now assumed a strong and influential position not only among the people at large but also in the Court. The Enryakuji Temple of Kyoto and the Kofukuji Temple of Nara especially played a great part in this new tendency. It was noticeable that by this time the imported religion was largely transformed and Japanized in character.

Rise of Samurai Class Another remarkable phenomenon of this period was the rise of the samurai, the warrior class. The direct rule of the Emperor, in consequence of the weakening centralization of administrative power, was declining. In the local districts, the private lands owned by the aristocratic families were increasing year by year, and the orders issued by the Central Government were disregarded in those private territories. Local affairs fell into confusion, and robbers stalked abroad in the towns and villages. Wealthy landowners in the villages hired and fed soldiers for self-defense, and these farmer-soldiers finally became samurai, men whose profession was fighting. Sons of aristocratic families who could not get official positions also became soldiers, striving after power. Soon they became really powerful, being specially rampant in the farther districts, where they rebelled against local orders. The bodyguard of the Court, hopelessly impotent, was useless for real battle, and the samurai rebellions were suppressed only by other samurai bodies. The princes and nobles also hired samurai to guard them and to further their political feuds. Warriors were encouraged to become ever more skilful in the practice of arms, and it was quite natural that in such a course of affairs important positions in governmental offices should go to members of the samurai class. Among them the most famous ones to receive such posi-

tions were members of the Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Héishi or Héiké) families.

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors gathered patriots to restore the imperial power to the old status and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Héishi warriors, who were much honored in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Héishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his wilful behavior he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoritomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against the Tairas, and the whole Taira family was defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoritomo Minamoto who first established government by the samurai class.

Literature At the end of the Nara period an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Héian Period the Katakana, a Japanese syllabary of simple square characters was derived from the Chinese ideograms, and lastly Hiragana, a smoother and more fanciful style of Kana was invented and came to be used first among educated ladies and then by gentlemen also. Chinese sentences had monopolized the literature of former ages, but from the first quarter of this period pure Japanese sentences in the new Japanese alphabet appeared and gave an impetus to the rapid spread of waka composition and beautiful Japanese stories like the *Také-no-monogatari* and *Isé-monogatari*.

The culture of this period had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The *kulturträger*, the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Héian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence

of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their country estates. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the *Genji-monogatari* by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist (See Chapter XXXIV). But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Héian there was a *Dai-gaku*, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established *Kokugaku*, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At *Dazaifu* in Kyushu the *Gakugyo-in*, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were of a high educational standing and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the *Enryaku*, *Konin* and *Showa* eras, under the Emperors *Kammu*, *Saga* and *Nimmyo* respectively. The building of the new capital of Héian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of civilization and many a young student going abroad. The needs of the times gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the *Bunsho-in* of *Séiko Sugawara*, the *Kangaku-in* of *Fuyutsugu Fujiwara*, the *Gakkan-in* of *Tachibana*, the *Shogaku-in* of *Yukihira Arihara*, and the *Kobun-in* of *Kiyomaro Waké*. The *Sugawara* family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men came

into the Bunsho-in. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous periods to the middle of the era when the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates to China.

With the slackening interest in Chinese cultural studies early in the 10th century the Government schools were gradually reduced in numbers and influence, especially, also, as the power of the Imperial Government was dwindling and the Fujiwara connections were beginning to monopolize all official positions, leaving outsiders without hope of preferment. The Daigaku-in in Héian was closed after the buildings (five blocks of classrooms and one storehouse) were burnt down in the fire of 1177. Learning became a hereditary privilege with the growth of reactionary reverence for established lineage. Buddhism also became much Japanized by the appearance of such monks as Saicho of the Tendai and Kobo Daishi of the Shingon Sect.

Economic Condition The cleavage between the common people and ruling classes became more marked and the clan or family ties weakened as the connection between demand and supply became more complicated. From this arose the necessity for exchanges and markets. Waka of the Mannyosho suggest the existence of markets in Japan at such an early date. As a matter of fact there had been several markets opened in bygone times such as those of Tsubaki, Atokuwa and Eka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi (present Ibaraki) and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province (present Shimané) there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Period, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there pedlars travelled around as far as Echizen province (present Fukui).

In the 7th century silver and copper money was already in considerable circulation. In the 8th century copper money was cast by the Imperial Government, although it is not clear whether all the money in circulation before that was of Chinese origin or not. In the first year of the Wado Era, 708 A.D., silver and copper coins named Wado-kahō were cast at the Imperial mint, and this coining of metals continued, ushering in the period of money instead

of barter.

In the Héian Period public markets were opened in the east and the west of Héian city. The East Market consisted of 51 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-péi (Genji and Héishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsū, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province (present Nara) Shikama in Harima (near Himéji), Naniwa (Osaka) in Sétsu and Kowaki in Shiga. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muro and Naniwa were the most thriving in foreign trade, Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this time was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Social Classes (the 7th-12th centuries) The highest class of this age consisted of the descendants of the nobles of the preceding age, new dignitaries promoted for meritorious services, descendants of the Imperial House and high priests of Buddhist temples. These people monopolized the highest positions in the government and administration. Wealth was naturally accumulated by them and civilized life attained by the assimilation of continental culture was theirs. The high official positions and ranks were accompanied with material estates and income, and nobility and wealth were synonymous. Living in the capital or vicinity and holding a close connection with the Imperial House this class enjoyed its aristocratic life until power was taken from it by the Fujiwaras in the 11th century.

Next came the class of provincial lords, or officials, scholars, warriors and certain naturalized Koreans or Chinese who were well educated. This class can be compared with the middle class of to-day. The power of the members of this class in politics was secondary, but the standard of their culture was as high as the first, if not higher, especially in the case of scholars such as doctors, astronomers, and mathematicians. They were the military and civil administrators in the local districts and the carriers of a higher civilization.

The third class of this age consisted of the descendants of the second and third classes of the preceding age, they were mostly engaged in agricultural work, although there were among them

some artisans and merchants but the number was comparatively small. In fact handicraft and merchandizing was, in later days, mostly carried out by farmers as a kind of side line. They were compelled to work so hard in order to support the upper classes that some scholars of the economic history of Japan have called this "an age of slave economy." The people of this class were rarely given positions in the government, although they had access to the priestly positions in temples. Able youths emancipated themselves from serfdom by becoming outlaws and, as mentioned above, finally gave origin to the rise of the samurai class in the latter half of the Heian Period. In the 8th century this class constituted over 70 per cent of the entire population of Japan.

The lowest class of people, practically a slave class, consisted of two kinds of people. The first were the workers for the Court, the clothes, paper and furniture makers, musicians, stable-men, etc. They were mostly naturalized Koreans, and because of their tribal origin were despised by the other classes. Part of them seem to have been the forefathers of the "Eta" class of the Yédo Period. But they must have already belonged to the lower class in their native land, Korea, or may have been captives there, because there were many naturalized Koreans who occupied honorable positions in the Imperial Court and in the second class mentioned above. According to a record of this period there were but 4,216 households almost all of which were in the Kyoto, Nara and Osaka districts. So far as the national law is concerned these slaves were freed several times, in 722, 744, and 759 A.D., but as a social class they remained the same.

The descendants of the "Yakko" of the preceding periods formed the second division of this slave class. Their social standard as such was legalized by the laws issued at the time of the Taiho Reformation. The Taiho laws prohibited intermarriage between members of this "disgraceful" class and members of the "good" classes. Slaves who belonged to offices mainly worked as tomb keepers, farm workers and miscellaneous jobbers, while those owned by private houses did the dirtiest work. The number of these slaves comprised 10 per cent of the entire population.

The average value of a slave in the Nara Period was 1,000 bundles of rice for a man and 800 bundles for a woman which meant the amount of rice which would feed a person for 2,500 days. This was rather a prohibitive price for the purchase of slaves, probably due to the small supply of slaves against the demand, the treatment of them by their masters was, therefore, very humane. In the Héian Period, the slave system underwent a gradual change, there was laxity in the imposition of the old laws pertaining to the system, and intermarriage with the "good" people often occurred. On the other hand, many of the third class people or oppressed farmers had become reduced to serfdom, and their intermingling with this class made the two classes indistinguishable at the latter half of the Héian Period.

Kamakura Period (1192-1337 A.D.)

Samurai Government Samurai government continued for 685 years, from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During the feudal age the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families appeared successively as the heads of this samurai government, holding all power, both political and military, in their hands. At the Imperial Court were the august officials, but its rulership was only nominal, and the real sovereign power was kept by the Shogunate.

In the middle of the Héian Period, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court sank into formalism. Imperial officials and nobles indulged in an effeminate life discarding militarism. Vicious customs prevailed, misunderstandings arose between the Central Government and district offices and the gap between the rich and the poor became greater, gangs of robbers terrorized the people, civil wars great and small constantly occurred, and the people could not live in peace. This state of things gave opportunity for the rise of the warrior class, and the military government under the leadership of Yoritomo Minamoto was welcomed by the people as suitable for the troublous times, and the Shogunate came into being on its own merits.

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo

adopted Oyé's counsel, and asking the permission of Goshirakawa, the ex-Emperor who had the real power at the Court, stationed his warriors in different parts of the country as governors and deputies. He gave these governors military and police authority and to the deputies he assigned the administration of land and tax affairs, in 1185. All the political power fell into Yoritomo's hands as a natural consequence, and the military and political offices which were established at Kamakura became Shogunate head offices; in 1192, he was asked by the Kyoto Government to become Séi-Tai-Shogun or Generalissimo, and this meant the public recognition of the Shogunate authority.

After becoming Shogun by Imperial Order, Yoritomo Minamoto took great care to control the warrior-lords. He himself lived a very simple life and issued orders to the lords and warriors to do the same, thereby setting good examples to the people. His teachings did not primarily stress skill in fighting or the use of weapons but rather the moral precepts which must underlie the true warrior's way. The hitherto neglected and disorderly rural districts were taken care of and became closely united with the Kamakura Government, their agricultural and commercial life was improved, and the heavy taxation formerly levied by extravagant nobles was reduced to make the peasants' lives easier.

Foundation of Bushido Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable here that polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy began to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honor became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the

country specially favored of the gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Yoritomo's lineal descendants did not continue to hold power beyond the third generation, but the nearly related Hojo family took their place and ruled the people with ability till Takatoki Hojo was overthrown by the faithful adherents of the Emperor Godaigo in 1333. The Kamakura Shogunate was the real Central Government of Japan for over 140 years.

Education Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The Térakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this period. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centers of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikané Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Library) was first established in 1275 by Sanétoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

Art and Literature The rise of individualism gave a new turn to the cultural life of the people. The break of tradition was discernible in fine art and literature. This was the age of Sung and Yuan in China and their literature and arts, flooding Japan, laid the foundations of modern literature and fine arts which developed after the Muromachi Period. Picture rolls of famous battles and illustrated histories of shrines and temples were produced, reflecting the taste of the day. That portrait-painting first began during this period may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXIV.)

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Period, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although

pottery, clothing, etc. were produced in government factories on a limited scale. The spread of culture among the local population in this period, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centers. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joêi Judicial Code In the first year of Joêi, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joêi Shikimoku (Joêi Judicial Code) compiled by Yasutoki Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of olden days and had no incongruities with the Japanese common law as was often the case with the laws issued by the Central Government at Heian, largely imitations as they were of Chinese laws. It proved, as a matter of fact, to be more practical and effective, and survived many other laws, as an authoritative code for the samurai class, to the time of the Meiji Restoration.

Muromachi Period (1338-1602 A.D.)

The Muromachi Shogunate Shortly after the downfall of the Kamakura Government, Takauji Ashikaga established a Shogunate in Kyoto, wholly on his own accord, in 1338, and in the time of his grandson Yoshimitsu his work was completed. It was called the Muromachi Shogunate, after the name of the street in Kyoto in which the government had its headquarters. Its system and institutions were almost the same as those of the former Kamakura Government. A relative of Ashikaga governed eastern Japan, staying at Kamakura. This Kamakura governor was first a simple representative of the Muromachi Shogunate, but by and by he began to stand in rivalry against it. Governors were sent to other places and generals were placed at the head of different military bodies. The governors in local districts were real lords, and acted freely on their own caprices.

Korea, China and Japan The official exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as already mentioned, abolished, but nevertheless private trade continued. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving international commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo (Kobé) and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Period, the Buddhist Zen Sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

The Yuan Invasion. In 1206 the Yuan Dynasty gained sovereignty over the greater part of China and extended its territory even to a part of Europe. The great Emperor Kublai Khan took Korea, and destroyed the Sung Dynasty, winning possession of all China in 1279. He sent a messenger with advice to Japan to become his tributary, under threat of war. But Tokimuné Hojo, then in power at the Kamakura Shogunate, uniting forces with the Kyoto Court, firmly rejected the proposal. The result was a crisis for Japan in 1274 and again in 1281. The Yuan ruler in alliance with the government of Korea sent a great army to invade Japan. The Japanese were hard pressed, but they fought bravely with their small forces, and by the help of a typhoon which destroyed the enemy fleet they won the day in the summer of the year 1281.

The trade between the two nations, however, did not cease with the war. Takauji Ashikaga wished to build the Tenryuji temple and to get funds for the purpose he constructed trade boats which were called Tenryuji boats.

Trade with the Mings. From the beginning of the Kamakura Period, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Period, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming authorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to

Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports thrived and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates, to prove its friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Period when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

Relations with Korea. At the time of the rise of the Mongolian nation, Korea turned against Japan under pressure of the Mongols. But the Japanese pirates ravaged her coasts, and she asked the help of China to send a strong protest to the Japanese Government. A general of Korea, Li-Sekel, was successful in protecting the nation from the attacks of the Japanese pirates, and he finally established a new dynasty of his own and called the new country Chosen in 1392.

Among the provincial lords there were many who had intercourse with Korea. Tsushima Island, especially, had close relations with her because of the nearness of its location. Its lord, So, opened trade with Korea in 1368. When Korea became known as Chosen these relations became even more intimate. There were many Tsushima islanders who became residents of Korea. (As to Japan's relations with the Western nations since 1543 when the Portuguese first came to Japan, see pp. 77-87 of the Japan Year Book, 1933, and Chapter VI of this volume.)

Feudalism It was during this period that feudalism was established as a definite system, and many of the provinces were ruled over by war-lords. Warriors fought each other, farmers were awakened to the need of uniting to protect their interests, and temples quarrelled with one another over the delimitation of their spheres of influence. It was a "dark age" in one sense, but important as an age of social change and progress. The advance of foreign trade was remarkable, and Japanese emigrants settled down in the South Sea Islands.

The war-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurp-

ed its authority. Both in the capital of Hélian and in the districts civil war raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshimasa, the 8th Shogun, spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered most were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

The latter half of the Muromachi Shogunate was an age of civil strife among the feudal lords. All tradition and authority disappeared, and any talented man, favored by fate, had the chance to make himself a lord.

Military and General Education Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the period. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners of the islands. Nor was general education neglected. Both the Ashikaga Gakko and Kanazawa Bunko fulfilled their functions as educational centers, Tera-koya were established in more districts and education began to reach the farmers and merchants. In 1561 St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu, and the Catholic faith was first preached among the Japanese. Otomo and other lords in Kyushu were baptized and within less than 30 years there were 200 churches built and over 1,500,000 people converted. Nobunaga Oda was in favor of Christianity from his policy of suppressing the unruly power of the Buddhist monks. Catholics were also eager to establish schools. Within the feud of Otomo there was established a seminary (Casa Professa) for training preachers. Colleges for young laymen were established at Arima in Higo province (present Kumamoto), Funai in Bungo province (present Oita), and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1581, and 25 boys from good families were instructed in the catechism, Latin, Portuguese, Japanese reading and composition.

Woman's Position Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of war-lords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dan-

gers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman, as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she had enjoyed in more ancient days.

Commerce Ravaged by frequent warfare, the city of Héian had become deserted, the population thronging to the villages which nestled around the castles of the feudal lords. These in time became thriving cities or towns. Among sea ports Hakata, Hyogo, Muro, and Sakai were representative ones. To Sakai, for instance, came foreign ships direct, and there arose many wealthy merchants who had financial power over the Muromachi Shogunate. It was a free city, governed by its own city assembly and protected by its own city guard. Yukinaga Konishi who was first a pharmacist and became a lord on his own account, Sen-no-Rikyu, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Sukémon Noya, a millionaire merchant in foreign trade with the South Sea Islands, were representative men of Sakai.

Industry The taste of the age was rather simple and purely Japanese. The war-lords found recreation in the tea ceremony or garden-making. The preservation of natural simplicity was the dominant note in these gardens, rocks and pebbles being used in their construction. The national leader in this direction was Yoshimasa Ashikaga, the Shogun, famous exponent of the tea ceremony. This ceremony was never a mere drinking of tea but a formalized social meeting, at which guests were invited by the host to a simple and tasteful dinner which was called Kaiséki. Choice porcelain wares and other utensils were used in it and the guests were entertained not only by the repast but also by the exhibition of rare articles and scroll pictures. It became a fashion of the time and greatly stimulated and improved the art of making porcelain, lacquer and cast-iron wares and Kakémono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this period, called

the Momoyama Period in art history, was represented by the gorgeous taste of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi who built the Momoyama Palace of silver and gold. The influence of the Western world definitely reached Japan with the coming of Catholic priests in this period. It affected not only the spiritual and mental life of the Japanese but also the field of architecture. When Nobunaga Oda built the Azuchi Castle, the first of its kind, in 1576, Catholic priests gave advice or directed the construction. The central building of the Japanese castle is called Tenshu-kaku. The word Tenshu means the Heavenly Lord or God of the Catholic Church, and the Tenshu-kaku signifies the Tower of the Heavenly Lord. It is said that in the Tower of the Heavenly Lord Catholic images were enshrined when it was first built. According to an art investigation, there are in Italy remnants of old buildings which resemble the Japanese castles and the influence of Roman architecture through the Portuguese and Spaniards must have been felt in Japanese castle-building.

Economic Conditions There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Period. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communications and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto, progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centers, and merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Period the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of this period were called "Mommari" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and

money exchanging. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of saké acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. Tanomoshi-ko (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and landed proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Period witnessed Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or Ikko Shu) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers from among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the Ikko mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Echigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobé and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province (present Shiga). Iyéyasu To-

kugawa, then lord of Mikawa (present Shizuoka), fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Periods and the consequent division among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity became keenly felt. The introduction of fire-arms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. In this manner the unity of all Japan was realized in three stages through three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hidéyoshi Toyotomi and Iyéyasu Tokugawa.

Nobunaga Oda The first, Nobunaga Oda, was an official under the lord Shiba, but soon becoming independent he subdued one after another many lesser lords with his soldiers armed with guns, and, in July 1573, dethroned Yoshiaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Ogimachi. Nobunaga who had had long and bitter experience of the Buddhist mobs waged war against them and set fire to the Enryakuji temple on Mount Hiei, one of the most powerful temples of the time, thus putting an end to Buddhist meddling in political affairs. He found another means of lessening the power of Buddhist temples by favoring the spread of the Christian faith. He gave all encouragement to its propagation and welcomed the inflow of Western learning and civilization. Nobunaga destroyed the barrier gates in districts which hindered free commercial intercourse and transportation and put an end to the monopolizing guilds and gave merchants opportunity for unrestricted trading. But in 1582 he was assassinated with his work yet incomplete, and it was left to Hidéyoshi to continue the task of uniting the nation.

Hidéyoshi Toyotomi Hidéyoshi Toyo-

tom, a farmer's son, and one of the trusted generals of Oda, succeeded in subduing even such great lords as Mori and Shimazu in the west and Daté and Hojo in the north and practically united the whole nation by force. In 1583 the whole land of Japan was surveyed to divide it into new rural districts. In 1586 Hidéyoshi fixed the costumes of the samurai according to their rank. In 1588 the common people were ordered to surrender their swords for casting a Daibutsu (great image of Buddha), the purpose of this order being to prevent the wearing of swords by any except the samurai. The law of 1591 strictly prohibited the shifting of hereditary business, and the four classes of samurai, farmers, artisans and merchants were firmly fixed.

To force abedience to the law Gonin-gumi (Five Men's Bands) were compulsorily organized. All the people (samurai inclusive) were grouped by 5 or 10 families and each group not only took joint responsibility for the doings of all of its members but helped its members in civil life. This originated before Toyotomi's time, but the law issued in 1600 made it an established institution and played an important part in the following Tokugawa Period both politically and socially. Hidéyoshi planned an invasion of the Continent, Formosa, and the Philippines, but died in 1598 before realizing his dreams.

Before the absolute unity of Japan could be accomplished another great statesman was to take the work in hand.

Social Classes (12th-16th centuries)

The Onin war (1467-1475) which was fought between the Muromachi (the Fujiwaras) Shogunate families in the city of Kyoto not only destroyed the Shogunate itself but also reduced the capital to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate lost power at once and the whole country was thrown into commotion for a century by the wars of the military lords.

The wars entirely did away with old social customs and laws and gave opportunity for the rise of petty warriors and landed-farmers who, to this time, had been subjected to the aristocrats and war-lords. This was a time of great changes in the social order of Japan. After the Onin war members of the laboring classes were able to become lords through their own ability; farmers organized to oppose their lords;

commercial cities like Sakai, Yamaguchi, and Osaka, appeared and became rich with the development of foreign trade; and villages, in many districts, began to govern themselves.

In consequence of the rise of new war-lords the aristocratic class of this age was of two kinds, the old nobles in the Court and the new war-lords. The Court nobles had become poor through the confiscation of parts of their estates in country districts by the Kamakura Shogunate. They were, nevertheless, still highly honored because of their culture and attainments, all lines of study being handed down by them in hereditary succession, and high positions in the Court were held by them though they had no practical power in the administration of national affairs. The only sphere of influence left to the Court nobles was in religious circles, except in the Zen Sect which had most of its adherents among the samurai class. The Fujiwaras, who succeeded the Minamotos in the Shogunate government, again confiscated more than one-half of the lands of Court nobles and finally stretched their wanton hands over the estates of the Imperial House and temples and shrines in the name of military taxes. In the Onin war, fought in the city of Kyoto, the mansions of the Court nobles were all destroyed or set on fire and the nobles themselves were compelled to desert the capital and seek protection among the wealthy families in the country districts or temples and shrines.

The war-lords in this period were sons of local governors in older ages, new governors placed in districts by the Kamakura and Fujiwara Shogunates, and big land-lords who ascended to war-lordship by hiring warriors for the protection of their estates in the political confusion of the time. The name "Daimyo" which represented the war-lord in later ages, especially in the Yédo Period, originated in the landlords, and meant one who owned a large estate or villages. The war-lords, new and old, took advantage of the downfall of the Shogunate after the Onin war to consolidate their field of activity all over Japan. They fought each other to obtain supremacy.

The second class of people consisted of farmers, artisans and merchants. The war-lords and daimyo in the provinces built castles around which arti-

sans and merchants settled, the artisans and merchants increased in number and the castles gradually grew into towns and cities, while progress in foreign trade during the latter half of this period gave rise to port cities. Artisans and merchants formed guilds as mentioned elsewhere and protected their rights and profits. Farmers who had been trodden under the foot of the ruling classes began to make demands upon their lords who could no longer control them by threats but had to handle them in a more honorable manner. The first record of a farmers' mob movement against their lords was that of the farmers in Kinki (Kyoto and Nara) districts which started in September 1428. The mob demanded the so-called "Toku Séi," cancellation of debt or a permanent moratorium. Mobs which were united in the faith of Buddhism such as the Jodo or Hokké sects were well organized and had some permanency so that at one time they formed their own government. In the province of Yamashiro the farmers succeeded in organizing their own government and elected members by vote at the Byodoin temple at Uji, now a part of Kyoto, in February 1486. This and other examples of a similar nature were not allowed to continue because of later changes in political affairs, but they laid foundations for the future development of towns and villages and the "Gonin-gumi" as mentioned above.

The lowest class in this period consisted of sons of the same class in the preceding age. The difference was that the slaves of Court nobles or government offices became more despised than the slaves at private houses. The latter were handled by their lords in a much more humane way than in the preceding period. The former, on the contrary, became more disliked by the other people because of their Korean origin and their special work of butchers and skimmers, for such work was extremely despised by Buddhism, which taught people not to kill any living thing, even lice, and taboo all flesh. They were called the "Eta," the meaning of which changed from the "butcher" to the "polluted," and lived in groups secluded from others.

Yédo Period

(1602-1867 A.D.)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa became the practical ruler of Japan. Except

for a small portion allotted to the Imperial House and various religious bodies, over 90 per cent of the entire land was divided among the Tokugawas, their relatives, and favorite generals and lords. Thus the complete unity of the nation was realized by the dual master-and-subject relation between the lords and their people and the Shogun and his lords. This feudal system lasted over 260 years, unparalleled in the history of the world. This was a success primarily for the Tokugawa Shogunate rather than the nation. It was due for one thing to the financial and military strength of the Tokugawa family, secondly to the clever method of administration, best suited to keep wayward war-lords in order, and thirdly to the halting of alien influences from overseas.

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yédo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of this Shogunate was superior to that of its predecessors. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,560,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centers of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also controlled the national mints.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May 1615, Iyéyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose by the second Tokugawa Shogun, Hidétada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist of them being as follows: (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory; (6) All repairs to castles need permission of the Shogunate and the

building of a new castle is strictly prohibited; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighboring province he must report it to the Shogunate; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankin-kotai." (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yédo residences where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years); (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials.

The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason, to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behavior. The number of daimyo was 137 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

Kagé Hatto (Court Nobles Law)

This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July 1615, at the assembly of 150 court nobles at the NiJo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and defined the status of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princesses, and regulated the appointment of a Regency and chief council. It also regulated ranks, institution of a year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders to be issued by the court, sentences of the court, the position, ranks, costumes of honorary titles of the head priest, Buddhist temples. (See p. 100, Japan Year Book, 1936, for the main points of the law.)

System of Control Iyéyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kagé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately

schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the Central Government from attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawas and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the Tokugawa's side from of old; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city.

Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yédo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Ujlyamada were administered by governors directly sent from Yédo. The children of Iyéyasu were given large feuds and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line.

As a whole, Iyéyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the east and the west, a policy which proved successful till the balance was broken in the first half of the 19th century when the western lords rose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid scrupulous attention to all travelers along the Tokaido. It put a barrier at Hakoné, and nobody was allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yédo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard its supremacy and make the lords obedient, no matter how national progress

was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

Organization of the Tokugawa Shogunate The Shogunate was a government of one despotic ruler, the Shogun. No one man, however, can perform all the duties of a government unassisted. Although there were many changes in the organization and the names of offices in the 263 years of its rule the Yédo Government, in the main, had a Cabinet which consisted of one Tairo (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairo was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairo held office were but few, the Shogun himself generally undertaking the office. The Roju were the ministers of the administration. They signed the public ordinances and documents of the highest import. Their administration was based on former customs and newly issued laws, while their secretaries had the responsibility of examining old customs and precedents to help their decisions. These five saw to matters concerning the Imperial House, the court nobles and prince monks, and controlled all the lords and high officials, local governors and inspectors, and in wartime commanded the armies of the lords.

The Wakadoshiyori consisted of four or five members who were at once councillors and vice-ministers and controlled the Hatamoto (the generals who directly belonged to the Shogunate), and the lower officials, and in any emergency commanded the armies of the Hatamoto.

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the Fudai-Daimyo only.

Under the cabinet there were three Bugyo, the Jisha Bugyo (Temple and Shrine Department), the Machi Bugyo (City Department), and the Kanjo Bugyo (Counting Department). The Jisha Bugyo controlled all the temples and shrines in the country and administered justice in the remoter districts. The Machi Bugyo administered the city (Yédo) affairs from administrative business to justice, police and prisons. The Kanjo Bugyo took charge of the treasury of the Shogunate, gathering taxes from the estates directly belonging to the Shogun.

The Roju, the Wakadoshiyori and the three Bugyo formed the Central Shogunate Government, all other officials belonging to or coming under the control of one or other of these. Among the local officials the most important were the Shoshi-dai who represented the Shogunate at Kyoto, the Osaka-jodai who represented the Shogunate at Osaka, the Fushimi Bugyo, overseers of the barriers at Kyoto, the Kobusho Bugyo or military department, and the Nagasaki Bugyo who controlled the lords in Kyushu.

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yédo Period. Iyéyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education by books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of tradition. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, people who were denied all opportunity of rising to higher social positions or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and

Intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "nô" drama, *loruri* (or *gidayu*), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVI) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as *haiku*, *waka*, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese handiwork and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings freely and the *loruri* of Chikamatsu, the novels of Saikaku, and the short poems of Bashô had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

The leadership in civilization was still with Osaka and Kyoto up to the end of this period. But the Sankin-kotai and the power of Yêdo, the seat of the Shogunate, did not long allow the center of culture and fashion to remain in these old western cities, and Yêdo had finally assumed the first position in all matters of political and social life by the last quarter of the 18th century. The following 80 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

Severity marked the Shogunate policy in dealing with the people from the highest to the lowest, the masses suffering the worst oppression. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of *loruri* writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and even allowing the apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economic and social conditions, the people in general were either trodden down by lawless samurai or entangled and rendered helpless in the network of prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese enabled them to survive the stifling, tortuous life, seeking consolation in cultural or popular pursuits. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or in their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, real-

istic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all phases of life.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing the national wealth and economic progress of Japan through overseas intercourse was lost. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure. Financial unsoundness appeared at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to make both ends meet in national finance by re-casting coins. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempô Era (1830-1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

The local lords had territories of 10,000 *koku* to 1,020,000 *koku* each, but their income from these was too small to feed all their dependent samurai and soldiers, and to finance the Sankin-kotai traveling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yêdo and Osaka, the two business centers of the time. From the middle of the Yêdo Period few of the lords could manage without the help of the rich merchants. Seventy per cent of the national wealth was said to have got into the hands of wealthy business men by the end of the age. In 1843 the lords sent about 4,000,000 *koku* of rice to Osaka, 3,000,000 *koku* of which went to Osaka merchants as interest on their debt of 60,000,000 *ryo* (gold coin). All means to which they resorted to increase their incomes proved in vain.

The samurai were also compelled by the Sankin-kotai system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yêdo. They were not allow-

ed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly lived a leisured life, although some were given offices in the local governments. The long peace did not necessarily bring happiness to the samurai, but rather drew them into different means of pastime and their fighting spirit was dulled with the increasing tendency to luxury. Their incomes were limited from the beginning and were still more shortened by compulsory loans to their feudal lord out of their "fuchi" or salaries, or even complete suspension of payment. They had no way of extorting from the farmers, as the lords had, and after losing all their means they could not help but break the law and work secretly for their living as artisans or small merchants. In the end the samurai began to sell their weapons and armor which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Period the rural folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handicraft, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. At first, the political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688-1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But the farmers had to pay 50 per cent of their products as tax to their lords; they were denied the freedom of moving or changing their occupation, were subject to restrictive measures in purchasing land and withal were bound hand and foot by a network of the Gonin-gumi system and other restrictive regulations, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle, and 264 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the intolerable extortion by the lords,

tenant disputes being as yet rare.

It was estimated that the proportion of farmers to the whole population was 80%, and the total population in the Yédo Period showed a slow increase in the first half and a standstill in the latter. This was brought about by such natural causes as famines, prevalence of epidemics and insanitary dwellings; but the habit of infanticide which originated from the direst difficulty of living among the farming class, must have been the greatest factor in checking the increase of population, for it was usual among farmers to restrict the number of their children to less than three in a family. Another negative measure was to flee from the territory of the despotic lord to large cities. Cities had insufficient capacity to receive the inflow of these country people because as yet there were no industrial factories, but there were many openings for house-workers, day laborers and apprentices in the business houses or artisans' shops.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yédo of the lords and their soldiers in Sankin-kotai. But as all foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice, that was produced in the Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kōbe), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) being transported to Osaka rice-dealers, while that of Kanto and Ōhū or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yédo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard while the east took the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gaé and the credit system made considerable progress.

Yédo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hun-

dred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, Tokai-do, Nakasen-do, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Dō or Kaido means road) converged at Yédo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their byroads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yédo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonomoséki to Matsumaé, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yédo; the most important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yédo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial center.

A factory in its modern sense was still unknown; what industry there was, was the home industry on the scale of handicraft, except brewing at Nada, weaving at Ashikaga and Kiriu near Yédo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding, with large capital and a fairly elaborate system.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda and at the beginning of the Yédo Period by the activities of the Goshuin-sen or registered vessels and small boats of the pirates. The Japanese were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, and to relinquish unwillingly the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on a far larger scale than that of China centuries ago.

At the same time, however, it resulted in the creation of many industries and fine arts purely Japanese, and in the course of time, the work of the artisans became minutely specialized numbering over 150 kinds. The artisans were united in guilds according to their kinds, which protected their rights and profits, master, artisans and apprentices comprising each house. There were government purveyors who were protected by the Shogunate and accumulated wealth. The number of merchants greatly increased and the classes of the wholesale merchants, middle men and retailers were definitely established.

The wholesale dealers organized associations and gradually, in their financial ascendancy, acquired real power over the samurai and lords.

Social Classes (16th-18th centuries)

The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate, which followed the national unity of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, clearly marked the class divisions into five, the samurai, farmers, businessmen, educators and outcasts.

First, taking the place of the former Court nobles came the samurai class. This consisted of the war-lords or daimyo and their warriors and occupied governmental positions and was responsible for all the national political and military affairs, both central and provincial. The samurai lived on the revenue from taxes levied on the farmers and businessmen. In times of emergency unreasonable levies were imposed upon these working classes, and extremely despotic lords often robbed them of their wealth in the name of loans never repaid. This latter injustice was specially repeated by the lords at the end of the Yédo Period when the samurai class was thrown into an economic depression by reasons mentioned elsewhere. According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1872 the number of samurai households was 395,825, with an aggregate membership of 1,911,239, or 7 per cent of the total population at the end of the Yédo Period. There were in 1752, the Shogunate house, its three relative lords and 258 daimyo. Among the 258 daimyo those who owned an estate above 600,000 koku numbered 3, above 200,000 koku 15, above 100,000 koku 27, above 60,000 koku 20, above 30,000 koku 62, and above 10,000 koku 23. All of these lords were made peers after 1884 when the old daimyo system was done away with by the Meiji Government.

Farmers were divided into three classes, village officials, landowners and tenants. The first of these were the largest landowners in villages who were asked by the daimyo or samurai dignitaries to levy taxes on the villagers. They represented their village and had power over the villagers in both public and private matters as tax-gatherers, police and leaders of the community. Other landed farmers who had no official responsibility owned their own land and farm and were the tax-bearers of the community. The tenants were sub-

jects of the other landed farmers and were the most pitiable of the working classes of the time. Of their production 50 per cent went to the samurai as public taxes and 30 per cent to their master or landed farmers as rent, and they themselves were compelled to live on but 20 per cent of what they had produced. The percentage of these classes of farmers seems to have been 2.5 per cent, 37.5 per cent, and 60 per cent, respectively. Farmers were often stricken by natural calamities in addition to this squeeze by the ruling classes.

The class of businessmen was also divided into two, wealthier merchants or artisans who owned houses and lots, and tenants. In social standing businessmen were regarded lower than farmers, but as a matter of fact their economic condition was much better. Their prosperity depended on the luxury and consequent demands of the samurai class, so the samurai and businessmen were economically interdependent, but the businessmen gradually obtained the more powerful position and wealthier "chonin" or merchants became to be much honored because of their economic power. Towards the latter half of the Yédo Period they actually became freer than the samurai. At times their wealth and lives were forfeit to the Shogunate or local war-lords, yet they laid an unshakable foundation for the business classes in new Japan after the Meiji Restoration of 1868.

The cultural class consisted of the Court nobles, monks, priests and physicians. The social standing of the Court nobles was still high. The Emperor was duly respected by the Shogunate and dai-myō, but he had no political power. The Court nobles who lived in Kyoto with the Imperial House had but a meager means of living. They were satisfied to be tutors in one art or another, such as waka, Japanese football, penmanship, astrology, medical science, etc. Yet their hereditary position as the nobility was well established and they formed so strong a class of their own that the Shogunate or the war-lords could hardly disregard their existence, in fact it was by the combined power of the Court nobles and the "rōnin" or masterless samurai that the Shogunate was finally overthrown in the middle of the 19th century.

The lowest class in the Yédo Period, as in the preceding period, were the

"Eta" and "hinin." The number of "Eta" (polluted) remarkably increased in this age because war-lords in the previous war age called the butchers and skinnners to their castle-towns to manufacture articles for war, and the birth-rate of these "Eta" was great. They lived all over the country instead of only in the Kyoto and Nara districts as in the previous age, forming their own communities. This "Eta" class has been most unreasonably treated until 1871 when the Meiji Government declared that no legal distinction should exist between the "Eta" and others. The "hinin," outcasts, beggars, and the like were put in the same class with the "Eta." According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1871 the number of the "Eta" was 280,311, beggars 23,480 and others 79,097.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Period was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. They had existed in previous years, but at the time of Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became ronin, and their number was added to by the extinction of noble houses in punishment for rebellion and the unemployment of the sons of samurai, other than the first born, who had no share in the inheritance of their father's property or position. Some samurai voluntarily chose the life of a ronin. All these ronin lived from hand to mouth and were either at odds with the ruling class or gave constant trouble to the common people. The event mainly responsible for the creation of this class of people was the battle at Séki-gahara (1600 A.D.) which decided the supremacy of the Tokugawas over the Toyotomis. In the 13 years between that battle and the Osaka battle which ended in the final destruction of the Toyotomi family, the number of the lords entirely ruined or partly deprived of territory reached over 100 and the confiscated area to approximately 9,000,000 koku. Some found second masters but the larger number of the samurai were thrown out of work. The Osaka battle was caused by these samurai in a last attempt to preserve the power of the Toyotomis, although it ended in their complete failure. Again, in the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion of 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their

territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable.

The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Kéian Era, 1651, Yui-no-Shosétsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no-Shosétsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the gravity of the situation and after the Kéian Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened *Térakoya* and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the social development of the country standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last and most praise-worthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries were charged to have behaved without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation. Hidéyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church

in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

A little later, when trade with Luzon was opened, Spanish missionaries came to Japan. These missionaries were antagonistic to the Jesuits and tried to preach another form of doctrine among the Japanese people in the face of the Prohibition Law, and quarrelled with the Portuguese missionaries. Hidéyoshi issued a more drastic prohibition law and severely punished the breakers; but he died without accomplishing his aim, and both Portuguese and Spanish missionaries came in greater numbers and preached the Gospel more earnestly so that the believers in it increased with remarkable rapidity.

Policy of Iyéyasu Iyéyasu followed in Hidéyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "*Korobi*" or rolling over.

Going Abroad Prohibited But missionaries came in considerable numbers, and secretly continued to spread Christianity. The Shogunate saw the difficulty of complete prohibition, and began to take stricter steps. Iyémitsu, the third Shogun, prohibited the importation of foreign books in 1630, forbade any one to go out of the country without permission of the Government in 1633, and prohibited the going abroad of any Japanese in 1636. Finally, no Japanese was allowed to return from abroad.

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Its measures were so severe that the Christian believers rose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of for-

eign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, but only under supervision of the officials.

With this strict seclusion policy the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meager reports presented by the Dutch Consul. The people were kept in entire ignorance.

In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Japanese could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded.

Foreign Studies Renewed Seventy years after the enforcement of seclusion, books on foreign trade and the state of affairs in the western world were published and the people were much instructed by such literature. The Shogun Yoshimune took an interest in western studies and followed a liberal policy for importing western books in 1720; this brought about a Renaissance which awakened the Japanese from their long sleep.

Seclusion Law Reinforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that they had no enmity to the nation. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of foreign sailors irritated the official mind and caused the reinforcement of the old law, the coastguards being given orders to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, to arrest any of the crew who landed, and kill them if necessary. In 1825, strict orders were given to Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels.

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison," coming to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country,

met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

In 1844, William II, King of Holland, sent a confidential letter with a special delegate to Japan, to warn that country to be careful not to follow the miserable example of China. Merchant vessels and warships of England and France many times came to the Loochoo Islands and the French made a forcible landing at Naha, the best port of the Loochoos, put missionaries ashore there and asked for the opening of friendly intercourse in 1844. The Shogunate complied with their request for trade, but drove the missionaries away in 1848.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Kaéi, 1853, Commodore Perry came to Uraga with a fleet of four warships. A friendly treaty was finally concluded between Japan and America in 1855.

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded, by which Shimoda, Hakodaté and Nagasaki were opened to her vessels, and agreements were made respecting the boundaries of Russia and Japan in the north.

At that time England and Russia were at war, and in 1854 an English warship came to Nagasaki for a supply of provisions. The Shogunate consented to open Nagasaki and Hakodaté for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodaté and Shimoda were opened to Holland also and a treaty was concluded in 1855.

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1856 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul-General, Townsend Harris. He finally succeeded to come up to Yédo and present credentials in person to the Shogun Iyésada in 1857. He requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yédo, assuring of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly

commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open new Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodaté. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yédo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called *Anséi modus vivendi*.

In the same year the treaty was ratified by the Shogunate, without the Imperial sanction. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year; and with Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

Opening of the Country The Government appointed a commissioner to administer foreign affairs in 1858, and the Shogun sought the Imperial sanction for the provisional treaties, and finally got it in 1865. The carrying into practice of all these treaties was realized with the opening of Hyogo (Kobé) port in 1867, the year of the accession of the Emperor Meiji. In the meantime, several international troubles occurred. Russia tried to invade Tsushima in 1861, Satsuma warriors fought against an English fleet off Kagoshima in 1863, and the Nagato clan had an engagement with the combined fleets of France, England, Holland, and America at Shimonoséki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yédo Government adopted the policy of keeping the Imperial Court at a respectful distance, paying apparent homage to it, but actually presenting it only with 120,000 koku of rice, the pension of a middle-class lord.

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand, the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of old Japanese literature clearly set forth the illegality of the Shogunate in the country of which the sovereignty belonged solely to the

Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yédo Period, however, these teachings were taken as mere matters of academic interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito, was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning the work of compiling a Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashigé Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. Such other scholars as Ansai Yamazaki, Kéisai Asami, and Soko Yamaka, emphasized the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame.

The first instance of these sentiments being transformed into practical action was the movement of Takenouchi Shikibu who came from Niigata to Kyoto and went about among the Court nobles insisting upon the need of a loyalists' uprising. He was banished by the Shogunate in 1759. Daini Yamagata and Umon Fujii followed him, but both were soon put to death. However, the corruption and weakening of the Shogunate régime quickened the anti-Shogunate feeling in general towards the end of the 18th century. Especially the renaissance of Japanese literature and national character brought about by the teachings of the Japanese scholars, Norinaga Motoori and Atsutané Hirata, greatly helped the loyalist cause. Hiko-kuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle; Kumpéi Gamo visited the tombs of the Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he upheld dignity and prestige of the Imperial House and scathingly criticized the Shogunate régime.

The knocking at Japan's doors by foreign countries presented ample chances for the loyalists to take advantage of the confusion and misdoings of the Shogunate Government, and public opinion finally endorsed their movement at the beginning of the 19th century.

The Anséi Coup d'Etat When the Emperor Koméi, father of the Emperor Meiji, came to the Throne, he did not

hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplish their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for concluding treaties without the Imperial sanction. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for the steps they had taken, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Nao-suké II declared the Coup d'Etat of Anséi, 1858, and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to re-establish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But II was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in March 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobumasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yédo movement increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto in open defiance of Yédo. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Koméi sent a messenger to Yédo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyéshigé tried to make improvement in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent this time Sanétomi Sanjo to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma

lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The hot headed loyalists in Kyoto demanded that a nationwide anti-foreign movement should be launched, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself. But the other group of princes and lords prevailed upon the Emperor to adopt a more tactful measure, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonoséki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honor in the crisis.

Prince Sanétomi Sanjo, one of the seven Court nobles who had fled to the west, joined Prince Tomomi Iwakura in leading the anti-Shogunate movement. The hostility between the two greatest of the western lords, Shimazu, lord of Satsuma province and Mori of Choshu or Nagato, was pacified by the arbitration of Prince Sanjo and they became strongly united in the common cause. Prince Iwakura, succeeding in making a definite plan for the destruction of the Shogunate, gathered many young and gifted samurai under these two lords, such as Takamori Saigo, Toshimichi Okubo of Satsuma and Takayoshi Kido of Nagato, and asked the Imperial sanction for the movement.

On October 14, 1867, the Emperor Meiji gave orders to the Satsuma and Choshu lords to open hostilities against the Yédo Government. On the side of the Shogunate, Toyonobu Yamanouchi, former lord of Tosa in Shikoku, was informed of this secret plan of the Imperial army, and being anxious to avert the impending civil war sent Shojiro Goto to present a memorial to the Shogun Yoshinobu (Kéiki) Tokugawa, advising his surrender of the sovereign authority. Whereupon Yoshinobu, who was staying at Kyoto, immediately called an assembly of the representative samurai of the lords then staying in the city to the Nijo Castle on October 13, 1867, and asked their opinion on his determination to surrender. The assembly gladly agreed to his decision

on the advice of Shojiro Goto and Taté-aki Komatsu, a subject of the Satsuma lord. On October 14, Yoshinobu presented a written request for the Imperial permission, and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally

tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yédo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

THE NEW JAPAN

Meiji Era

(1868-1912 A.D.)

The Meiji Restoration

In December of 1867, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the Restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability from among the nobles and common samurai were made vice-councillors. The people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles and common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. On March 14, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor called together the princes and high officials to the Shishiden and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: (1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity.

To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national

principles, even in the presence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles."

In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's accession to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name of Kelo was changed to Meiji.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yédo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era, or 1869. The Government was subsequently removed to Tokyo.

The Organization In the first year of Meiji, 1868, a new Central Government was established in accordance with the five principles above mentioned. It was called Dajokan, or Great Government, with seven departments. The council played the part of the future parliament; the five departments of general political, religious, financial, military and foreign affairs were administrative; and the last, the penal department took charge of justice, and independence of the legislature, the executive and the judicature was for the first time established. In a few years several adjustments were made, but by the fourth year all the official machinery of the central government was systematically arranged.

Surrender of Fiefs The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido advised Lord Mōri, Daimyo of Nagano, to return his territory to the Court, Lord Mōri, Lord Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa jointly tendered their petition for the territorial surrender. Other lords fol-

lowed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relationship. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Plans were made to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and told them about the abolition of their office. They were given privilege to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the civil prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do" or district, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the names "Kugé" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (peers). Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Héimin or common people, while the peers and Shizoku were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce.

Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the peo-

ple were quick to adopt them in their daily social life.

Telegraph system was installed between Tokyo and Yokohama on Dec. 25, 1869 (2nd year of Meiji); Regular inter-city mail service started between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka in 1871 (4th year); First train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama, on Sept. 12, 1872 (5th year); Men were ordered to cut off their topknots and prohibited to carry swords in 1871 (4th year); Laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, 1871;

The solar calendar officially replaced the lunar calendar, 1872 and December 3 of the lunar year was declared January 1 of the 6th year of Meiji or 1873. National holidays were announced in 1871.

In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

Prior to the Restoration the people at large had nothing to do with military affairs. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was revised and in 1872 the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Navy, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of most of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the defense of the country. The military system made singular progress through the many national crises of the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in 1869 the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Ezo. In 1870 Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads to pro-

mote industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1873, he invited the samurai class of the three northeastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to defend and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and other population of Hokkaido has rapidly increased since. A knotty question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan sought to divide the island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Takéaki (Buyo) Enomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the masses of the people could hardly appreciate their significance, intrinsic or apparent, that they were even offended by some of new government policies that radically went counter to their accustomed old customs or habits. Some of political leaders who had dissatisfaction with those in power often assumed leadership in local disturbances. There were constant hitches among officials and people in the country, frequently marked with the assassinations of ranking officials.

Shimpéi Eto caused some trouble in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otoguro and others formed a party called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagi, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maéhara rose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion General Taka-

mori Saigo, a member of the Council and the head of the military department, could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the south, causing a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeaching the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tatéki Tani bravely fought against Saigo's army. The Emperor Meiji appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Aritomo Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Sumiyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama is a promontory on the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this Southwestern Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for at the Imperial army hospitals.

The Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Genro-in In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members. But this assembly consisted of members who were all chosen by the Government. and it gave rise to a demand for the

establishment of an assembly of representatives elected by the people. In 1873 Kido, who had come back from his European tour of investigation, proposed the establishment of the national constitution; while in 1874, Soejima, Goto, Itagaki and Eto presented a petition for establishment of parliament by popular election. The Government did not adopt either proposal as the time was not yet ripe, but in 1875 they established the Genro-in, a kind of Senate, as the chief seat of legislation, and the Supreme Court of Judicature for the administration of justice, and summoned district governors to Tokyo to learn of the requirements of the people. In 1876, the Emperor ordered the Genro-in to make plans for the formation of the Imperial Constitution and in 1879 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections With the end of the Southwestern Civil War the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigo died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigenobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. In April 1878, the second local governors' conference was held. The items for discussion were rules concerning prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules concerning prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government was for the first time to be put into practice in the following year.

The election was void of shady events, because the people honored the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standing. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these early local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came to the fore, and heated discussions were carried on both in debates and through pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Tosa. In September 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March 1879, gathered together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November passed a resolution to petition the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for Demanding the Establishment of the National Assembly." The letter was printed and given a wide circulation.

Petition for Opening Diet It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of these political agitations, a young scholar of French politics, Kimmochi Salonji came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and to much annoyance of the authorities, instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government proposed to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥300,000, while the Government had invested and spent as much as ¥14,096,800 on them. There was a strong suspicion of favoritism for the Kagoshima merchants of the said society, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism was caught up by those who demanded social justice and bitterly censured the official autocracy. On the very evening of his return from a tour of the north-eastern districts on October 11, the Emperor Meiji called the members of the Cabinet and the councillors to a meeting in his

presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of parliament 10 years later. The major parties were the Jiyu-to (Liberal) of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kai-shin-to (Progressive) of Shigénobu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to investigate political institutions abroad, and to obtain models or suggestions best suited to Japan. Ito and his assistants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau and, appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to draft the Constitution and plans for the new institutions.

It was in this year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquises, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the structure of the Central Government was reorganized and a cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Navy, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Minister-ship of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established, with statesmen of tried caliber named as its members and it was made the highest body for Imperial consultation on important political affairs. Ito also was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the

Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first subject of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present at all sessions on the Constitution, lent attentive ear to the opinions of the different members, showing great personal interest in framing and discussing the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th of February, the 2,549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods. Then appearing in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princes, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution. He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, setting forth the guiding principle on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws that accompanied the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and its institution. They were issued in the same year, and in November 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years, and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although county government was abolished later.

Law Since the downfall of feudalism and return of rights to the Emperor, uniform laws for the control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first revised the criminal law in 1883 (6th year of Meiji). Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of changing society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties (See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

On August 1, 1894, Japan declared war against China, the Emperor setting-up his headquarters at Hiroshima. Lieutenant-General Nozu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Chosen in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Aritomo Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang her delegate. Japanese delegates Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoséki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April 1895, China recognized Chosen independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Taiwan and Boko Islands, paid her ¥300,000,000 as indemnity, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France, Russia intervened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ¥45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Taiwan was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Taiwan was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire.

The Boxer Uprising In April 1900 the anti-foreign movement Boxer Uprising broke out in Shantung.

With the help of Japanese troops, the allied army dispersed the Boxers from Peking where Japanese and German officials had been killed and the Legations were relieved from further attack. The Peking protocol, signed on September 7, 1901, settled the affair with China paying a total indemnity of 450,000,000 Hk. taels to the Powers (Japan's share ¥44,000,000) and dispatching special envoys to Japan and Germany to apologize.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the Boxer Uprising, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Chosen territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russian advance into Manchuria menaced the territorial integrity of Chosen, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East. Japan, compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposed a mutual understanding about the limitation of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But Russia continued to menace Japan, maintaining a most aggressive attitude. The Japanese final proposal on the problems in Manchuria, of January 12, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on February 10, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of troops, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched

into Manchuria through Chosen in May; the Second Army, with General Oku in command, landed on the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army under General Nozu, defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaotung. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforcements came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Sha-ho and defeated them. In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogri turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogri began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-meter hill" in December. In January 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogri and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000 soldiers advanced towards Mukden from three directions. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies routed the immense armies of the enemy, who rushed to the north, completely crushed on March 10, 1905.

The Battle of the Japan Sea Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen that the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters delayed any possible victory over Japan. She therefore formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet and sent them to the Pacific under the command of Vice-Admiral Rozhdzhestvensky. The Russian fleet made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them under circumstances most advantageous to the Japanese fleet. The Baltic fleet, consisting of 33 warships, sailed straight to their destination across the East China Sea. Togo chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Rus-

sian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of May 27 to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces. Rozhdzhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed in Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole island.

The Peace President Roosevelt of the United States then initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, and succeeded in persuading them to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded on September 5, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Chosen, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien (since then officially known as Karafuto) to Japan and handed over the special rights of lease in Kwantung (since then officially known as the Leased Territory of Kwantung), the railway south of Changchung (present Hsinking, capital of Manchoukuo) to Dairen, the territory known as the railway zone and the mining along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them replaced their ministers with ambassadors in Japan. In home affairs Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defense of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railway and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relations with Chosen

(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers

(See Chapter VI.)

Demise of the Emperor Meiji On July 30, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honor, and which draws more worshippers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho) came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Taisho Era

(1912-1926)

The World War

Japan's Contribution When the World War broke out in August 1914, Japan, in the spirit of noblesse oblige, by virtue of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, sided with the Allies. On August 23, 1914, Japan declared war against Germany.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Vice-Admiral Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other China north-eastern seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind, in conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British Navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet. The Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October,

and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December 1914.

With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried its best to protect trade and communications in that part by effectively attacking German submarines in cooperation with the Allied fleets. (See Chapter VI on Foreign Relations.)

The Kanto Earthquake On September 1, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saitama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires started by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

A SURVEY OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**After the Meiji Restoration**

The growth of capitalism in Japan took place much later than in European countries, and the course of development differed accordingly. The

main cause of delay was the closed-door policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate during the 220 years of its régime beginning 1639 and ending 1859, when

some ports were opened for foreign trade.

During the latter half of the period of seclusion the first beginnings of capitalism were becoming evident in the country. But no mercantilism had made its appearance as its predecessor as it had done before the advent of capitalism in Europe, nor did the commercial and industrial conditions of the country make such progress as those of Europe.

The feudalistic order which had lasted for over three hundred years was rapidly heading to a collapse. As the country had little influence from outside on account of its seclusion policy the course of dissolution which the prevailing order of life was facing was simple and natural. In this respect the European history has no parallel.

Toward the latter part of the Tokugawa Period the self-supply and self-sufficiency principle followed in rural districts hitherto began to be threatened by the gradual development of capitalism, although in its infancy, owing to the production of industrial goods, exchange of commodities and the general circulation of money. Serfdom of a type peculiar to Japan began to take on a more or less modern aspect by the appearance of rich landowners in the latter half of the Yedo Period, suggesting the inevitable birth of capitalism.

In the manufacturing industry handicraft production in rural homes and craft guilds in cities began to come under the control of wholesalers and workshops in which craftsmen were gathered together under capitalistic management. At the end of the Yedo Period or in the middle of the nineteenth century the Tokugawa Shogunate and the powerful feudal lords imported the factory system from the west under the pressure of Western powers whose remarkable advancement in industrial and military fields awakened the nation from its long sleep of seclusion.

In the field of commerce progress was quicker than in other fields of national economy. During the period of war-lords prior to the Yedo Period manufacturers formed craft guilds which continued to exist up to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Together with them merchant guilds made a headway, largely owing to the expansion of cities. (See "Yedo Period" in this Chapter.)

Currency system was developed by the Tokugawa Shogunate, and coins of gold, silver, copper, iron and brass were in general circulation in the Yedo Period. Besides, local lords issued their own paper notes of all denominations for circulation within their fiefs. National unification of currency was not yet realized, but the use of money made a considerable progress in the Yedo Period.

The rise of the merchant class and change in warriors' status transformed the old feudal system in its fundamentals and it stood on the brink of complete dissolution when Western countries came knocking at the doors of Japan in the middle of the 19th century.

There was no period of mercantilism in Japan since foreign trade was almost nil and consequently the nation did not enjoy the benefits of a favorable balance of trade. On the other hand, England and other Western countries had entered into a full capitalistic age through the industrial revolution in the last quarter of the 18th century. The territorial and economic expansion of British imperialism eastward reached Japan right after the Nanking Treaty of 1842. Japan, however, was fortunate enough to protect her territorial integrity and independence at this critical moment, but she was compelled to conclude, in 1858, unfair commercial treaties with Western countries in which tariff autonomy was relinquished and extraterritoriality rights were granted to Western Powers at trade ports. Japan was able to abolish the latter only after 42 years, while for the recovery of tariff autonomy 12 years or more were required.

In the Beginning of the Meiji Era Capitalism in Japan, therefore, developed not through industrial and commercial development of the nation but rather under the leadership of the Government and some wealthy merchants enjoying official patronage, and under the pressure of unequal treaties which robbed Japan of free protective trade policy for over half a century. The difficulties met by Japanese leaders, public and private, were uncomparably great in as much as they endeavored to bring the nation up to the political and economic standards of advanced countries in defiance of numerous handicaps. What Japanese leaders of the time had in mind was the immediate

necessity of enriching the nation and reinforcing national defense in order to raise Japan's position to become a member of the family of nations and to ensure national solidarity against possible invasion of foreign Powers as exemplified by their dealings with China. What the leaders of Japan first accomplished was the overthrow of feudalism which had been the greatest obstacle against a rapid advancement of the country to the status of a modern nation, then the introduction and adoption of Western ways, modern administrative and military systems and commercial and industrial enterprises. The anti-foreign agitation in the years prior to the Meiji Restoration was not so much a manifestation of stubborn conservatism as an expression of the people's dissatisfaction with the old feudal régime and the re-affirmation of their loyalty to the Mikado. The patriotic fervor awakened and strengthened during the anti-foreign and anti-Shogunate movement among the people persisted in the mind of the Meiji leaders in their planning and execution of national policies and measures even in matters of economic development. The country was opened for trade, and the former restrictions on trade and industry according to classes were removed so that any individual might enter into any business in accordance with his inclination and free choice. Customs barriers set up at various points all over the country were abolished to facilitate free exchange of commodities and permit freedom of people's movements from one section of the land to another.

One of the major problems in the reformation at the beginning of the Meiji Era, during the years 1868-1876, was the deprivation of privileges enjoyed by the samurai class which comprised about 6.6 per cent of the population which was estimated at 30,000,000. It became clear very early that the privileged class could not be allowed to exist in old status any more, for the entire social structure was to be reorganized and the national conscription system was to be adopted in 1872. The Government, therefore, deprived them of their fiefs or allowances and gave public bonds instead specially issued for the purpose. The average value of public bonds for each samurai household was only ¥550. The samurai families, excepting the feudal lords, were, therefore, soon thrown into

penury, and the Government advised them to enter farm and industrial businesses, gave them positions in governmental factories, railways, and used them as teachers in schools or as policemen. The majority of the police men in the beginning of the Meiji Era were the samurai of former days, mostly retainers of the lord of Kagoshima so that Kagoshima dialect prevailed for many years among the policemen in Japan.

But the good services of former samurai rendered for the country in the Meiji Era cannot be overlooked. The gigantic transformation, both political and economic, was initiated and led by the able retainers of the old feudal lords. With the exception of such persons as Katsu-Kaishu and Okubo-Ichizo who had been direct subjects of the Tokugawa Shogunate and yet played an important rôle in the Restoration, most of the leaders came from among the lower class samurai serving under provincial lords. They cooperated with the nobles in Kyoto for the renovation of the country. Foremost among the personages who made invaluable contributions toward the economic development of Japan in the early years of Meiji were Toshimichi Okubo, Masayoshi Matsukata, Shigenobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and Kaoru Inoue, all of whom came from samurai class. The most outstanding figures among the private business leaders were also from the samurai class, as, for instance, Eiichi Shibusawa, Tomoatsu Godai, Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, Helgoro Soda and Ryohel Toyokawa of the same firm, Hikojiro Nakamigawa and Takuma Dan of the Mitsui interests, Toyoki Wada, Buel Nakano, Kokichi Sonoda, Jofu Yamabé, and Kengo Hayami. Japanese capitalism, therefore, was nurtured and developed by the spirit of samurai, which gave to all business enterprise a nationalistic motive, and developed the spirit of co-operation between business men and governmental officials, so characteristic of the economic development of Japan in the early years of Meiji.

In order to reorganize the nation, politically, economically and socially, the strengthening of national finance was the first requisite. The establishment of a strong military system and promotion of industries put heavy burden on national treasury. Business

organization among the people or capitalistic power of private firms was still very weak, while there was almost no factory equipped with modern machines or furnaces. Importation of machines, improvement of communication facilities and organization of banking institutions, all had to be initiated by the Government.

The ordinary revenue of the Central Government had to come entirely from taxes and flotation of public bonds. In the years when private corporations and manufacturing industries were still undeveloped, the principal item of taxation was land tax. The Government, therefore, endeavored first to adjust disorderly land taxes of former days and instituted an investigation of actual conditions in Japan as well as a study of different taxation systems of Western countries with a view to modernizing the taxation systems. Preparations for a thorough revision of land tax were commenced in 1870, with the purpose of unifying the taxation system throughout the country, by imposing a uniform rate, changing the old system of paying tax in kind to paying in money and lowering the rate from that of feudal days.

National unification of taxes was comparatively easy because the country was completely unified by the return of feuds by local lords to the Throne and the institution of prefectural system in 1871. As to the method of payment of taxes, in some districts under the Shogunate taxes on up-land products were being levied in money and now this system was gradually extended to paddy fields as well. The last aim which was to lower the tax from the average rate of feudal days was the hardest to accomplish, because the new government had to rely largely upon revenue from land tax for its finances. First of all, tax was imposed on the basis of land value instead of the amount of production, then the payment was changed from kind to money, and the rate of tax was fixed at 3 per cent of land value by the provisions of the new land tax law promulgated in 1873. With an additional sur-tax, the actual valuation of new tax rate was estimated at 34 per cent of the amount of rice produced. It was only one per cent lower than the rate imposed by the Tokugawa Shogunate on products in the districts under its direct rule, although it must be re-

membered, as mentioned elsewhere, that the rate was much higher in the districts under local lords, who were able to collect, at will, taxes for coming years in advance or command extraordinary contributions at any time.

Land tax in the years around 1873 occupied the first place among the comparatively few items of taxation, the proceeds of which accounted for over 80 per cent of State ordinary revenue (an insignificant 0.12 per cent in 1940-1941), the burden heavily resting upon the shoulders of farmers for the support of industries other than their own.

New Economic Systems Introduced
Currency system after Western model was adopted and the coins of varied and complicated denominations of the Tokugawa Shogunate were replaced by new coins cast at the national mint in November 1869. The shape of coins was regulated to be round instead of square or round as the old coins, while the former complicated counting was changed to decimal system. At first silver standard was adopted, but it was replaced by gold standard in May 1871. At the same time, however, silver coins were used for purposes of foreign trade for many years after. It was in 1897 that the currency system based on gold standard was completed in Japan. The basis for the development of modern industries was thus established in Japan in the years immediately following the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. On the other hand the sudden transformation of the country from a medieval to a modern state resulted in a huge demand for funds in every field, and consequently unconvertible paper notes were issued by different departments of the Government in the early years of Meiji, while national banks, organized in accordance with the National Bank Law promulgated in November 1872, which numbered 153 in 1879, also issued bank notes, causing serious inflation of currency in the years 1879-1881. But through the good offices of the Finance Minister Masayoshi Matsukata all Governmental and bank notes were adjusted and consolidated so that the financial and economic conditions of the country became normal between 1881 and 1885. In 1877 the National Bank Law was revised, and, through the operation of the new bank law, the establishment of national banks began to decrease after 1881 while private banks began to in-

crease in number to meet the needs of the times.

During a business boom in 1886-1889 local banks and railway companies were established in considerable numbers. Spinning and silk industries also made progress in these years, but the expansion of banking and communication facilities went ahead of manufacturing industries in Japan indicating an abnormal development of capitalistic enterprises at their start. Banks and railways drew a large amount of investment during these years and established the basis for future development. The power of banks over industries was further augmented by the establishment of special banks (see Chapter on Banking) with the Nippon Ginko as the central bank solely empowered to issue bank-notes. In spite of the ups and downs of the economic world through the years of international wars in Meiji and Taisho eras banking organs continued to make sound progress so that they maintain a firm grip on industrial and commercial enterprises up to the present.

Railways A model steam engine and train were presented to the Shogunate as early as 1853 by Commodore Perry which gave a rudimentary idea of modern transportation facilities to competent authorities of the time, and later the Shogunate envoys to Europe came back with fresh knowledge of railways and with books on the conditions in European countries, and stimulated earnest concern in the Government for laying railways in the islands. It was in the fifth year of Meiji (1872) that the first railway was laid between Tokyo and Yokohama. During the following decade the construction of railways was carried on briskly under governmental management, until, by 1881, the Kyoto-Osaka, Osaka-Kobe, and Kyoto-Otsu lines were completed. The railway enterprise which was till now exclusively under governmental management was taken up by private interests, and in 1881 the Nippon Railway Company, a private concern was established with the purpose of laying railway lines between Tokyo and Aomori. With the extension of every mileage of this railway to the north, the enterprise gained increasing success so that, during the years (1886-1889) of business boom, investments were largely drawn to railways. The total mileage of governmental and private railways in

Japan amounted to 1,500 miles by 1890. The next period of railway expansion was the 3 years of 1895-1897 when about 58 per cent of ¥1,460,000,000, the total amount of investment for new enterprises in Japan during those 3 years, went to railway companies. This trend of investment changed in the years following the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 and it began to go to manufacturing industries in a greater degree. But in general railway business continued to make surprising progress and in 1907 all important lines in the islands were placed under State ownership, mainly for the purpose of strengthening national defense. Since then the Government has been making every effort for covering all parts of the country with a complete network of railways in order to facilitate communications, business expansion, political unity and national defense for the economic development of the nation. (See Chapter on Land Transportation.)

Shipping Companies The sea transportation business in Japan owed its progress, even more than the railways, to the Governmental measures of support from the beginning of Meiji. The successive calls of the European and American mercantile and war ships at the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate strongly impressed the rulers and leaders of the time with the acute need for large-size ships for Japan's own defense and commercial development. Accordingly, many steam ships were either purchased or built by the Shogunate and local lords. The Meiji Government was determined to build a fleet of merchant vessels so as to compete with the Pacific Steamship Company of America and the P.O.S.S. Company of England which were dominating the sea transportation business in Oriental waters. They saw the need of promoting sea transportation by Japanese themselves for recovering into the hand of the Japanese the foreign trade of Japan, 97 per cent of which was in the hand of foreign firms. As soon as the Meiji Government was established it adopted a policy of protecting foreign trade and gave all possible aid to sea transportation enterprises carried by the Shipping Company, the Postal Steamship Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Union Transportation Company and the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The first named two companies were capitalized by the Mitsui interests and

supported by Kaoru Inoué of the Government, while the Mitsubishi Company was backed by Toshimichi Okubo and Shigenobu Okuma. The latter which was led by Yataro Iwasaki got special Government protection and rendered valuable services by conveying soldiers at the time of the Formosan Expedition, the Saga Incident and the Southwestern Civil War of 1887, monopolizing important sea transportation business in those years. But in 1882 a new company came into being under the auspices of Yajiro Shinagawa, Eiichi Shibusawa and Takashi Masuda, powerful economic leaders in that period. The new company, known as the Union Transportation Company, capitalized at ¥3,000,000, entered into close competition with the old Mitsubishi Company. In the end their competition became so destructive that the Government had to interfere and brought about an amalgamation of the two companies, which resulted in the birth of the N.Y.K. in 1885. The Toyo Kisen, the Nisshin Kisen and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha were subsequently established and added a large number of excellent ships for the development of the Japanese sea transportation and trade expansion, also under the special protection of the Government. During the years of the World War and the post-war period, many new shipping companies appeared and disappeared in Japan causing considerable disturbance in the shipping world. But the old N.Y.K., O.S.K. and other surviving shipping companies have continued to expand, more or less supported by the Government, through the years of Showa to play the most important rôle for the execution of the China Affair and the construction of the new order in East Asia in recent years.

Foreign Trade Among other fields of national economy which the Meiji Government endeavored to emphasize and promote was the foreign trade. In accordance with the provisions of the treaties with the five Western Powers concluded in 1858 Japan was forced to recognize extraterritoriality for the convenience of the treaty Powers at different ports and the assessment of import tariff was restricted so as not to enable Japan to take any protective policy at her own will. Yet the Powers agreed to the import tariff of 35 per cent ad valorem, largely through the good offices of the American envoy,

Townsend Harris. But the Powers took advantage of the anti-foreign movement among the people and certain untoward incidents involving their subjects in the following years to lower the rate to 5 per cent in 1866. In the beginning of the Meiji Era this revised import tariff was in force to the great disadvantage of Japanese traders. According to Governmental investigation in 1877, Japan's foreign trade was almost entirely in the hands of foreigners, 94 per cent of exports and 95 per cent of imports being handled by foreign firms. Another investigation revealed that as much as 97 per cent of Japan's trade was controlled by foreign traders. Such conditions were incompatible with the economic development of the country, and the leaders of the nation did everything to recover and assure autonomous tariff system and enrich the nation through foreign trade by the Japanese. The first requisite for the achievement of this goal were the revision of treaties on an equal footing and the abrogation of extraterritoriality. Special missions were sent to Western countries with the purpose of investigating western institutions and coming into direct contact with their governments and leaders, and on the return of those missions things European were indiscriminately introduced into the country, bringing about a period of European worship. On the other hand, advertisements and propaganda were eagerly made for the debut of Japanese goods in foreign markets. Special products of Japan were sent to and exhibited at international expositions in Vienna, Philadelphia, Melbourne and Paris. The Government took 20 such chances up to 1887 without regard to the large expenditure and trouble involved, in the endeavor to introduce Japan and to cultivate markets for Japanese goods in foreign lands. It took, however, not less than 40 years to bring about a revision of the treaties and to recover autonomy in import tariff. It was a hard task for Japan to promote modern industries in the country without the freedom of taking protective measures through the control of customs duties. Japan, however, was able to break away from the economic control of Western Powers, almost similar to that exercised in China, by the earnest and patriotic efforts of its wise and able leaders, both in the Government and among the people, by the end of the

Meiji Era. Since then Japan has become the greatest commercial and industrial nation in the Orient, keeping pace with the leading western countries.

Manufacturing Industries The first effort of the Meiji Government for the establishment of manufacturing industries in Japan was centered on the promotion of the munitions industry with the purpose of strengthening national defense which had been almost nothing as compared with European Powers. Here also Japan followed a reverse order beginning her industrial development with manufacturing guns and munition instead of peace-time goods as had been the case with European countries. Prior to the Meiji Restoration, the Mito clan began the manufacture of guns in 1836 and had a furnace built in 1855; the Saga clan erected a factory for the manufacture of Dutch-style fire-arms in 1842 and installed a reverberatory furnace in 1850; and the Satsuma clan began the manufacture of guns, large and small, and gunpowder at the Shusei Kan factory in 1851. There were established a sugar factory and a spinning factory in Kagoshima, but the main efforts were concentrated in the munitions industry. The Shogunate Government at Yedo established the Nagasaki Iron Foundry in 1861, Yokosuka and Yokohama iron foundries in 1864, while a Shogunate Agent Tarozaemon Egawa at Nirayama installed a reverberatory furnace in his factory in 1853. Munition factories were also established at Takinogawa and Koishikawa on the outskirts of Yedo.

Those old factories were taken over by the new Meiji Government and were improved and enlarged, while some new ones were added to the list. The principal munition and shipbuilding factories which appeared in the early years of Meiji were army arsenals in Tokyo and Osaka, the Yokosuka Dock and shipyards at Nagasaki, Hyogo (Kobe), Ishikawajima (Tokyo) and Kagoshima.

In order to promote other lines of the manufacturing industry the Government Industrial Bureau established the Akabané Factory in 1871 for the manufacture of iron tools and bricks, and the Shinagawa Glass Factory in 1876. The mines exploited by the Government in those years were the Ikuno Gold Mine, Sado Gold Mine, Innai Gold

Mine, Kosaka Copper Mine, Mikié Coal Mine and Kamaishi Iron Mine. A large number of foreign experts were employed for the technical guidance of these factories and mines. Among them was Gottfried Wagner, a German engineer, who came to Japan in 1868 and died here in 1892, devoting the best part of his life for the progress of manufacturing industries in Japan, including the modernization of the old ceramic industry of the country.

In 1872, the Tomioka Silk Factory was established by the Government the first factory of the kind in Japan. They had hard time to gather girls to work in the factory, since parents were reluctant to send their daughters on account of a superstitious fear attached to European method of filature. Here girls of the old samurai class set good example by volunteering service in the factory and later becoming tutors of girls in other filatures established one after another. In 1878 a governmental cotton spinning factory was established at Hiroshima; in the following year a spinning and weaving factory was opened at Senju, Tokyo, now known as the Senju Woolen Factory conducted by the Army Ministry. In 1872 and the years following the Hokkaido Colonization Office established, at Sapporo and Muroran, breweries, saw mills and factories for the manufacture of cloth or fishing nets.

The spinning factories established by the Government before 1878 were sold to private enterprisers at the time of the financial readjustment conducted by the Finance Minister Masayoshi Mutsukata in 1881 and in the succeeding years. In 1883, a big cotton spinning factory in Osaka began its work with 10,500 spindles, a great advancement as compared with 2,000 spindles used in similar factories in 1878. Since then the cotton spinning industry in Japan made a speedy progress and in 1897 Japan exported 4,290 piculs of cotton yarns against 161 piculs of imported ones. The abolition of customs duties on exported cotton yarns in 1891 and import tariff on cotton in 1896 must have contributed largely for the increase in exports. The cotton spinning and silk reeling industries in general entered into a period of modern mechanical production around the years of the Sino-Japanese War, 1894-95, marking an epochal change in the industrial development of Japan.

War and Industrial Progress In-
dustrial and economic progress in
Japan seems to receive fresh stimulus
with every international disturbance or
war. The first entrance into Japan of
modern industry was the result of
troubles with Western countries; the
second economic expansion was con-
nected with the Sino-Japanese War; the
third with the Russo-Japanese War; and
the fourth with the World War I.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895
cost the lives of thousands of young
men of Japan and a large sum of
money, but no damage on industrial
facilities in the land was incurred.
Instead, it brought in 365 million yen
of indemnity from China, much in ex-
cess of actual war expenditure. The
international relations of Japan im-
mediately after the Sino-Japanese War
suggested the possibility of another war
and the Government took control of all
enterprises for strengthening national
defense. The establishment of the
Yawata Iron Foundry, the extension of
State railways, improvement of water
courses, communication facilities and
educational systems, the execution of
colonization policy and the adoption of
gold standard were among the im-
portant achievements of the Govern-
ment in those years. The State finance
swelled greatly, and stimulated the
speedy development of national
economy.

The productive power of the nation
made remarkable expansion by the
utilization of factories which had been
erected for munitions manufacture dur-
ing the war. The amount of money
invested in industries was augmented,
and the national credit increased so
that foreign investment in Japan be-
came obtainable much more easily. The
victory opened new markets for Japan-
ese goods in Western countries, and
the enterprising spirit of the nation
was fired to an unprecedented degree,
as it is well revealed in the compar-
ison of figures for new companies and
factories established during the years
ending the 35th year of Meiji or 1902.
There were 64 companies and 872 fac-
tories established in Japan in 1877, 392
companies and 694 factories were added
during the 8 years from 1878 to 1885,
925 companies and 1,798 factories were
established during the following 8 years
from 1886 to 1893, and 7,217 companies
and 4,328 factories came into being
during the 9 years from 1894 or the

year of the beginning of the Sino-
Japanese War to 1902, i.e. as many as
84 per cent of the companies and 50
per cent of factories established be-
tween 1877 and 1902 were those
established during the Sino-Japanese
War and the years immediately fol-
lowing that event.

After the Russo-Japanese War of
1904-1905, the number of army divi-
sions was increased from 13 to 19, the
peace strength from 150,000 to 250,000,
while the total tonnage of warships was
raised from 260,000 tons to 500,000 tons.
The law for the State ownership of rail-
ways was promulgated in 1906, and all
the main lines in the islands were pur-
chased by the Government by the end
of the following year. The increase
of State expenditure stimulated the
national economic progress to a still
greater degree than in the years fol-
lowing the Sino-Japanese War. Foreign
capital flew in in much greater amount
and its total amount which had been
only 200 million yen at the end of
1903 or the year before the Russo-
Japanese War increased to 1,000 million
yen at the end of 1907 and 2,000 mil-
lion yen at the end of 1913. The
amount of paid-up capital of banks in
Japan went up from 373 million yen to
651 million yen, deposits from 700
million to 2,540 million during 1902-
1915. New investments amounted to
3,841 million yen during 1905-1913 and
50 per cent of it was raised in the
period from September 1905 to Decem-
ber 1907 or within 28 months after the
conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War.

Divided according to kinds of busi-
ness, 29.4 per cent of the above total
went to manufacturing industries, 12.3
per cent to electric enterprises, 18.3 per
cent to railways, 14.9 per cent to
banks, the remaining 16 per cent to
commerce, etc. As compared with the
three years after the Sino-Japanese
War or 1895-1897 in which 58 per cent
of the total investment (1,460 million
yen) went to railways, 15 per cent to
banks and the remaining 26.8 per cent
to industries, the direction of invest-
ment during 1905-1907 underwent a
considerable change, for 48.4 per cent
of its total amount was represented by
the money spent on productive indus-
tries. Foreign trade made great
strides in those years, the amount of
exports increasing every year, with 289
million yen for 1903, 423 million yen
for 1906, 526 million yen for 1912 and
over 600 million yen for the following

year. The only industry left undeveloped was agriculture as in the years following the Sino-Japanese War.

The World War of 1914-1918 brought an unexpected business boom to Japan. The State expenditure, which was 668 million yen in the first year of the war, increased to 823 million yen in 1918; it crossed over the 1,000 million mark and amounted to 1,024 million yen in 1919, 1,396 million yen in 1920 and 1,591 million yen in 1921, reflecting the remarkable growth of national economy. The belligerent countries stopped exports and sought supplies of goods and munitions from Japan since production in Japan was not affected by the war on account of its geographical situation. Complete stoppage of, or enormous decrease in exports of European and American goods, the corresponding increase in Japanese exports to markets hitherto supplied by Western countries, export of munitions from Japan to the belligerent countries in Europe, and the world demand for bottoms made tremendous contributions toward the economic expansion of Japan.

Mineral ores, machines, tools and chemicals which had been imported in pre-war days stopped to come, and Japan had to supply herself with home products in these lines. Mining, the machine and tool manufacturing industry, metal works and the chemical industry, therefore, made an epoch-making progress under the protection and direction of the Government. Japanese cotton goods and miscellaneous merchandise gained new markets specially in the Far East and the South Seas. Machines and tools made in Japan were also exported, though not in large quantities. Knitted goods, shoes, ornamental articles, copper, iron and beans were exported in considerable quantities.

The demand for bottoms increased with the advance of the World War and the freightage which had been 15s. 6d., Bombay-London, in July 1914, went up to 62s. 6d. in June 1915, 133s. in March 1916, and 225s. in October of the same year. Large and small shipowners in Japan were all blessed with the boom in shipping business and there appeared many "Nari-kin" or upstart millionaires in Japan. The accompanying ship-building business naturally made an enormous headway. The boom caused by the war continued for about 6 years during and after it. Viewed from the

movement of capital, the amount of investments of new and enlarged companies totalled 292 million yen in 1915, 657 million yen in 1916, 1,562 million yen in 1917, 2,676 million yen 1918, 4,068 million yen in 1919, and 5,113 million yen in 1920, but a reaction set in in the following year with 2,236 million yen. The sum total of investment during the 6 years, 1915-1920, reached the huge amount of 14,371 million yen against 1,983 million yen which had been the aggregate amount of capital raised during the preceding 46 years, 1868-1913.

During those years the balances of foreign trade and the so-called invisible trade turned to Japan's advantage and this country's specie abroad showed an unprecedented increase. The progressive increase of Japan's export trade during the war years are indicated by the following figures:—613 million yen in 1914, 730 million yen in 1915, 1,153 million yen in 1916, 1,610 million yen in 1917, 2,022 million yen in 1918, and 2,180 million yen in 1919. But the figures began to fall from the following year, the amount being 2,040 million yen in 1920; and 1,308 million yen in 1921. The invisible trade maintained a favorable balance during 1914-1921; for instance, the excess of receipts in 1918 reached 575 million yen, in the following year 504 million yen. Japan's specie held abroad which had amounted to 341 million yen in 1914 increased to 2,178 million yen in 1920. Thus, Japan which was a debtor in 1914 became creditor by the end of the war, her international debt of 1,090 million yen at the end of 1914 having been paid back during the war years and the net amount of claim at the end of 1920 stood at 2,770 million yen.

The World War years saw the scope and level of mining and industrial facilities for national production reach the highest standard till then achieved. Specially remarkable was the progress in the key industries, the chemical industry and the cotton spinning and weaving industry. All branches of transportation business and banking also made a great advance. Unions of companies began in those years for the consolidation of national economy which had reached a high capitalistic stage. However, in the production of machines and tools, some articles of the chemical industry and precision machines, Japan had not yet reached satisfactory stage, and important arti-

cles had still to be imported in considerable quantities. The problem of self-supply in those articles was left for future solution. It may be said in this connection that the increased need of the years after the Manchurian Incident of 1931 and the scientific progress in the country are working toward a complete solution of the problem.

Rural districts were benefited by the boom of the World War years to a certain extent, but the fundamental improvement of agriculture in connection with the ownership of farm lands or the adoption of large farming machines was left untouched.

Marching Forward Japan was hard hit by the reaction of domestic and international economic conditions in the years following the World War. A period of economic readjustment set in the world over; the belligerent Powers reassumed economic activities and regained their former markets which had passed into Japanese hands temporarily, cartels and trusts began to control prices, Russia separated herself from capitalist nations, manufacturing industries began to develop in colonies and dominions of Powers; currency inflation in Germany, France and Russia worked hard upon world economy, so that each country began to protect its domestic market and to seek as many foreign markets as possible; the American panic of September 1929 spread to other parts of the world and the economic policy of the Powers came in for a radical change, causing the principle of free trade to be replaced by the national protective economy and the economic bloc system; all efforts for disarmament failed and preparedness for another world war became the guiding policy of Powers finally culminating in the present World War II.

In the midst of such economic confusion the world over, Japan experienced stock-market panic in 1920, banking panic in 1922, the great earthquake and fire in 1923, a general economic panic in 1927, and the severe effects of world depression in 1929. In 1930 the gold embargo was removed, but the deflation policy of the Government further intensified the current economic unrest, and finally in September 1931 the Manchurian Incident occurred and in December of the same year gold was once more embargoed. A lower ex-

change rate of the yen worked favorably for Japan's trade for the time being. In 1932 the Shanghai Affair took place, and the movement for national reorganization and the strengthening of national defense persisted in 1932-37, accompanying the assassinations of several dignitaries. At last the present China Affair broke out to initiate the construction of a new order in East Asia.

Throughout these trying times Japan has continued her struggle for advancement in all economic spheres especially for the expansion and progress of munitions industries and key industries connected with national defense.

The course of Japan's economic expansion and progress during the past 70 years reveals the old samurai spirit of the people which has enabled them to face all crises with a smile and break through all hardships to greater achievements.

The Greater East Asia War Under the inevitable circumstances mentioned in the Chapters on Foreign Affairs and National Defense, Japan declared war against the United States and the British Empire on December 8, 1941, and the great war is carried on in the entire Pacific regions with all victory of Japan. As the consequence of the victory up to May 31, 1942, she has occupied a large area of about 2,521,510 square kilometers or more than 3.7 times as large as Japan proper, with an aggregate population of about 93,680,000 and an unestimable deposits of natural resources in the exploited and unexploited areas in those regions. The Tokyo Government and Imperial Military Governments in Malay, the East Indies, Burma and the Philippines are doing their best for the economic rehabilitation and development of those countries for the progress of the general welfare of the inhabitants and for a proper utilization in Japan of material obtained there, giving promise for a great future for the economic expansion of Japan to an unprecedented degree for which her men of business are fully prepared to make in cooperation with the Governments the greatest possible contribution with patriotic spirit similar to that of the brave soldiers and sailors who sacrificed their life for the sake of H.I.M. the Emperor and their beloved country.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT HISTORICAL EVENTS IN JAPAN AND THE WORLD

JAPAN

Beginning of the Empire

(2,000 B.C.—709 A.D.)

(2,000 B.C.-600 B.C. Age of ancestral tribes and Imperial Fathers.)

- B.C.
660 The Emperor Jimmu ascends the Throne at Kashiwara, in the present Nara prefecture.
- 564 The 18th year of the second Emperor Suizei.
- 561 The 31st year of the same Emperor.
- 509 The 2nd year of the fourth Emperor Itoku.
- 470 The 6th year of the fifth Emperor Kosho.
- 451 The 25th year of the same Emperor.
- 356 The 37th year of the sixth Emperor Koan.
- 330 The 63rd year of the same Emperor.
- 220 The 71st year of the seventh Emperor Korei.
- 146 The 12th year of the ninth Emperor Kaika.
- 58 The 40th year of the tenth Emperor Sujin.
- 5 The Great Shrine of Isé built by the eleventh Emperor Suinin.
- 4 The 26th year of the Emperor Suinin.
- A.D.
65 The 94th year of the Emperor Suinin.
- 97-110 Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the twelfth Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamatotakeru.
- 135 The Japanese Empire divided for the first time, into administrative districts by the thirteenth Emperor Seimu.
- 200 Silla conquered by the Empress Jingo.
- 285 Confucianism introduced.

THE WORLD

- B.C.
776 Greek chronology begins to be precise from this date.
- 753 Rome founded. (Traditional date)
- 606 Destruction of Nineveh. End of the Assyrian Empire.
- 564 Birth of Gautama Buddha.
- 561 Birth of Confucius.
- 509 Roman Republic established. (Traditional date).
- 470 Birth of Socrates.
- 451-450 Laws of the Twelve Tables published. The basis of all later Roman law.
- 356 Birth of Alexander the Great.
- 330 The Persian Empire overthrown.
- 327 Conquest of India by Alexander the Great.
- 220 The Tsin Dynasty unifies China.
- 214 Great Wall of China begun.
- 146 Carthage and Corinth destroyed by the Romans.
- 58-50 Conquest of Gaul by Julius Cæsar.
- 4 Birth of Jesus Christ.
- A.D.
65 Buddhism introduced into China.
- 70 Jerusalem captured by the Romans.
- 135 Dispersion of the Jews.
- 212 Edict of Caracalla. Extended Roman citizenship to all free-born men in the Roman Empire.
- 284 Reorganization of the Roman Empire by Diocletian.

JAPAN

- 313 The sixteenth Emperor Nintoku establishes the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
- 316 The Emperor Nintoku relieves the people by a three year remission of taxes.
- 476 The 20th year of the twenty-first Emperor Yuryaku.
- 529 The 23rd year of the twenty-sixth Emperor Keitai.
- 532 Buddhism introduced.
- 562 Japanese Office in Mimana destroyed by Silla.
- 583 Imperial Prince Shotoku, Regent, builds Horyuji and Shitennoji temples.
- 604 The Constitution of Seventeen Tables published by the Regent Shotoku.
- 607 An envoy sent to the Sui Court of China.
- 630 An envoy sent to the Tang Court of China.
- 645 The custom of "year names" introduced.
- 646 The Talka Reformation.
- 660 Ezo (Hokkaido) subjugated by Hirafu Abe.
- 663 Control over Korean peninsula abandoned.
- 701 The Taiho Law promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government fixed.

Nara Period

(710-793 A.D.)

- 710 Nara founded as the capital by the Empress Gemmyo (the fourth-third ruler).
- 620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) compiled.
- 756 The treasures of the Emperor Shomu donated to Todaiji temple by the Empress Komyo, and later building of the Shoso-in Museum for their preservation.
- 769 Dictatorship of Doko, Buddhist "pope," opposed by the loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.

THE WORLD

- 313 Edict of Milan. Granted general religious toleration and placed Christianity on a legal equality with the other religions of the Roman world.
- 330 Constantinople (New Rome) made the capital of the Roman Empire.
- 395 Separation of the Roman Empire.
- 476 Deposition of Romulus Augustulus. Extinction of the line of Roman emperors in the West.
- 529-534 Codification of Roman law. One of the most important contributions of Rome to civilization.
- 570 Birth of Mohammed.
- 618 The Sui Dynasty destroyed by the Tang Dynasty.
- 622 The flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina. Beginning of the Mohammedan era.
- 641 Defeat of Persia by the Saracens.
- 661-668 Supremacy of Silla among Korean kingdoms.
- 732 Battle of Tours. Stemmed the farther advance of the Moslems into western Europe.
- 713 Conquest of Spain by the Saracens.
- 727 Leo III, Emperor of the East Roman Empire, publishes an edict for the prohibition of idolatry.
- 756 Separation of the Saracen Empire.

JAPAN

Heian Period

(794-1191 A.D.)

- 794 Heian (Kyoto) founded as the new capital by the fiftieth Emperor Kammu.
- 794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
- 848 Casting of Taiho copper coins.
- 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumes the Regency. Rise of the Fujiwaras.
- 887 Mototsune Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent appointed Kampaku (Chief Councillor to the Throne).
- 894 Official intercourse with the Tang Dynasty broken off.
- 729-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria trades with Japan.
- 901 Michizane Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku, reduced to the governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
- 950 Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heike) gradually rise to power.
- 1016 Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
- 1039 Armies of Buddhist monks disturb the capital.
- 1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.
- 1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and family.
- 1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto establishes headquarters at Kamakura.
- 1185 The Tairas destroyed by the Minamotos. Yoritomo Minamoto appoints local military police and tax-gatherers.

THE WORLD

- 800 Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the Romans. Formation of the so-called Holy Roman Empire.
- 843 Treaty of Verdun and 870 Treaty of Mersen. Marked important stages in the dissolution of Charlemagne's dominions.
- 888 The Count of Paris installed by the French.
- 890 Alfred the Great divides England into three.
- 904 Attack of Constantinople by the Russians.
- 962 Otto I, the Great, crowned Roman Emperor. Revival of the Holy Roman Empire.
- 982 Greenland discovered by the Northmen.
- 988 Christianity introduced into Russia. The Russian Slavs henceforth came under the influence of the Greek Church and Byzantine civilization.
- 1054 Rupture of the Greek and Roman Churches. Destroyed the religious unity of European Christendom.
- 1066 Battle of Hastings. Resulted in the Norman Conquest of England.
- 1095 Council of Clermont. Beginning of the crusades.
- 1122 Concordat of Worms. A compromise arrangement between the Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire.
- 1169 Beginning of the Conquest of Ireland by the English.

JAPAN

Kamakura Period

(1192-1337 A.D.)

- 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto appointed Sei-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the following 675 years Japan ruled by the samurai statesmen.
- 1219 The Kamakura Shogunate ended with the third Shogun, Sanetomo Minamoto. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo officiates as a nun Shogun for several years.
- 1224 Yasutoki Hojo becomes chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate. The Hojos exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
- 1232 The Joel Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
- 1274 Yuan (Mongol) invasion.
- 1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimune Hojo, the chief-executive.
- 1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial rule.
- 1331 Battles between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
- 1333 The Hojos destroyed. Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
- 1335 Rebellion of Takauji Ashikaga.
- 1336 Death of Masashige Kusunoki, famous loyalist, in the battle of the Minatogawa (Kobe). The Imperial House divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.

Muromachi Period

(1338-1602 A.D.)

- 1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaims himself Shogun and establishes the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
- 1342 Tenryu-jibune (trade boats) sent to China.

THE WORLD

- 1206-1227 Conquests of Jenghis Khan. Brought a large part of western Asia and eastern Europe under Mongol sway.
- 1215 Magna Carta. Defined the rights of Englishmen and inspired their later struggles for political liberty.
- 1271-1295 Travels of Marco Polo. His narratives greatly increased the interest of Europeans in the Far East.
- 1275 Model Parliament of Edward I. A regularly elected Parliament which for the first time included representatives of all classes of the English people.
- 1289 Osman I becomes ruler of the Ottoman Empire.
- 1336 Spread of Renaissance movements.
- 1348-1349 Black Death in Europe. Hastened the decline of serfdom and the emancipation of the peasantry.
- 1378-1417 The Great Schism. Weakened the spiritual supremacy of the popes over western Christendom.
- 1396 Greek first taught at Florence, Italy. The revival of Greek studies in western Europe formed an important aspect of the Renaissance movement.

JAPAN

- 1467-1475 The Onin war. Kyoto reduced to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate both lost power before rising feudal lords.
- 1476-1573 Feudal lords struggle for supremacy.
- 1483 Importation of copper money from the Ming Dynasty.
- 1514 Duel between individuals prohibited by the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1530 First visit of the Portuguese.
- 1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
- 1546 Chinese trade boats come to Bungo in Kyushu.
- 1548 Dutch trade boats come to Buzen in Kyushu.
- 1549 Christianity introduced by Francis Xavier.
- 1568 Nobunaga Oda comes up to Kyoto by Imperial order.
- 1571 Nobunaga destroys Enryakuji temple to suppress the power of Buddhist monks.
- 1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1576 Building of the Azuchi castle by Nobunaga.
- 1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
- 1582 Hideyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
- 1585 Prohibition of Christianity by Hideyoshi.
- 1588 Hideyoshi promoted to Kampaku.
- 1588 Casting of Koban, gold coin.
- 1590 Unification of the Empire by Hideyoshi.
- 1592 and 1598 Japanese invasion into Korea.

THE WORLD

- 1453 Constantinople captured by the Ottoman Turks. End of the Byzantine Empire.
- 1456 First book printed at Gutenberg's press in Mainz, Germany.
- 1487 Cape of Good Hope rounded by Diaz.
- 1492 Discovery of America by Columbus.
- 1498 India reached by Vasco da Gama. The Portuguese thus opened up an ocean passage from Europe round Africa to the Far East.
- 1517 Luther's Ninety-five Theses posted. Beginning of the Protestant Reformation in Germany.
- 1519-1522 Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe.
- 1543 Publication of Copernicus' treatise "On the Revolutions of Celestial Orbits."
- 1545 Silver Mines of Potosi in Bolivia discovered. The enormous output of silver enlarged the supply of money in western Europe, thus stimulating industrial and commercial enterprises.
- 1565 The Philippines taken by the Spanish.
- 1579 The Union of Utrecht. Two years later the republic of the United Netherlands, or Holland took its place among European nations.
- 1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada. Gave to England control of the sea and made possible English colonization of North America.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

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JAPAN

1598 Death of Hideyoshi.

Yedo Period

(1602-1867 A.D.)

- 1600 Battle of Sekigahara assures the supremacy of Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1642-1616).
- 1603 Iyeyasu appointed Shogun. Founding of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yedo (Tokyo).
- 1609 Beginning of the trade with Hollanders. The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
- 1610 Official letter to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
- 1612 Absolute prohibition of Christianity.
- 1613 Hasekura sent to Rome by Lord Masamune Date.
- 1615 The Toyotomis destroyed by the Tokugawas at the Battle of Osaka.
- Promulgation of the Kuge Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buke Hatto (Samurai Law).
- 1616 Death of Iyeyasu.
- 1619 Nagamasa Yamada enters Siam.
- 1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
- 1638 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
- 1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion. Japan closed. Foreign nationals prohibited to enter Japan, except the Hollanders and the Chinese.
- 1657 The compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History) begun by Lord Mitsukuni Tokugawa.
- 1688-1708 The Genroku Era of ornate living.
- 1702 Revenge of the "47 Akao Ronin."
- 1720 The Prohibition Law against Western books amended.

THE WORLD

- 1598 Edict of Nantes issued by Henry IV of France. A noteworthy step in the direction of religious toleration.
- 1607 Settlement of Jamestown. The first permanent English colony in America.
- 1611 Authorized English Version of the Bible published.
- 1616 The name "Manchuria" originated by a kingdom in that area.
- 1617 Peace Treaty between Russia and Sweden.
- 1618 Beginning of the Thirty Years' War.
- 1648 Peace of Westphalia. Ended the religious wars.
- 1687 Newton's "Principia" published. One of the most important contributions ever made to physical science.
- 1688-1689 The "Glorious Revolution." Completed the work of the Puritan Revolution by overthrowing absolutism and divine right in England.
- 1704 Battle of Blenheim. Defeated the attempt of Louis XIV to make France supreme in western Europe.

JAPAN

- 1764 Norinaga Motoori commences his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
- 1765 Establishment of a Governmental medical school.
- 1769 Private societies or mobs among the peasants forbidden.
- 1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju, Oki-tsugu Tanuma.
Succession of natural calamities.
- 1787 Administrative reform by the Roju, Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuō).
- 1793 Visit of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
- 1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
- 1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
- 1815 A map of the coast lines of Japan completed.
- 1825 Shogunate Order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
- 1830 Great famine of the Tempo era.

THE WORLD

- 1762 Rousseau's "Social Contract" published. Its democratic teachings were put into effect by the French revolutionists.
- 1763 Peace of Paris. Ended the Seven Years' War and gave to England a colonial empire in India and North America at the expense of France.
- 1768-1779 Voyages of Captain James Cook. Greatly increased geographical knowledge of the Pacific Ocean and its archipelagoes.
- 1769-1785 Arkwright's "water frame," 1770 Hargreaves' "spinning jenny," 1770 Crompton's "mule," and 1785 Cartwright's power loom.
- 1776 Declaration of Independence of the Americans.
- 1781-1782 Watt's steam engine patented. The steam engine invented in 1769 had served only for pumping; henceforth applied to manufacturing and transportation.
- 1787 Constitution of the United States of America framed.
- 1789 Meeting of the Estates-General in France. The first step toward the French Revolution.
- 1796 Napoleon's advance into Italy.
- 1798 Conquest of Egypt by Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1804 Napoleon crowned Emperor of the French. The Code Napoleon promulgated. The most lasting memorial of the Napoleonic era.
- 1805 Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1806 Downfall of the Holy Roman Empire.
- 1807 Fulton's steamboat, the "Clermont," in successful operation.
- 1814-1815 Congress of Vienna. Remade the map of Europe after the revolutionary and Napoleonic era.
- 1815 Battle of Waterloo. Brought about the final overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1823 Monroe Doctrine enunciated.
- 1825 Stockton and Darlington Railway opened. The first line run by steam power.
- 1830-1831 The "July Revolution" in Europe. Overthrew absolutism and divine right in France and created modern Belgium.
- 1832 Reform Act in Great Britain. The first step in democratizing the British government.

JAPAN

- 1837 Rebellion of Heihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses. Coming of the American ship "Morrison."
- 1841 Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
- 1842 The 1825 Order removed. A step toward opening the country. Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists.
- 1845 Visit of American ships to Uraga.
- 1846 First request of America for the "open door."
- 1848 Casting of a European gun by Shozan Sakuma.
- 1849 Knocking at Japan's doors of British and American ships.
- 1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry. Visit of the Russian delegate Poutiatine to Nagasaki.
- 1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with the United States, Great Britain and Russia. Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Government in 1870.)
- 1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.
- 1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.
- 1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with the United States, Great Britain, France, Russia and Holland.
- 1859 The Ansei Coup d'Etat by the Taïro, II Kamonnokami (Nao-suké). Ports of Yokohama, Hakodate and Nagasaki opened.
- 1860 Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to the United States. Taïro II assassinated.
- 1861 The British Legation at Yedo attacked by the ronin.

THE WORLD

- 1837 Morse's first telegraph instrument exhibited.
- 1838 The Atlantic Ocean crossed by the "Great Western." The first steamship to make the trip without using sails.
- 1837-1901 Reign of Queen Victoria.
- 1838 Photography invented.
- 1845 Texas annexed by the United States.
- 1846 A new planet Neptune discovered.
- 1848-1849 The "February Revolution" in Europe. Made France again a republic and led to revolutionary upheavals in Italy, Germany and the Austrian Empire.
- 1851 Crystal Palace Exhibition at London. The first of the great international expositions. The first submarine cable laid from Dover to Calais.
- 1854 Crimean War.
- 1855 Occupation of Caucasia by the Russians.
- 1856 Congress of Paris. Ended the Crimean War.
- 1857 Canton occupied by the English and French forces.
- 1858 The Tientsin Treaty.
- 1859 Darwin's "Origin of Species" published. Presentation of the evolutionary theory.
- 1860 The Peking Treaty. The English and French troops entered Peking. Beginning of the Civil War in America.

JAPAN

- 1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.
The Namamugi Incident.
- 1863 The Anti-Foreign Law. Attack on foreign ships at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima.
- 1864 Battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace. Shimonoseki bombarded by a combined fleet of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Netherlands.
- 1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.
- 1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate and Anti-Shogunate forces.
- 1866 Demise of the Emperor Komei.
- 1867 Accession of the Meiji Tenno (1852-1912), the 122nd Emperor. Imperial armies moved against the Yedo Shogunate. Proclamation of the Restoration of Imperial direct rule. On October 14, the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa petitioned for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne, and, on the 24th, the petition was accepted.

Meiji Era

(1868-1912 A.D.)

- 1868 Formal enthronement of the Emperor Meiji.
The first year of Meiji, beginning with September.
The Five Articles of Imperial Oath declared.
Establishment of the Dajokan (Imperial Government).
- 1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo. Surrender of fiefs by feudal lords. Telegraphic communications opened.
- 1870 Envoys sent to foreign countries. Social castes abolished.
- 1871 The country divided into 81 gubernatorial districts.
The people allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.
- 1872 Institution of the national school system.
Opening of the first railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.

THE WORLD

- 1862 Battle of Belgrade. Bismarck became Chancellor.
- 1863 Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation.
- 1864 International Red Cross Society founded.
End of the Taiping Rebellion.
The Danish War.
- 1865 End of the American Civil War.
- 1866 Atlantic Cable laid.
War between Prussia and Austria.
- 1867 North German Confederation. Franchise reform in Great Britain. In 1866 Gladstone, leader of the House of Commons, introduced a measure for franchise reform, and the bill passed Parliament by the cooperation of Disraeli.
- 1867-1918 The Ausgleich. The constitution splitted the dominion of the Hapsburgs into two states, the Austrian Empire and the kingdom of Hungary.
- 1867 Karl Marx's "Das Kapital" published. The first volume appeared in this year, but the second and third volumes were not published until after Marx's death.
- 1869 Suez Canal opened.
- 1870 Rome occupied by Italian troops. Unification of Italy completed.
- 1871 German Empire proclaimed at Versailles.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

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JAPAN

- 1873 Adoption of the solar calendar.
Institution of the conscription
system for national defense.
Controversy over Korean affairs.
- 1874 Expedition to Formosa.
Request for opening the national
assembly.
- 1875 Karafuto exchanged for the
Kuriles.
The first gubernatorial conference
convened.
- 1877 The South-Western Civil War, or
rebellion of Takamori Saigo.
- 1878-1890 Rapid influx of things and
ideas from Europe; Rokumei-kan
period.
- 1879 First opening of local assemblies.
- 1880 Promulgation of a new Penal
Code.
- 1881 Imperial Edict for the opening
of the national assembly.
- 1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for
the study of Western constitu-
tional governments.
- 1883 Establishment of the Bank of
Japan.
- 1885 Institution of the Cabinet.
- 1886 Japan becomes a member of the
International Red Cross Society.
- 1889 Proclamation of the Constitution
of the Great Empire of Japan,
Feb. 11.
- 1890 The First Session of the Imperial
Diet convened in November.
The Imperial Rescript on Educa-
tion issued.
Institution of the system of law
courts.
- 1891 Russian Crown Prince injured at
Otsu.
- 1892 First general election.
- 1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.
- 1894-1895 Sino-Japanese War.
- 1895 Shimonoseki Peace Treaty, April.
Three Powers' Intervention and
return of the Liaotung Peninsula
to China.
- 1896 Taiwan ceded to Japan.
- 1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.
- 1899 Promulgation of the Commercial
Law.

THE WORLD

- 1874 The International Postal Union.
- 1875 Telephone invented by Alexander
Graham Bell.
The Trade Union Act issued. Gave
the British working classes the
full right of combination.
Formation of the third Republic
of France.
- 1876 Conclusion of Anglo-Chinese Trea-
ty.
Revolution of Mexico.
- 1877 Queen Victoria assumes the title,
Empress of India.
- 1882 Tripartite Alliance among Ger-
many, Austria and Italy.
- 1883 Indo-China made a protectorate of
France.
- 1886 Burma appropriated by Great Bri-
tain.
- 1891 Alliance between France and Rus-
sia.
- 1894 Rebellion of the Philippines
against the Spanish government.
- 1897 Invention of wireless telegraphy
by Guglielmo Marconi.
- 1898 Spanish-American war. The Phi-
lippines made a territory of the
United States.
- 1900 Boxer Uprising in China.

JAPAN

- 1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War.
- 1905 Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September.
Chosen becomes Japan's protectorate, November.
- 1908 "Gentlemen's" Agreement between the United States and Japan.
- 1910 Annexation of Chosen.
- 1911 Revision of Treaties with the United States, Great Britain and other Western countries on equal footing.
- 1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.

Taisho Era

(1912-1926 A.D.)

- 1912 Accession of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
- 1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.
- 1915 New Treaty with China.
- 1918 Rice Riots.
- 1919 The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
Japan joins the League of Nations.
- 1921 The Crown Prince becomes Regent.
- 1921-1922 The Washington Conferences. Ended the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.
- 1924 Fishery Treaty with the U.S.S.R.
- 1925 Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).
- 1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.

Showa Era

(1926—A.D.)

- 1926 Accession of the present Emperor, December 25.

THE WORLD

- 1903 Mukden in Manchuria occupied by the Russians.
Airplane invented by S. P. Langley.
- 1905 Boycott of American goods by the Chinese.
- 1906 Prohibition of opium in China.
- 1910 Organization of the Union of South Africa.
- 1912 Downfall of the Manchu Dynasty and birth of the Republic of China.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
- 1914 Panama Canal completed.
- 1917 The Russian Revolution and establishment of Bolshevism in Russia.
- 1919 Peace Conference at Versailles.
- 1920 First meeting of the League of Nations.
- 1922 Italian Cabinet formed by Benito Mussolini.
- 1923 Appearance of Adolf Hitler.
- 1924 Enforcement of the Federal Immigration Law. Practically prohibited the immigration of the Japanese into the United States.
- 1925 The Nine-Power Treaty.
The Locarno Treaty.

JAPAN

- 1927 A panic. Several banks closed.
- 1928 First general election under the Universal Suffrage Law.
- 1930 The London Naval Disarmament Conference.
- 1931 The Manchurian Incident, September 18.
- 1932 The Shanghai Affair. Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1. The "May 15 Affair." Prime Minister Tsuyoshi Inukai assassinated.
- 1933 Japan quits the League of Nations, March. The World Economic Conference at London.
- 1934 Manchoukuo becomes an Empire with Kangte (Pu yi) as first Emperor, March 1. Japanese Government notifies the U.S. Government its intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.
- 1936 Japan quits the London Naval Understanding of 1930. The "February 26 Affair." Three political dignitaries assassinated.
- 1937 The China Affair, July 7. Occupation of Shanghai by the Japanese forces, November 10. Fall of Nanking, December 13. The Kuomintang Government removed to Hankow.
- 1938 Conclusion of the new Japanese-Dutch commercial agreement, Feb. 2.
- Changkufeng Affair, July 12. Beginning of fierce border disputes between Russia and Manchoukuo. Truce at Changkufeng, Aug. 11.

THE WORLD

- 1928 Rise of anti-Japanese movement in China.
- 1929 Kellogg Anti-war Pact. Around the world flight of the German airship "Zeppelin."
- 1930 Anti-British movement. Gandhi made prisoner.
- 1932 The Litton Report published.
- 1933 Withdrawal of Germany from the League of Nations.
- 1934 North Manchuria Railway transferred to Manchoukuo by the U.S.S.R. Adolf Hitler made Führer and Chancellor of Germany. Italo-Abyssinian hostilities.
- 1935 London naval conference of five Powers.
- 1936 Anti-Comintern Agreement concluded between Germany and Japan. Spanish Civil War spreads over the entire country.
- 1937 The Nine-Power Conference at Brussels. Italy joins the Anti-Comintern Agreement, Nov. 6. The Kuomintang Government removed to Chungking, Nov. 16. Withdrawal of Italy from the League of Nations, Dec. 11. The Provisional Government of the Republic of China established in Peking, Dec. 14.
- 1938 The National Government of Spain founded by General Franco, Jan. 31. The Anschluss of Austria proclaimed by Reichsführer Hitler, March 13. The Renovation Government of the Republic of China founded at Nanking, March 28.
- Visit of the British Prime Minister Chamberlain to Germany to meet Reichsführer Hitler on the Czech situation, Sept. 15.

JAPAN

Japan announces the withdrawal of its cooperation with all committees of the League of Nations, Oct. 3.

Fall of Canton, Oct. 21.

Hankow, Wuchang and Hanyang completely reduced by Japanese forces, Oct. 27.

Japanese Government issues a statement on Japan's future policy for the settlement of the China Affair, Nov. 3.

Cultural agreement between Japan and Germany, Nov. 25.

The China Affairs Board created for realizing a new order in East Asia, Dec. 16.

Konoe Statement, Dec. 22. Prime Minister Konoe publishes a statement on the fundamental Japanese policies to readjust relations between China and Japan.

1939 Change of the Japanese Cabinet from Konoe to Hiranuma, Jan. 5.

Hainan Island surprised by the forcible landing of Japanese forces, Feb. 10.

Cultural Agreement between Italy and Japan, March 23.
Spratley Islands put under jurisdiction of Taiwan Government-General, March 30.

Revised Young Men's School Ordinance enforced, April 19.

Blockade of the Foreign Concessions in Tientsin by the Japanese Army, June 14.

Swatow occupied by Japanese forces, June 21.

THE WORLD

Four-Power Conference at Munich, Sept. 30. Settled the Czech problem.

Anglo-Italian protocol becomes effective. Great Britain formally recognizes the Italian annexation of Abyssinia, Nov. 16.

Cultural agreement between Germany and Italy, Nov. 23.
Anglo-French conversation in Paris, Nov. 24.

Italy enters the London Treaty, Dec. 2.

Franco - German non-aggression pact, Dec. 6.

Wang Ching-wei, Vice-President of the Kuomintang and Chairman of the National Administrative Advisory Council leaves Chungking, Dec. 18.

Wang Ching-wei issues a peace statement at Hanoi, Dec. 30.

1939 Barcelona falls into the hands of the Franco forces, Jan. 26.

Franco Government of Spain recognized by Great Britain and France, Feb. 27.

Czech made a protectorate of Germany, March 15.

Slovakia made a protectorate of Germany, March 16.

Treaty of mutual assistance between Great Britain and Poland, April 5.

Albania annexed by Italy, April 13.

Alliance of Germany and Italy, May 22.

Collision between German and Polish frontier guards reported, June 15.

JAPAN

1839

Air Battle between Japanese and Soviet war-planes above Lake Bulgnor, June 27.
Anglo-Japanese Parley in Tokyo, July 15.

Abrogation of the Japanese-American Commercial Treaty notified by the United States, July 26.

Trade agreement between Japan and Germany, July 29.

Anglo-Japanese Parley in Tokyo adjourned sine die, Aug. 14.

Blockade of the French Concession at Hankow lifted, Aug. 25.

Abe Cabinet organized, Aug. 30.

Japan's policy of non-involvement in European hostilities proclaimed, Sept. 4.

Truce between the Japanese and Russian forces, Sept. 15. Settled fierce battles at Nomonhan in Outer Mongolia.

Settlement of the Kulangsu (Amoy) issue, Oct. 17.

Treaty of Amity between Japan and Iran, Oct. 18.

Completion of the around the world flight of the airplane "Nippon", Oct. 20.

The yen linked to American dollar instead of Sterling, Oct. 25.

THE WORLD

1939

Siam assumes a new national name "Thailand," July 5.

Reversion of Danzig to Germany declared, July 21.

Polish-German frontier closed, Aug. 16.

Non-aggression Pact between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Aug. 23.

Treaty of mutual assistance between Great Britain and Poland, Aug. 25.

German demands on Poland, Aug. 28.

Break of the Anglo-German negotiations on Polish issue, Aug. 31.
Beginning of Polish-German war, Sept. 1.

The Second European War, Great Britain and France declare war against Germany, Sept. 3.

Partition of Poland between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Sept. 18.

Fall of Warsaw, Sept. 27.

Reichsführer Hitler proposes convocation of peace conference for Europe, Oct. 6.

The Congress Party of India adopts resolution demanding Indian Independence, Oct. 8.

British Prime Minister Chamberlain rejects Hitler's proposal for peace, Oct. 12.

Annexation of Polish Corridor and Upper Silesia by Germany declared, Oct. 19.

Aggravation of diplomatic relations between the Soviet Russia and Finland, Nov. 7-12.

British and French Governments reject the peace proposal of the Belgian King and the Queen of the Netherlands of November 7, Nov. 12.

JAPAN

Nanning in Kwangsi Province occupied by the Japanese forces, No. 24.

Provisional Fisheries Agreement between Japan and the U.S.S.R., Dec. 31.

1940 The Abé Cabinet resigns, Jan. 14.

The new cabinet under Admiral Mitumasa Yonai installed, Jan. 16.
The M.S. Asama Maru case, Jan. 21.

The expiration of the Japanese-American Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of 1911, Jan. 26.
The 75th Session of the Imperial Diet reopened, to hear the addresses of the new Cabinet members, Feb. 1.

H.I.M. the Emperor grants a special rescript on the 2600th Empire Anniversary Day, Feb. 11.

Foreign Minister Arita notifies the diplomatic representatives of Germany, the Netherlands, Great Britain and France, of Japan's policy of non-involvement in the war and to resist any kind of change in the status of the Dutch East Indies, May 11.

THE WORLD

Collision of Soviet and Finnish troops, Nov. 26.

The Soviet Russia declares war against Finland, Nov. 29. War begun on the following day.
The League of Nations expels the U.S.S.R., Dec. 14.

1940 President Roosevelt enunciates the non-involvement policy in his message to Congress, Jan. 3.

Conclusion of the new commercial treaty between Germany and Russia made public, Feb. 12.

The three North European States announce neutrality, Feb. 25.

The Soviet Government announces the conclusion of the Peace Treaty with Finland, March 13.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet at the Brenner Pass, March 18.

The Central Government of the Republic of China re-established at Nanking under the leadership of Wang Ching-wel, March 30.

German forces make sudden landing at five ports in Norway and occupy Oslo, and, advancing into Denmark, occupy Copenhagen, April 9.

Conclusion of the Commercial Treaty between Rumania and Germany, April 20.

German forces defeat British forces in the battles in central Norway, April 25.

German forces on land, sea and in the air, effect blitzkrieg simultaneously on Luxembourg, Belgium and the Netherlands, crossing over the frontiers early in the morning of May 10.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

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1940

JAPAN

On the eve of the 35th anniversary of Navy Day (the day of the Battle of the Japan Sea), Navy Minister Yoshida declares that the era of supremacy on the Pacific is being unfolded, May 26.

Prince Konoé, President of the Privy Council, reveals his positive wishes for the formation of a new political structure, June 4.

The Treaty of Amity and Mutual Respect of Territories between Japan and Thailand signed at Tokyo, June 12.

The barricades around the foreign concession at Tientsin removed after a period of 372 days, June 20.

Emperor Kangte of Manchoukuo arrives in Tokyo to congratulate the Japanese Imperial Family on the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, June 26.

Manufacture and sale of luxury articles prohibited with a period of grace, July 7.

The Yonai Cabinet resigns, July 16.

The Anglo-Japanese understanding, halting British supplies to the Chiang regime over the Burma road, for a period of 3 months beginning July 18, reached, July 17.

Prince Konoé again installed as Premier, July 22.

1940

THE WORLD

British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain resigns on May 10, and Winston Churchill completes the formation of the new War Cabinet on May 12.

German forces enter The Hague, and the Dutch armies surrender, May 15.

German forces enter Brussels, while other German armies enter France, breaking through the Maginot Line at Sedan, May 17. German vanguards reach the French coast of Dover, and cut the Allied forces into two, May 21. The Belgian King Leopold III orders his armies to suspend hostilities against the Germans, May 28.

Italy's entry into the European War, June 10.

Norwegian King orders his troops to suspend hostilities against the German forces, June 10.

German forces enter Paris, and French armies begin to withdraw from the whole length of the Maginot Line, June 14.

French army's surrender to Germany, June 17.

Truce Agreement between Germany and France at Compiègne, June 22.

Truce Agreement between Italy and France, ending German and Italian military operations against France, June 24.

Marshal Pétain assumes the position of the Head of France in accordance with the new constitution adopted after the peace between Germany and France, July 12.

Chancellor Hitler suggests peace between Great Britain and Germany and Italy as his final proposal, in his speech at the Reichstag, July 19.

British Foreign Secretary Halifax rejects Hitler's proposal for peace, in his radio speech, July 22.

JAPAN

1940

The Seiyukai Party dissolved after 40 years of its history, before the national movement for the formation of a new political structure, July 30.

The Minseitō Party dissolved, marking an end to the party system in Japan, Aug. 15.

Ichizō Kobayashi, Commerce and Industry Minister, special envoy to the Dutch East Indies, leaves Tokyo for the D.E.I., Aug. 30.

Christian churches in Japan agree to fuse together, ending the 70-year history of dependency on foreign missions and denominationalism, Sept. 2.

H.I.H. Prince Nagahisa Kitashirakawa, staff officer stationed at a point in Mongolia fatally injured in a warplane accident, Sept. 4.

The new national structure preparatory committee ends deliberations with basic outlines completed and deciding upon the name of the central association of the movement as "Taisei Yokusan Kai" (Imperial Rule Assistance Association), Sept. 17.

Japanese troops enter North French Indo-China in peace in accordance with the Japanese-French understanding, Sept. 23.

The Triple Alliance among Japan, German and Italy signed at the Führer's official residence in Berlin at 1:15 p.m. (8:15, Japan time); H.M. the Emperor grants a special edict to his subjects on the occasion, Sept. 27.

The inaugural meeting of Taisei Yokusan Kai held at the Premier's official residence, Oct. 12.

THE WORLD

1940

The Second Pan-American Council ends with satisfactory results, culminating in the "Havana Declaration" on the joint defense of American countries, July 30.

German air forces successively bomb important places in England, including London, Aug. 10-27.

Beginning of indiscriminate bombing of London by German air forces, Sept. 7.

The Japan-Brazil cultural pact signed at Rio de Janeiro, Sept. 23.

President Roosevelt signs a proclamation prohibiting the export of scrap iron, steel and other iron materials to other than the western hemisphere and England, after Oct. 16, Sept. 26.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet for the second time at the Brenner Pass, Oct. 4.

The U.S. State Department orders all Americans not engaged in pressing business in Japan, China, Manchoukuo, French Indo-China and Hongkong to evacuate for home, Oct. 8.

President Roosevelt announces the American determination to fight the triple alliance, Oct. 12.

Gandhi comes again to the forefront of the Indian independence movement, Oct. 15.

Britain re-opens the Burma route, Oct. 18.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

109

JAPAN

The formal celebration and banquet in commemoration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire held in the pavillion specially built for the purpose on the Imperial Palace grounds, Tokyo, in the presence of Their Majesties the Emperor and the Empress, Nov. 10, 11. Prince Kimmochi Salonji passes away at Okitsu, Shizuoka prefecture, ending a long life of 92 years and marking the end of the consuetudinary system of Genro, Nov. 24.

Conclusion of the Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China, Nov. 30.

Kenkichi Yoshizawa, special envoy to the Dutch East Indies leaves Tokyo for Batavia, to resume the economic negotiations begun by Ichizo Kobayashi, Dec. 11.

The curtain on the 3-day preliminary session of the Central Co-operative Council of the Taisei Yokusan Kai rises, Nobumasa Suetsugu taking the chair, Dec. 16.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet convened, Dec. 24.

1941 Vichy and Bangkok formally accept Japan's offer of mediation in the border dispute between French Indo-China and Thailand, Jan. 23.

Dr. Chu Min-yl, first Ambassador of the new National Government of Nanking to Japan, arrives in Tokyo, Feb. 5.

The Thailand-French Indo-China peace conference opens at the Premier's official residence, Feb. 7.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet adjourns, completing all business four weeks earlier than usual, March 1.

Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka leaves Tokyo on his trip to Germany and Italy, March 12.

THE WORLD

Beginning of the Greco-Italian war, Oct. 28.

President Roosevelt wins the presidential campaign over Wendell Willkie, to continuously assume the position for a third term, which is unprecedented in the history of the United States, Nov. 6.

Australia sends her first Minister, Sir John Greig Latham, to Tokyo, Dec. 20.

President Roosevelt addresses American citizens and the world on the necessity of the greatest and speediest completion of national defense and of aiding Great Britain by all means, short of war, taking the Triple Alliance into consideration, Dec. 29.

Henry Bergson, French philosopher, dies in Paris.

1941 President Roosevelt, at the opening of the 77th session of Congress, re-underlines the peril of a totalitarian victory and the need of making America an arsenal for the so-called Democracies, Jan. 6.

The lower house of Congress passes the Lend-Lease Bill for aiding Britain, Feb. 8.

Germany reported to have handed an ultimatum to Greece, March 2.

Conclusion of the protocol between Thailand and French Indo-China concerning the settlement of the border dispute, by the mediation of Japan, March 11.

JAPAN

1941

Matsuoka meets Hitler in Berlin, March 27.

The primary educational system reformed, the old name for the primary school "Sho Gakko" being changed to "Kokumin Gakko" (National School), April 1.

Foreign Minister Matsuoka and Premier Mussolini confer in Rome, April 1.

The Japanese office at Geneva formally closed, April 2.

Signing of the Neutrality Pact between Japan and the U.S.S.R. in Moscow, April 13.

Foreign Minister Matsuoka returns to Tokyo, April 22.

Conclusion of the two pacts between Japan and France, i.e. the Convention of Establishment and Navigation and the Agreement concerning Customs Tariff, Trade and Method of Payment, both relating to economic relations between Japan and French Indo-China, May 6.

The National Defense Security Law enforced, May 10.

Japanese forces defeat three Chinese divisions, the 7th, 12th and 34th, commanded by General Tang Hual-yuan, in the area east of Sia-hsien, Shansi province, killing the General, May 12.

Captain H. Hirade, of the Naval Information Bureau, declares that the Japanese Navy has completed defense measures in Western Pacific areas to safeguard Japan from any attack from the sea, in the evening of the Navy Day, May 27.

Japan formally recognizes Croatia which declared independence on April 10, June 7.

Conclusion of the Commercial pact and the Agreement concerning Trade and Method of Payment, between Japan and the U.S.S.R., June 11.

THE WORLD

1941

Chancellor Hitler issues orders to German forces to open a simultaneous attack on Yugoslavia and Greece, April 6.

German forces enter Belgrade, April 13.

German and Italian forces press British forces back to the frontier of Egypt at the Libyan front, April 13.

Yugoslavia subjugated by Germany, April 18.

Greek forces surrender to German and Italian forces, April 23.

Conclusion of the Commercial Treaty between Germany and Turkey, April 26.

German forces occupy Athens, April 27.

Iraq declares war against Britain, May 1.

Josef Stalin, Secretary General of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, concurrently appointed President of Council of People's Commissars, May 6.

The Hood (42,000 tons) of the British Navy sunk by the Bismark (35,000 tons) of the German Navy, off the coast of Greenland, May 24.

The Bismark pursued for 4 days by British battleships, sunk off Brest, France, May 27.

Armistice between Great Britain and Iraq, May 31.

Complete occupation of Crete Island by German forces, June 1.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet at the Brenner Pass, June 2.

JAPAN

1941

The first Central Cooperative Council of the Taisei Yokusan Kai held for 5 days, participated in by 106 representatives of local councils and 106 representatives of various circles, June 16-20.

President Wang Ching-wei, head of the Nanking Government, arrives in Tokyo to express thanks to the Japanese nation, June 17.

The economic parley between Japan and the Dutch East Indies breaks up without achieving the desired results, and Yoshizawa, the Japanese envoy, is called back, June 17.

The Government comes to a definite decision on the Japanese policy concerning the new development of war between Germany and Russia, at the special meeting in the presence of H.M. the Emperor in the morning of July 2.

The Kan-mon Tunnel which connects the Main Island and Kyushu with rail under the sea bottom, cut through on July 10.

The second Konoe Cabinet tenders resignation to the Throne, July 16.

Prince Konoe organizes his third cabinet by the Imperial Order, July 18.

In answer to the freezing of Japanese capital and properties by American and other countries, the Japanese Government publishes counter measures to be enforced from July 28, July 26.

The Joint Defense Protocol between Japan and France concerning the protection of French Indo-China concluded, and Japanese forces landed on Saigon, July 29.

THE WORLD

1941

British forces advance into Syria, June 8.

President Roosevelt issues order

to freeze the assets of European countries held in the U.S., June 14.

Conclusion of the Amity Treaty between Germany and Turkey, June 18.

Collision of German and Russian troops at 3 a.m. June 22.

Germany and Italy declare war against the U.S.S.R. June 22.

The Central Government of the Chinese Republic at Nanking formally recognized by Germany, Italy, Rumania, Slovakia and Croatia, July 1.

Stalin makes announcement on Russian determination to effectively resist German forces, requiring the people to rally to the cause of saving the country from the imminent danger, July 3.

Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. come to an understanding concerning their mutual aid in their war against Germany, July 12.

German forces occupy Smolensk July 16.

The U.S.A. Government issues orders to "freeze" the Japanese assets held in that country, together with such Chinese assets, and British and Canadian governments take similar steps, to become effective from July 26, July 25.

The British Government notifies Japan of their intention to abrogate the Commerce and Navigation Treaty between Great Britain and Japan of 1911 and the Commercial treaties between Japan and India and Burma of 1934 and 1937, July 26.

Dutch East Indies adopt similar economic measures with America concerning the transactions with Japan, July 28.

JAPAN

1941

Japan raises her legation at Bangkok to an embassy, appointing Teiji Tsubokami first Ambassador to Thailand, August 16.

The third Konoe Cabinet resigns en bloc, October 16.

The new Cabinet with General Hideki Tojo as Prime Minister is installed, October 18.

Announcement is made concerning the despatch of Ambassador Saburo Kurusu to the United States for the purpose of assisting Ambassador Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura, November 5.

The 77th session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo on November 15 and closed on the 21st.

United States Secretary of State Cordell Hull hands a document concerning the adjustment of the Japanese-American relations to Ambassadors Nomura and Kurusu, which eventually brought the long conversations between them to a sad ending, November 26.

Japan declares war against the United States and the British Empire on December 8, and Imperial forces attack Hawaii, Singapore, Hong Kong, the Philippines and other places.

The British warships Prince of Wales and Repulse are sunk by the Imperial Naval Air Forces off the eastern coasts of the Malay Peninsula, December 10.

THE WORLD

1941

President Roosevelt and Premier Churchill meet on board the British War-ship Prince of Wales off the Canadian coast on August 10-12 or thereabout, and as the result, a joint announcement consisting of 8 articles on August 14.

The Government-General of Malaya recalls all men in the armed services to their posts, December 6.

The Hong Kong Government issues mobilization orders, while General Douglas MacArthur, Commander of the American and Filipino forces in Manila is reported to make an important announcement, December 7.

The United States, Britain, Australia, Canada, the Netherlands East Indies, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Chungking and Cuba declare war on Japan, December 8.

S. A. Lozovsky, Vice-Foreign Commissar of the U.S.S.R. reaffirms Soviet neutrality in relation to the Greater East Asia War, December 9.

JAPAN

Commencement of air raids on North Australia, December 11.

The 78th Session of the Imperial Diet is convoked with the object of preparing the country for the successful execution of the war, December 15.

The Alliance Pact between Japan and Thailand is signed at Bangkok, December 21.

The 79th Session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo, December 24.

Hong Kong, British Crown Colony, is occupied by the Imperial forces, December 25.

1942

Manila is brought under the Imperial Military Administration by the agreement reached between the Imperial Army Headquarters in the Philippines and J. B. Vargas, new Mayor of Manila, January 7.

The Government-General of the Hong Kong Occupied Area is established, Lieutenant-General Rensuke Isogai being appointed its first Governor-General, January 19.

Singapore falls into the hands of the Imperial Army under the command of Lieutenant-General Tomoyuki Yamashita, on February 15 when British Commander Robert Percival surrenders unconditionally.

Malaya is brought under the Imperial Military Administration and Singapore is renamed as "Shonan" (literally meaning "Bright South"), February 17.

THE WORLD

Germany and Italy decide to wage war in concert with Japan against the United States and the British Empire and an agreement to this effect is signed in Berlin by representatives of the three Powers, December 11.

British Prime Minister Winston Churchill arrives in Washington by plane and enters into a conference with President Roosevelt, December 22.

1942

The United States, Britain, the Soviet Union, Chungking, Canada and other anti-Axis countries sign an agreement for no separate peace with the Axis Powers without mutual consultation, January 2.

All the anti-Axis countries mentioned above are reported to have agreed to establish a supreme unified command in the southwestern Pacific under General Archibald Wavell, Commander of the British Forces in India, January 3.

The Pan-American Foreign Ministers' Conference at Rio de Janeiro approves a recommendation to sever diplomatic relations with the Axis Powers, January 23. Thailand declares war against the United States and the British Empire, January 25.

German and Italian forces begin offensive actions in the Libya field, January 25.

Benghazi, Libya, falls into the hands of German and Italian forces, January 29.

An anti-Axis Pacific Military Conference is held in London, in which Britain, Netherlands, Australia and New Zealand have been represented, February 10.

JAPAN

1942

Sea battles off Batavia and Sumatra engaged between the Imperial Naval forces and the combined fleets of American, British and Australian navies on February 27 and 28 end with a complete victory of the Imperial Navy, which practically annihilated the enemy naval forces in the East Indian seas.

Batavia is occupied by the Imperial Army under the command of Lieutenant-General Shojiro Iida, March 8.

Enemy troops in Java surrender unconditionally, March 9.

The 79th Session of the Imperial Diet is closed marking an epochal period in the annals of Japan and East Asia as the first regular session held in the midst of the Greater East Asia War, March 26. Sumatra is completely subjugated, March 27.

Colombo, Ceylon, is attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces, April 5.

1942

THE WORLD

The British Government declares that it will probe closely into the question of granting a new constitution to India based on the reports to be made by Stafford Cripps, Lord Privy Seal, who will shortly be despatched to India, March 11.

German forces commence active movements again in Russia, bombarding Leningrad, March 15.

Cripps arrives at New Delhi, capital of British India, March 22.

Mahatma Gandhi voices bitter opposition to Britain's plan to carry out a "scorched earth" policy in defense of India, declaring that any British plot or intrigue will be met by death-defying resistance, March 23.

The British Government proposes to give a full dominion status to India soon after the conclusion of the war, March 24.

Mahatma Gandhi and Stafford Cripps, British special envoy to India, meets at New Delhi, March 27.

The National Government of China promulgates the revised Temporary Currency Adjustment Law which provides for the suspension of the linking system at par between the Central Reserve Bank of China notes and the Chungking currency on and after April 1, 1942, March 30.

The working committee of the Congress Party of India decides to reject flatly Cripps's offer, on the ground that the British proposal does not grant India full authority to wage war on its own interest, March 31.

The Congress Party and all India Muslim League refuse the new British proposal made through Cripps, April 10.

JAPAN

1942

Premier Tojo states that the best opportunity for the establishment of an Independent India has at last arrived, April 6.

The Imperial Navy storms Trincomalee in Ceylon, sinking the British aircraft-carrier *Hermes* and other war vessels, April 9.

The Bataan Peninsula is completely cleared of enemy forces by the Imperial Army, April 13.

Tokyo and other cities are attacked for the first time by a small number of American warplanes, whose blind bombing, on a windless, clear day, causing but a slight damage on private houses and factories, April 18.

The Imperial Naval Air Forces shoot down 66 enemy planes and destroy 2 more planes in their attacks on Port Moresby and Port Darwin, April 1-20. Air attacks on these ports have been repeated since December.

The 21st general election of the members of the House of Representatives is held throughout the country and results in the victory of those candidates who were recommended by the National Service Political Council, winning 381 seats out of the total 466 seats, April 30.

The Imperial Army reduces Bhamo, North Burma, May 3. Corregidor, the fortress island in Manila Bay, is completely reduced by the Imperial Forces, May 7, practically ending the battle between the Imperial Forces and American troops in the Philippines.

The Coral Sea Battle, May 7. The Imperial Navy defeats a powerful American-British Combined Fleets. On the following day two U.S. aircraft-carriers were sent to the bottom.

The 80th Session of the Imperial Diet is convoked in Tokyo on May 25 and closes on May 29.

H.I.H. Prince Takamatsu leaves Tokyo for Hsinking to tender the nation's felicitations to H.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo on the 10th anniversary of its founding, May 26.

THE WORLD

1942

Pierre Laval is installed the Premier of the French Government at Vichy April 14.

The Reichstag approves the proposal to give absolute power concerning administration, justice, legislation and others to Chancellor Adolf Hitler, April 26.

Chancellor Adolf Hitler and Premier Benito Mussolini hold conference, April 29.

Madagascar is attacked by British forces and about 20,000 British soldiers are reported to have landed on the Island at Diego, May 5.

President Wang Ching-wei of China arrives at Hsinking to further consolidate the amicable bond binding China and Manchoukuo, May 7.

Powerful German forces commence fierce attacks on South Russia, the first scene of battle being the Kerch peninsula, May 8. The Alliance Treaty between Britain and Soviet Russia is signed at London, May 26.

The National Government of China decides to eliminate the Chungking currency from Central China, May 27.

1942

General Kuniaki Koiso is appointed Governor-General of Chosen in succession to General Jiro Minami, May 29.

Burma is placed under the Imperial Military Administration, June 4.

Aleutian Islands, including Dutch Harbor are attacked by the Imperial Navy, and a number of the islands are occupied, June 4-7.

Battle off Midway Island, in which the Imperial Navy frustrated the attempt of the American Navy to launch an air attack on Japanese Islands, sending two American carriers to the bottom, June 5.

1942

M. K. Gandhi, P. J. Nehru and M. A. K. Azad, the three leaders of the Congress Party meet at Warda and their opinions completely agree on the program of expelling British political power from India, June 16.

Tobruk, Libya, is occupied by German and Italian forces, June 21.

Matruh, Egypt, is reduced by German and Italian forces, June 29.

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CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

The Constitution

The fundamental source of all laws and ordinances, and of the administrative system is the Constitution of the Japanese Empire. This document, however, contains simply an outline of the principles involved, and there are many constitutional laws, written and unwritten, which condition the functioning of State organs.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on February 11, 1889, and is composed of 7 chapters and 76 articles (given in full in Appendix). It was accompanied by an Imperial Declaration, the essence of which has the same legal force as the articles of the Constitution. In the declaration, the Emperor Meiji made four points clear: first, that the purpose of the establishment of the Constitution is to promote the welfare of his subjects and sustain the progress of the nation; secondly, that the monarchy of Japan is unchanged in form and identical with what it has always been, in the principles of the harmonious rule of sovereign and subjects and of constitutional and responsible government; thirdly, the proper means for revision of the Constitution, and that it limits not only the lawful actions of the subjects, but also the powers of the sovereign; and fourthly, the date of its coming into effect, that of the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet on November 25, 1890.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Tenno (Emperor) according to the first article of the Constitution, "the Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The representatives of the people in the Imperial Diet participate in the rule of the State, but have no sovereign power. Sovereignty belongs entirely to the Emperor and all power is exercised in his name only. The actions of all governmental organs are regulated by the Constitution and

the collateral laws and usages above mentioned, and all the organs are coordinated by the central government.

The People

All Japanese subjects are registered with the census authorities according to the Law of Nationality, and are recognized as the constituency of the State and protected by the State laws. They are required to submit completely to the control and orders of the State. By the terms of the Constitution they may, subject to qualifications determined by law or ordinance, be appointed to civil or military offices equally and may fill any other public positions. They are liable to service in the army and navy and to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law.

Japanese subjects are guaranteed liberty of abode and of changing the same. Within the limits of law, they shall not be arrested, detained, tried or punished unless according to law, shall not be deprived of their right of being tried by the judges determined by law, except in cases provided for by law, their houses shall not be entered or searched without their consent, the secrecy of their letters shall remain inviolate, and their right of property shall remain inviolate. They enjoy freedom of religious belief, speech, writing, publication, public meeting and association; and they may present petitions to the authorities in the forms provided by law.

The feudal social castes were abolished at the Meiji Restoration, and the class names of Kazoku (Peers), Shizoku (Samurai class), and Héimin (Common people) were given according to family standing and lineage. The two last are purely social and represent no political distinction. Peerage carries with it the privilege of membership of the Upper House of the Legislature (Kizokuin, House of Peers), subject to certain conditions. In 1884 the peerage was divided into the following five ranks: Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount, and Baron. The class name of "Héimin" has fallen into complete disuse, while that of "Shizoku" is being rapidly forgotten.

Tenno, The Emperor

The Japanese Throne is hereditary. The custom was established with the foundation of the State 2,600 years ago, and had been a constitutional unwritten law till it was clearly stated in the Imperial House Law by order of the Emperor Meiji. According to this law the Japanese Throne "shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors" (Art. 1).

The Three Sacred Treasures The Imperial heir ascends the Throne and is invested with the three Sacred Treasures, the Mirror, the Jewel, and the Sword, of the Imperial Ancestors, as the symbol of sovereignty or Imperial Regalia, upon the demise of the Emperor and in no other circumstances. Upon the accession, a new era is inaugurated and the name of the era remains unchanged during the whole reign of the Emperor.

The Regency As abdication of the Throne is impossible, Art. 19 of the Law provides for a regency to be instituted when the Emperor is a minor (the Tenno, Kotalshi and Kotalson attain majority at 18 years of age), or when he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing. In the second case the advice of the Imperial Family Council and of the Privy Council is required. (See Appendix, The Imperial House Law, Chapter V.)

Imperial Prerogative According to the Constitution, the Japanese Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in himself all the rights of sovereignty. According to the provisions of the Imperial House Law, he is the head of the Imperial Family, and he carries out his function as such by the advice of the Minister of the Imperial Household without reference to the Diet. By hereditary custom he assumes the position of the Highest Priest of the national cult of Shinto and conducts august ceremonies in honor of the gods of heaven and earth and of the ancestral gods directly and in person. He is in supreme command of the Imperial Army and Navy and exercises this power with the help of special organs established to that end and independently of the advice of State ministers. Lastly, he has power to confer all titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honor.

The Emperor uses these sovereign powers with the assistance of various

organs. In exercising legislative power he gets the consent of the Imperial Diet as a rule, although Imperial ordinances are often issued independent of the Diet, (under Article 9 of the Constitution), and for the overseas territories the exercise of ordinance power is unlimited by the Constitution. In the administration of State affairs he is advised by the Ministers of State, and in certain special cases by the Genro (Elder Statesmen), the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, and the Privy Council. In Military administration he is advised by the chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs, while in the exercise of judicial power, he is represented by the Courts of Law.

"The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" (Constitution, Art. 3). He cannot be removed from the Throne for any reason, and he is not to be held responsible for over-stepping the limitations of law in the exercise of his sovereignty. All responsibility for the exercise of his sovereignty must be assumed by the Ministers of State and other organs. Thus, no criticism can be directed against the Emperor, but only against the instruments of his sovereignty. Laws are not to be applied to the Emperor as a principle, especially criminal laws, for no court of law can try the Emperor himself and he is not subject to any law.

The Cabinet

The Cabinet is composed of 14 State ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The 13 ministers are (1) the Minister for Foreign Affairs, (2) the Minister for Home Affairs, (3) the Minister of Finance, (4) the Minister of the Army, (5) the Minister of the Navy, (6) the Minister of Justice, (7) the Minister of Education, (8) the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, (9) the Minister of Commerce and Industry, (10) the Minister of Communications, (11) the Minister of Railways, (12) the Minister for Overseas Affairs and (13) the Minister of Welfare.

Though all the ministers are separately responsible to the Emperor for all the administrative work under their respective jurisdiction, they are united by the Prime Minister (Naikaku Sori Daijin), one of whose functions is to preserve unity among the State ministers.

Thus, each minister has a twofold function, first as a State minister and secondly as a ministerial executive head.

As a State minister he is an adviser to the Emperor in the exercise of his sovereign power over national administration, and for the advice given assumes a joint responsibility with his colleagues. As the head of a ministry his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his ministerial jurisdiction, for which the responsibility is his own. He is assisted by a vice-minister, a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the

Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows:

- (1) All legislative and budget bills.
- (2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.
- (3) Ordinances to be issued.
- (4) Disputes among the various Ministries regarding jurisdiction.
- (5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.
- (6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.
- (7) Appointment and removal of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

CHANGE OF CABINETS

(1885—1941)

I. ITO CABINET (First)

(Dec. 22, 1885—April 29, 1888)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito
Foreign	Kaoru Inoue
	Hirobumi Ito (Concurrent) (Sept. 1887)
	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Feb. 1888)
Home	Aritomo Yamagata
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata
Army	Iwao Ōyama
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo
	Iwao Ōyama (Concurrent) (July 1886)
	Tsukumichi Saigo (July 1887)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada
Education	Yurei Mori
Agriculture & Commerce	
	Tateki Tani
	Tsukumichi Saigo (Concurrent) (Mar. 1886)
	Aritomo Yamagata (Concurrent) (July 1886)
	Tateki Tani (June 1887)
	Hisamoto Hijikata (July 1887)
	Kiyotaka Kuroda (Sept. 1887)
Communications	Takeaki Enomoto

II. KURODA CABINET

(April 30, 1888—Dec. 23, 1889)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kiyotaka Kuroda
	Sanetomi Sanjo — Oct. 1889
Foreign	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Continued)
Home	Aritomo Yamagata (Continued)
	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent) (Dec. 1888)
	Aritomo Yamagata (Oct. 1889)
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata (Continued)
Army	Iwao Ōyama (Continued)
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada (Continued)
Education	Yurei Mori (Continued)
	Iwao Ōyama (Concurrent) (Feb. 1889)
	Takeaki Enomoto (Mar. 1889)
Agriculture & Commerce	Takeaki Enomoto (Concurrent)
	Shojiro Goto (March 1889)

Note: Pronounce "e" in Japanese names always é as in English "pet," whether in the beginning, in between or at the end of a name.

III. YAMAGATA CABINET (First)

(Dec. 24, 1889—May 5, 1891)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Aritomo Yamagata
Foreign	Shuzo Aoki
Home	Aritomo Yamagata (Concurrent)
	Tsukumichi Saigo (May 1890)
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata
Army	Iwao Oyama (Continued)
Navy	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
	Sukenori Kabayama (May 1890)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada (Continued)
	Takato Ōki (Dec. 1890)
Education	Takeaki Enomoto (Continued)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (May 1890)
Agriculture & Commerce	Michitoshi Iwamura
	Munemitsu Mutsu (May 1890)
Communications	Shojiro Goto

IV. MATSUKATA CABINET (First)

(May 6, 1891—Aug. 7, 1892)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Masayoshi Matsukata (Continued)
Foreign	Takeaki Enomoto
Home	Tsukumichi Saigo (Continued)
	Taneomi Fukushima (Mar. 1892)
	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent) (June 1892)
	Toshikama Kono (July 1892)
Finance	Masayoshi Matsukata (Concurrent)
Army	Iwao Oyama (Continued)
	Tomonosuke Takashima (June 1891)
Navy	Sukenori Kabayama (Continued)
Justice	Akiyoshi Yamada
	Fujimaro Tanaka (June 1891)
	Toshikama Kono (Concurrent, June 1892)

Portfolio	Name
Education	Akimasa Yoshikawa (Continued)
	Takato Ōki (June 1891)
Agriculture & Commerce	Munemitsu Mutsu (Continued)
	Toshikama Kono (Mar. 1892)
	Tsunetami Sano (July 1892)
Communications	Shojiro Goto (Continued)

V. ITO CABINET (Second)

(Aug. 8, 1892—Sept. 17, 1896)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito
	Kiyotaka Kuroda (Charge d'affaires ad interim, June 1896)
Foreign	Munemitsu Mutsu
	Kinmochi Saionji (June 1895)
	Munemitsu Mutsu (Apr. 1896)
	Kinmochi Saionji (Concurrent, May 1896)
Home	Kaoru Inoue
	Yasushi Nomura (Oct. 1894)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (Concurrent, Feb. 1896)
	Taisuke Itagaki (April 1896)
Finance	Kunitake Watanabe
	Masayoshi Matsukata (March 1895)
	Kunitake Watanabe (Concurrent, Aug. 1895)
	Kunitake Watanabe (Oct. 1895)
Army	Iwao Oyama
	Tsukumichi Saigo (Concurrent, Oct. 1894)
	Aritomo Yamagata (ad interim, March 1895)
	Iwao Oyama (May 1895)
Navy	Kagenori Nire
	Tsukumichi Saigo (Mar. 1893)
Justice	Aritomo Yamagata
	Hirobumi Ito (Concurrent, ad interim, Mar. 1893)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (March 1893)

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Education

Toshikama Kono
Tsuyoshi Inoue (March
1893)
Akimasa Yoshikawa
(Concurrent, Aug.
1894)
Kinmochi Saionji (Oct.
1894)

Agriculture & Commerce

Shojiro Goto
Takeaki Enomoto (Jan.
1894)

Communications

Kiyotaka Kuroda
Kunitake Watanabe
(March 1895)
Senichi Shirane (Oct.
1895)

Overseas Affairs

Tomonosuke Takashima
(April 1896)

VI. MATSUKATA CABINET (Second) (Sept. 18, 1896—Jan. 11, 1898)

Portfolio Premier

Name

Masayoshi Matsukata
Kiyotaka Kuroda
(Charge d'affaires ad
Interim, April 1897)
Masayoshi Matsukata
(June 1897)
Shigenobu Ōkuma
Tokujiro Nishi (Nov.
1897)

Foreign

Sukenori Kabayama
Masayoshi Matsukata
(Concurrent)
Tomonosuke Takashima
(Concurrent)

Home Finance

Tomonosuke Takashima
(Sept. 1897)
Tsukumichi Saigo (Con-
tinued)

Army

Keigo Kiyoura
Shigeaki Hachisuka
Arata Hamao (Nov.
1897)

Navy

Justice Education

Takeaki Enomoto (Con-
tinued)
Shigenobu Ōkuma (Con-
current, March 1897)
Nobumichi Yamada
(Nov. 1897)

Agriculture & Commerce

Communications Yasushi Nomura
Overseas Affairs Tomonosuke Takashima
(until Aug. 31, 1897
when the ministry
was abolished)

VII. ITO CABINET (Third) (Jan. 12, 1898—June 29, 1898)

Portfolio

Name

Premier Foreign

Hirobumi Ito
Tokujiro Nishi (Continu-
ed)

Home Finance Army Navy

Akimasa Yoshikawa
Kaoru Inoue
Taro Katsura
Tsukumichi Saigo (Con-
tinued)

Justice Education

Arasuke Sone
Kinmochi Saionji
Shoichi Toyama (April
1898)

Agriculture & Commerce

Miyoji Ito
Kentaro Kaneko (April
1898)

Communications Kencho Suematsu

VIII. ŌKUMA CABINET (First) (June 30—Nov. 7, 1898)

Portfolio

Name

Premier Foreign

Shigenobu Ōkuma
Shigenobu Ōkuma (Con-
current)

Home Finance Army

Taisuke Itagaki
Masahisa Matsuda
Taro Katsura (Continu-
ed)

Navy

Tsukumichi Saigo (Con-
tinued)

Justice Education

Gtetsu Daito
Yukio Ozaki
Tsuyoshi Inukai (Oct.
1898)

Agriculture & Commerce

Masami Ōishi

Communications Yuzo Hayashi

IX. YAMAGATA CABINET (Second) (Nov. 8, 1898—Oct. 18, 1899)

Portfolio

Name

Premier Foreign

Aritomo Yamagata
Shuzo Aoki

Home Finance

Tsukumichi Saigo
Masayoshi Matsukata
Taro Katsura (Continu-
ed)

Army

Gohei Yamamoto
Keigo Kiyoura
Sukenori Kabayama

Navy

Justice Education

Agriculture & Commerce

Arasuke Sone

Communications Akimasa Yoshikawa

X. ITO CABINET (Fourth)
(Oct. 19, 1890—June 1, 1901)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Hirobumi Ito
	Kinmochi Saionji (Charge d'affaires ad interim, Oct. 1900)
	Kinmochi Saionji (Con- current, May 1901)
Foreign	Takaakira Kato
Home	Kencho Suematsu
Finance	Kunitake Watanabe
	Kinmochi Saionji (Con- current, May 1901)
Army	Taro Katsura (Continu- ed)
	Gentaro Kodama (Dec. 1900)
Navy	Gonbel Yamamoto (Con- tinued)
Justice	Kentaro Kaneko
Education	Masahisa Matsuda
Agriculture & Commerce	Yuzo Mori
Communications	Toru Hoshi
	Takashi Hara (Dec. 1900)

XI. KATSURA CABINET (First)
(June 2, 1901—Jan. 6, 1906)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Taro Katsura
Foreign	Arasuke Sone (Concur- rent)
	Jutaro Komura (Sept. 1901)
	Taro Katsura (Concur- rent, July 1905)
	Jutaro Komura (Oct. 1905)
	Taro Katsura (Concur- rent, Nov. 1905)
Home	Tadakatsu Utsumi
	Gentaro Kodama (Con- current, July 1903)
	Taro Katsura (Concur- rent, Oct. 1903)
	Akimasa Yoshikawa (Feb. 1904)
	Keigo Kiyoura (Concur- rent, Sept. 1905)
Finance	Arasuke Sone
Army	Gentaro Kodama (Con- tinued)
	Masatake Terauchi (Mar. 1902)
Navy	Gonbel Yamamoto (Con- tinued)
Justice	Keigo Kiyoura

Portfolio	Name
	Takanao Hatano (July 1903)
Education	Dairoku Kikuchi
	Gentaro Kodama (Con- current, July 1903)
	Yuzuru Kubota (Sept. 1903)
	Taro Katsura (Concur- rent, Dec. 1905)
Agriculture & Commerce	Tosuke Hirata
	Keigo Kiyoura (July 1903)
Communications	Akimasa Yoshikawa
	Arasuke Sone (Concur- rent, July 1903)
	Kanetake Ōura (Sept. 1903)

XII. SAIONJI CABINET (First)
(Jan. 7, 1906—July 13, 1908)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kinmochi Saionji
Foreign	Takaakira Kato
	Kinmochi Saionji (Con- current, March 1906)
	Tadasu Hayashi (May 1906)
Home	Takashi Hara
Finance	Yoshiro Sakatani
	Masahisa Matsuda (Con- current, Jan. 1908)
	Masahisa Matsuda (Mar. 1908)
Army	Masatake Terauchi (Continued)
Navy	Makoto Saito
Justice	Masahisa Matsuda
	Sonpuku Senke (March 1908)
Education	Kinmochi Saionji (Con- current ad interim)
	Nobuaki Makino (Mar. 1906)
Agriculture & Commerce	Koki Matsuoka
Communications	Isaburo Yamagata
	Takashi Hara (Concur- rent, Jan. 1908)
	Masayasu Hotta (Mar. 1908)

XIII. KATSURA CABINET (Second)
(July 14, 1908—Aug. 29, 1911)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Taro Katsura
Foreign	Masatake Terauchi (Con- current)

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Portfolio	Name
Home Finance	Jutaro Komura (Aug. 1908)
Army	Tosuke Hirata
Navy	Taro Katsura (Concurrent)
Justice	Masatake Terauchi (Continued)
Education	Makoto Saito (Continued)
Agriculture & Commerce	Nagamoto Okabe
	Eitaro Komatsubara
	Kanetake Ōura
	Eitaro Komatsubara (Concurrent ad interim, March 1910)
	Kanetake Ōura (Sept. 1910)
	Communications Shimpei Goto

XIV. SAIONJI CABINET (Second) (Aug. 30, 1911—Dec. 20, 1912)

Portfolio	Name
Premier Foreign	Kinmochi Saionji
	Tadasu Hayashi
Home Finance	Yasuya Uchida (Oct. 1911)
Army	Takashi Hara
Navy	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Justice	Shinroku Ishimoto
Education	Yusaku Uehara (April 1912)
	Makoto Saito (Continued)
	Masahisa Matsuda
	Sumitaka Haseba
	Nobuaki Makino (Concurrent, Nov. 1912)
Agriculture & Commerce	Nobuaki Makino
Communications	Tadasu Hayashi

XV. KATSURA CABINET (Third) (Dec. 21, 1912—Feb. 19, 1913)

Portfolio	Name
Premier Foreign	Taro Katsura
	Taro Katsura (Concurrent)
Home Finance	Takaakira Kato (Jan. 1913)
Army	Kanetake Ōura
Navy	Reihiro Wakatsuki
Justice	Yasutsuna Kigoshi
Education	Makoto Saito (Continued)
	Itasu Matsumuro
	Kamon Shibata

Portfolio	Name
Agriculture & Commerce	Ren Nakakofji
Communications	Shimpei Goto

XVI. YAMAMOTO CABINET (First) (Feb. 20, 1913—April 15, 1914)

Portfolio	Name
Premier Foreign	Gonbei Yamamoto
Home Finance	Nobuaki Makino
Army	Takashi Hara
	Korekiyo Takahashi
	Yasutsuna Kigoshi (Continued)
	Sachihiko Kususe (June 1913)
Navy	Makoto Saito (Continued)
Justice	Masahisa Matsuda
	Yoshito Okuda (Nov. 1913)
Education	Yoshito Okuda
	Ikuzo Ooka (Mar. 1914)
Agriculture & Commerce	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Communications	Hajime Motoda

XVII. OKUMA CABINET (Second) (April 16, 1914—Oct. 8, 1916)

Portfolio	Name
Premier Foreign	Shigenobu Ōkuma
	Takaakira Kato
	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent, Aug. 1915)
Home	Kikujiro Ishii (Oct. 1915)
	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent)
	Kanetake Ōura (Jan. 1915)
	Shigenobu Ōkuma (Concurrent, July 1915)
	Kitokuro Ikki (August 1915)
Finance	Reihiro Wakatsuki
	Tokitoshi Takeomi (Aug. 1915)
Army	Ichinosuke Oka
	Kenichi Ōshima (Mar. 1916)
Navy	Rokuro Yashiro
	Tomosaburo Kato (Aug. 1915)
Justice	Yukio Ozaki
Education	Kitokuro Ikki
	Sanae Takata (Aug. 1915)

Portfolio	Name
Agriculture & Commerce	Kanetake Ōura Hironaka Kono (Jan. 1915)
Communications	Tokitoshi Taketomi Katsundo Minoura (Aug. 1915)

XVIII. TERAUCHI CABINET
(Oct. 9, 1916—Sept. 28, 1918)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Masatake Terauchi
Foreign	Masatake Terauchi (Concurrent) Ichiro Motono (Nov. 1916) Shimpei Goto (April 1918)
Home	Shimpei Goto Rentaro Mizuno (April 1918)
Finance	Masatake Terauchi (Concurrent) Kazue Shoda (Dec. 1916) Kenichi Ōshima
Army	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Justice	Itasu Matsumuro
Education	Ryohel Okada
Agriculture & Commerce	Ren Nakakoji
Communications	Kenjiro Den

XIX. HARA CABINET
(Sept. 29, 1918—Nov. 12, 1921)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Takashi Hara Yasuya Uchida (Concurrent, Nov. 1921)
Foreign	Yasuya Uchida
Home	Takejiro Tokonami
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi
Army	Giichi Tanaka Hanzo Yamanashi (June 1921)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Justice	Takashi Hara (Concurrent) Enkichi Ōki (May 1920) Tokugoro Nakabashi
Education	
Agriculture & Commerce	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Communications	Utarō Noda
Railways	Hajime Motoda (May 1920)

XX. TAKAHASHI CABINET
(Nov. 13, 1921—June 11, 1922)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Korekiyo Takahashi
Foreign	Yasuya Uchida (Continued)
Home	Takejiro Tokonami (Continued)
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent)
Army	Hanzo Yamanashi (Continued)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Continued)
Justice	Enkichi Ōki (Continued)
Education	Tokugoro Nakabashi (Continued)
Agriculture & Commerce	Tatsuo Yamamoto (Continued)
Communications	Utarō Noda (Continued)
Railways	Hajime Motoda (Continued)

XXI. KATO (Tomosaburo) CABINET
(June 12, 1922—Sept. 1, 1923)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Tomosaburo Kato Yasuya Uchida (Concurrent ad interim, Aug. 1923)
Foreign	Yasuya Uchida (Continued)
Home	Rentaro Mizuno
Finance	Ōtohiko Ichiki
Army	Hanzo Yamanashi (Continued)
Navy	Tomosaburo Kato (Concurrent) Takeshi Takarabe (May 1923)
Justice	Keijiro Okano
Education	Eikichi Kamata
Agriculture & Commerce	Kentaro Arai
Communications	Toshisada Maeda
Railways	Enkichi Ōki

XXII. YAMAMOTO CABINET (Second)
(Sept. 2, 1923—Jan. 6, 1924)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Gonbei Yamamoto
Foreign	Gonbei Yamamoto (Concurrent) Hikokichi Ijuin (Sept. 1923) Shimpei Goto
Home	

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Portfolio	Name
Finance	Junnosuke Inoue
Army	Gilchi Tanaka
Navy	Takeshi Takarabe (Con- tinued)
Justice	Kenjiro Den (Concur- rent)
Education	Kiichiro Hiranuma (Sept. 1923)
	Tsuyoshi Inukai (Con- current)
Agriculture & Commerce	Keijiro Okano (Sept. 1923)
Communications	Kenjiro Den
Railways	Keijiro Okano (Concur- rent, Dec. 1923)
	Tsuyoshi Inukai
	Kazutsugu Yamanouchi

XXIII. KIYOURA CABINET (Jan. 7—June 10, 1924)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Keigo Kiyoura
Foreign	Keishiro Matsui
Home	Rentaro Mizuno
Finance	Kazue Shota
Army	Kazushige Ugaki
Navy	Kakuchi Murakami
Justice	Kisaburo Suzuki
Education	Chiyuki Egi
Agriculture & Commerce	Toshisada Maeda
Communications	Yoshiro Fujimura
Railways	Kenjiro Komatsu

XXIV. KATO (Takaakira) CABINET (First) (June 11, 1924—Aug. 1, 1925)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Takaakira Kato
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara
Home	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Finance	Osachi Hamaguchi
Army	Kazushige Ugaki (Con- tinued)
Navy	Takeshi Takarabe
Justice	Sennosuke Yokota
	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent, Feb. 1925)
Education	Heikichi Ogawa (April 1925)
Agriculture & Commerce	Ryohel Okada
Agriculture & Forestry	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent)
	Kunisuke Okazaki (Apr. 1925)

Portfolio	Name
Commerce & Industry	Utaro Noda (Apr. 1925)
Communications	Tsuyoshi Inukai
	Kenzo Adachi (May 1925)
Railways	Mitsugu Sengoku

(Note:—In April 1925 the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce was divided into the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.)

XXV. KATO (Takaakira) CABINET (Second) (Aug. 2, 1925—Jan. 29, 1926)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Takaakira Kato (Con- tinued)
Foreign	Reijiro Wakatsuki (ad interim, Jan. 1926)
Home	Kijuro Shidehara (Con- tinued)
Finance	Reijiro Wakatsuki (Con- tinued)
Army	Osachi Hamaguchi (Con- tinued)
Navy	Kazushige Ugaki (Con- tinued)
Justice	Takeshi Takarabe (Con- tinued)
Education	Tasuku Egi
	Ryohel Okada (Conti- nued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Selji Hayami
Commerce & Industry	Naoatsu Kataoka
Communications	Kenzo Adachi (Continu- ed)
Railways	Mitsugu Sengoku (Con- tinued)

XXVI. WAKATSUKI CABINET (First) (Jan. 30, 1926—April 19, 1927)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara (Con- tinued)
Home	Reijiro Wakatsuki (Con- current)
	Osachi Hamaguchi (June- 1926)
	Kenzo Adachi (Concur- rent ad interim, Dec. 1926)
	Osachi Hamaguchi (Mar. 1927)

Portfolio	Name
Finance	Osachi Hamaguchi Seiji Hayami (June 1926)
Army	Naoatsu Kataoka (Sept. 1926)
Navy	Kazushige Ugaki (Continued)
Justice	Takeshi Takarabe (Continued)
Education	Tasuku Egi (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Ryohel Okada (Continued)
Commerce & Industry	Seiji Hayami Chuji Machida (June 1926)
Communications	Naoatsu Kataoka Ikunosuke Fujisawa (Sept. 1926)
Railways	Kenzo Adachi (Continued)
	Mitsugu Sengoku (Continued)
	Tadashiro Inoue (June 1926)

XXVII. TANAKA CABINET
(April 20, 1927—July 1, 1929)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Glich Tanaka
Foreign	Glich Tanaka (Concurrent)
Home	Kisaburo Suzuki Glich Tanaka (Concurrent, May 1928)
Finance	Keisuke Mochizuki (May 1928)
Army	Korekiyo Takahashi
Navy	Chuzo Mitsuchi (June 1927)
Justice	Yoshinori Shirakawa
Education	Keisuke Okada
	Yoshimichi Hara
	Chuzo Mitsuchi
	Rentaro Mizuno (June 1927)
	Kazue Shoda (May 1928)
Agriculture & Forestry	Teijiro Yamamoto
Commerce & Industry	Tokugoro Nakabashi
Communications	Keisuke Mochizuki
	Fusanosuke Kuhara (May 1928)
Railways	Heikichi Ogawa
Overseas Affairs	Glich Tanaka (Concurrent)

XXVIII. HAMAGUCHI CABINET
(July 2, 1929—April 13, 1931)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Osachi Hamaguchi Kijuro Shidehara (Charge d'affaires ad interim, Nov. 1930)
Foreign	Osachi Hamaguchi (Mar. 1931)
Home	Kijuro Shidehara
Finance	Kenzo Adachi
Army	Junnosuke Inoue
	Kazushige Ugaki
	Nobuyuki Abe (Charge d'affaires ad interim, June 1930)
	Kazushige Ugaki (Dec. 1930)
Navy	Takeshi Takarabe
	Kiyokazu Abo (Oct. 1930)
Justice	Chifuyu Watanabe
Education	Itta Kobashi
	Ryuzo Tanaka (Nov. 1929)
Agriculture & Forestry	Chuji Machida
Commerce & Industry	Magoichi Tawara
Communications	Matajiro Koizumi
Railways	Tasuku Egi
Overseas Affairs	Genji Matsuda

XXIX. WAKATSUKI CABINET
(Second)

(April 14—Dec. 12, 1931)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Reijiro Wakatsuki
Foreign	Kijuro Shidehara (Continued)
Home	Kenzo Adachi (Continued)
Finance	Junnosuke Inoue (Continued)
Army	Jiro Minami
Navy	Kiyokazu Abo (Continued)
Justice	Chifuyu Watanabe (Continued)
Education	Ryuzo Tanaka (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Chuji Machida (Continued)
Commerce & Industry	Yukio Sakurauchi
Communications	Matajiro Koizumi (Continued)

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Portfolio	Name
Railways	Tasuku Egi (Continued)
	Shujiro Hara (Sept. 1931)
Overseas Affairs	Shujiro Hara
	Reijiro Wakatsuki (Concurrent, Sept. 1931)

XXX. INUKAI CABINET (Dec. 13, 1931—May 25, 1932)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Tsuyoshi Inukai
	Korekiyo Takahashi (Concurrent, May 1932)
Foreign	Tsuyoshi Inukai (Concurrent)
	Kenkichi Yoshizawa (Jan. 1932)
Home	Tokugoro Nakabashi
	Tsuyoshi Inukai (Concurrent, March 1932)
Finance	Kisaburo Suzuki (Mar. 1932)
Army	Korekiyo Takahashi
Navy	Sadao Araki
Justice	Mineo Ōsumi
	Kisaburo Suzuki
	Takeji Kawamura (Mar. 1932)
Education	Ichirō Hatoyama
Agriculture & Forestry	Teijiro Yamamoto
Commerce & Industry	Yonezo Maeda
Communications	Chuzo Mitsuchi
Railways	Takejiro Tokonami
Overseas Affairs	Toyosuke Hata

XXXI. SAITO CABINET (May 26, 1932—July 7, 1934)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Makoto Saito
Foreign	Makoto Saito (Concurrent)
	Yasuya Uchida (July 1932)
	Koki Hirota (Sept. 1933)
Home	Tatsuo Yamamoto
Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi (Continued)
Army	Sadao Araki (Continued)
	Senjuro Hayashi (Jan. 1934)
Navy	Keisuke Okada
Justice	Mineo Ōsumi (Jan. 1933)
	Matsukichi Koyama

Portfolio	Name
Education	Ichiro Hatoyama (Continued)
	Makoto Saito (ad interim, March 1934)
Agriculture & Forestry	Fumio Goto
Commerce & Industry	Kumakichi Nakajima
	Joji Matsumoto (Feb. 1934)
Communications	Hiroshi Minami
Railways	Chuzo Mitsuchi
Overseas Affairs	Ryutaro Nagai

XXXII. OKADA CABINET (July 8, 1934—March 8, 1936)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Keisuke Okada
	Fumio Goto (Charge d'affaires ad interim, Feb. 1936)
	Keisuke Okada (Feb. 1936)
Foreign	Koki Hirota (Continued)
Home	Fumio Goto
Finance	Sadanobu Fujii
	Korekiyo Takahashi (Nov. 1934)
Army	Chuji Machida (Concurrent, Feb. 1936)
	Senjuro Hayashi (Continued)
	Yoshiyuki Kawashima (Sept. 1935)
Navy	Mineo Ōsumi (Continued)
Justice	Naoshi Ohara
Education	Genji Matsuda
	Takukichi Kawasaki (Feb. 1936)

Portfolio	Name
Agriculture & Forestry	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki
Commerce & Industry	Chuji Machida
Communications	Takejiro Tokonami
Railways	Shinya Uchida
Overseas Affairs	Keisuke Okada (Concurrent)
	Hideo Kodama (Oct. 1934)

XXXIII. HIROTA CABINET (March 9, 1936—Feb. 1, 1937)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Koki Hirota
Foreign	Koki Hirota (Concurrent)
	Hachiro Arita (April 1936)

Portfolio	Name
Home	Shigenosuke Ushio
Finance	Eiichi Baba
Army	Hisaichi Terauchi
Navy	Osami Nagano
Justice	Ralsaburo Hayashi
Education	Shigenosuke Ushio (Concurrent)
	Hachisaburo Hirao (Mar. 1936)
Agriculture & Forestry	Toshio Shimada
Commerce & Industry	Takukichi Kawasaki
	Gotaro Ogawa (March 1936)
Communications	Keikichi Tanomogi
Railways	Yonezo Maeda
Overseas Affairs	Hidejiro Nagata

XXXIV. HAYASHI CABINET

(Feb. 2—June 3, 1937)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Senjuro Hayashi
Foreign	Senjuro Hayashi (Concurrent)
	Naotake Sato (Feb. 1937)
Home	Kakichi Kawarada
Finance	Toyotaro Yuki
Army	Kotaro Nakamura
	Gen Sugiyama (Feb. 1937)
Navy	Mitsumasa Yonai
Justice	Suehiko Shiono
Education	Senjuro Hayashi (Concurrent)
Agriculture & Forestry	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki
Commerce & Industry	Takuo Godo
Communications	Tatsunosuke Yamazaki (Concurrent)
	Hideo Kodama (Feb. 1937)
Railways	Takuo Godo (Concurrent)
Overseas Affairs	Toyotaro Yuki (Concurrent)

XXXV. KONOE CABINET (First)

(June 4, 1937—Jan. 4, 1939)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign	Koki Hirota
	Kazushige Ugaki (May 1938)
	Fumimaro Konoe (Concurrent, Sept. 1938)
	Hachiro Arita (Oct. 1938)

Portfolio	Name
Home	Eiichi Baba
	Nobumasa Suetsugu (Dec. 1937)
Finance	Okinori Kaya
	Selhin Ikeda (May 1938)
Army	Gen Sugiyama
	Seishiro Itagaki (June 1938)
Navy	Mitsumasa Yonai (Continued)
Justice	Suehiko Shiono (Continued)
Education	Eiji Yasui
	Koichi Kido (Oct. 1937)
	Sadao Araki (May 1938)
Agriculture & Forestry	Yoriyasu Arima
Commerce & Industry	Shinji Yoshino
	Selhin Ikeda (Concurrent, May 1938)
Communications	Ryutaro Nagai
Railways	Chikuhei Nakajima
Overseas Affairs	Sonyu Otani
	Kazushige Ugaki (Concurrent, June 1938)
	Fumimaro Konoe (Concurrent, Sept. 1938)
	Yoshiaki Hatta (Oct. 1938)
Welfare	Koichi Kido (Concurrent, Jan. 1938)
	Koichi Kido (May 1938)

XXXVI. HIRANUMA CABINET

(Jan. 5—Aug. 29, 1939)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Kiichiro Hiranuma
Minister without Portfolio	Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign	Hachiro Arita (Continued)
Home	Koichi Kido
Finance	Sotaro Ishiwata
Army	Seishiro Itagaki (Continued)
Navy	Mitsumasa Yonai (Continued)
Justice	Suehiko Shiono (Continued)
Education	Sadao Araki (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Yukio Sakurauchi
Commerce & Industry	Yoshiaki Hatta
Communications	Suehiko Shiono (Concurrent)
	Harumichi Tanabe (Apr. 1939)

Portfolio	Name
Railways	Yonezo Maeda
Overseas Affairs	Yoshiaki Hatta (Concurrent)
	Kuniaki Koiso (April 1939)
Welfare	Hisatada Hirose

XXXVII. ABE CABINET (Aug. 30, 1939—Jan. 15, 1940)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Nobuyuki Abe
Foreign	Nobuyuki Abe (Concurrent)
	Kichisaburo Nomura (Sept. 1939)
Home	Naoshi Ohara
Finance	Kazuo Aoki
Army	Shunroku Hata
Navy	Zengo Yoshida
Justice	Chogoro Miyagi
Education	Kakichi Kawarada
Agriculture & Forestry	Takuo Godo (Concurrent)
	Tadamasa Sakai (Oct. 1939)
Commerce & Industry	Takuo Godo
Communications	Ryutaro Nagai
Railways	Ryutaro Nagai (Concurrent)
	Hidejiro Nagata (Nov. 1939)
Overseas Affairs	Tsunéo Kanamitsu
Welfare	Naoshi Ohara (Concurrent)
	Kiyoshi Akita (Nov. 1939)

XXXVIII. YONAI CABINET (Jan. 16—July 21, 1940)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Mitsumasa Yonai
Foreign	Hachiro Arita
Home	Hideo Kodama
Finance	Yukio Sakurachi
Army	Shunroku Hata (Continued)
Navy	Zengo Yoshida (Continued)
Justice	Shotatsu Kimura
Education	Chinjiro Matsuura
Agriculture & Forestry	Toshio Shimada
Commerce & Industry	Ginjiro Fujihara
Communications	Masanori Katsu
Railways	Tsuruhei Matsuno

Portfolio	Name
Overseas Affairs	Kuniaki Koiso
Welfare	Shigeru Yoshida

XXXIX. KONOE CABINET (Second) (July 22, 1940—July 17, 1941)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Fumimaro Konoe
Foreign	Yosuke Matsuoka
Home	Eiji Yasui
	Kiichiro Hiranuma (Dec. 1940)
Finance	Isao Kawada
Army	Hideki Tojo
Navy	Zengo Yoshida (Continued)
	Koshiro Oikawa (Sept. 1940)
Justice	Akira Kazami
Education	Kunihiko Hashida
Agriculture & Forestry	Tadaatsu Ishiguro
	Hiroya Ino (June 1941)
Commerce & Industry	Ichizo Kobayashi
	Teijiro Toyoda (April 1941)
Communications	Shozo Murata
Railways	Shozo Murata (Concurrent)
	Gotaro Ogawa (Sept. 1940)
Overseas Affairs	Yosuke Matsuoka (Concurrent)
	Kiyoshi Akita (Sept. 1940)
Welfare	Eiji Yasui (Concurrent)
	Tsunao Kanamitsu (Sept. 1940)

XL. KONOE CABINET (Third) (July 18, 1941—October 17, 1941)

Portfolio	Name
Premier	Fumimaro Konoe (Continued)
Foreign	Teijiro Toyoda
Home	Harumichi Tanabe
Finance	Masatsune Ogura
Army	Hideki Tojo (Continued)
Navy	Koshi Oikawa (Continued)
Justice	Fumimaro Konoe (Concurrent)
	Michiyo Iwamura (July 25, 1941)
Education	Kunihiko Hashida (Continued)
Agriculture & Forestry	Hiroya Ino (Continued)

Portfolio	Name
Commerce & Industry	Seizo Sakonji
Communications	Shozo Murata
Railways	Shozo Murata (Concurrent)
Overseas Affairs	Teijiro Toyoda (Concurrent)
Welfare	Chikahiko Koizumi

(Note:—Who's Who of the ministers since 1933 is given in Chapter IV, Government, the Japan Year Books, 1933-1941.)

PRESENT TÔJÔ CABINET

(August 1942)

The third Konoe Cabinet resigned on October 16, 1941, and General Hideki Tōjō was appointed Premier who organized new Cabinet on the 18th of the same month. The members and their careers of the Tōjō Cabinet are as follows:

Prime Minister and Minister of the Army: General Hideki Tojo, born 1884; finished the Military Academy, 1905; graduated from the Military Staff College, 1915; Commander of the First Infantry Regiment, 1929; Major-General, March 1933; Chief of the Military Inquiry Department, November 1933; Lieutenant-General, December 1936; Chief Staff-officer of the Kwantung Army, March 1937; Army Vice-Minister, May 1938; Superintendent-General of the Army Air Forces and Chief of the Army Aviation Headquarters, 1938-40; member of the High Military Council, February 1940; Minister of the Army, July 1940; again Minister of the Army, July 1941; General, October 1941.

Minister for Foreign Affairs and concurrently Minister for Overseas Affairs: Shigenori Togo, born in December 1882; graduated from the German Literature Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1908; passed the diplomatic service examination and the consul examination, 1912; eleve-consul at Mukden, 1912; the first secretary of the Embassy in America, 1925; councillor to the Ambassador to Germany, 1929; a plenipotentiary to the London Naval Disarmament Conference, 1931; Director of the Europe-America Bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1933; Director of the Europe-Asia Bureau of the Foreign Ministry, 1934; Ambassador to Germany, November 1937; Ambassador to the Soviet-Union, 1939-40.

Minister for Home Affairs: Michio Yuzawa, born 1888; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University and passed the higher civil service examination, 1911; on graduation entered into service at the Fukushima Prefectural Office and afterwards secretary of the same office, 1911; secretary of the Home Ministry, 1917; made a tour of inspection to Europe and America, 1921; divisional head of the Welfare Bureau, 1926; head of the Labor Division, 1928; Governor of Miyagi Prefecture, 1929; chief of the Engineering Bureau of the Home Ministry, 1931; Governor of Hiroshima Prefecture, 1932; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, 1936-1937; counsellor to the expeditionary forces in North China and concurrently the highest counsellor for the home administration of the Provisional Government of China at Peking, January 1938; chairman of the board of directors of the Japan Industrial Patriotic Association, November 1940; Vice-Minister for Home Affairs, October 1941.

Minister of Finance: Okinori Kaya, born January 1889; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, and passed the higher civil service examination, 1917; on graduation entered into service at the Finance Ministry, 1917; once went to Europe and America, and later accountant and financial official of the Finance Ministry; secretary of the Finance Ministry, and director of the accountant's section of the Accounts Bureau of the Finance Ministry, March 1926; director of the Bureau of Fund Employment, March 1936; Vice-Minister of Finance, February 1937; Minister of Finance, June 1937; President of the North China Development Company, 1938.

Minister of the Navy: Admiral Shigetaro Shimada, born 1884; graduated from the Naval Academy, 1904; Rear-Admiral, 1929; chief of the staff of the Second Fleet, and later chief of the staff of the First Fleet and concurrently chief of the staff of the Combined Fleet; principal of the Submarine School; chief of the staff of the Third Fleet; vice-chief of the Naval General Staff, 1935; Commander-in-Chief of the Second Fleet; Commander-in-Chief of the Kure Naval Station; Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Fleet in China, May 1940; Admiral, November 1940; Commander-in-Chief of the Yokosuka Naval Station, September 1941.

Minister of Justice: Michio Iwamura, born August 1883; graduated from the

Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1919; probationary judge, the same year; public procurator at the Tokyo Local Court and District Court; secretary and sectional director of the Justice Minister's secretariate, 1923-24; went to Europe and America as the secretary and later public procurator at the Tokyo District Court; sectional director, 1926; public procurator at the Tokyo Court of Appeal; chief public procurator at the Nagoya Court of Appeal, 1931; chief public procurator at the Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1934; director of the Criminal Affairs Bureau, 1935; public procurator at the Supreme Court, 1937; Vice-Minister of Justice, December 1937-January 1940; Procurator-General, January 1940.

Minister of Education: Kunihiiko Hashida, born March 1882; graduated from the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1908; studied in Germany, Austria and France, 1914-18; upon returning home, assistant professor in the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, November 1918; Doctor of Medicine, 1919; professor in the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1922; principal of the First Higher School and concurrently professor at Tokyo Imperial University 1937-40; Minister of Education, July 1940; again Minister of Education, July 1941.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister for Overseas Affairs: Hiro-ya Ino, born December 1891; graduated from the Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1917; on graduation entered the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and served in the section of fisheries and the secretariate, 1917-1924; Director of the Silk Bureau, 1933; Vice-Director of the Board of Planning, February 1937; Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, June 1937; Managing Director of the Nippon Suisan (Fishery) Company, 1938; again Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, July 1940; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, June 1941; again Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, July 1941.

Minister of Commerce and Industry: Nobusuke Kishi, born November 1896; graduated from the German Law Department of Tokyo Imperial University, 1920; entered into service at the Commercial Affairs Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, July 1920; official of the section of archives of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, and later

official of the Patent Bureau; went to Europe and America, 1926; again went to Europe, 1930; secretary of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and concurrently official of the Temporary Industrial Rationalization Bureau, January 1932; sectional director for industrial administration in the Industrial Affairs Bureau; Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry, October 1939; again Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry, July 1940.

Minister of Communications and concurrently Minister of Railways: Vice-Admiral Ken Terajima, born 1882; graduated from the Naval Academy, 1908; Director of the Military Affairs Bureau, 1931; officer of the Naval General Staff, and later staff-officer of the Third Fleet; military attache to the Embassy in France; senior adjutant of the Ministry of the Navy; chief of the staff of the Second Fleet, the First Fleet and the Combined Fleet; again served at the Naval General Staff; Vice-Admiral, 1933; Commander-in-Chief of the training squadron, 1934; retired from the active service, 1934; President of the Uraga Dock Yards, 1934.

Minister of Welfare: Surgeon Lieutenant-General, Dr. Chikahiko Koizumi, born in September 1884; graduated from the Medical Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1909; Surgeon-Lieutenant, 1918; Instructor at the Staff College, 1918; Doctor of Medicine, 1921; Deputy Surgeon-General, 1930; sent to Europe and America for study, 1931; Head of the Medical Department of the Guard Division, 1932; Principal of the Army Medical Bureau, Army Ministry, 1934; Surgeon Lieutenant-General and Surgeon-General, 1937-1938; Minister of Welfare, July 1941.

Minister without Portfolio and Director of the Cabinet Board of Planning: Lieutenant-General Teichi Suzuki, born 1888; graduated from the Military College, 1910; from the Staff College, 1917; Major-General, 1938; Head of the Administrative Department of the China Affairs Board, 1938; Acting Director-General of the Board, December 1940; Minister without Portfolio and Director of the Cabinet Planning Board, July 1940; again Minister without Portfolio and Director of the Cabinet Board of Planning, July 1941.

Cabinet Advisory Council

The Imperial Ordinance No. 593, promulgated on October 14, 1937, established the Cabinet Advisory Council. The

Councillors are chosen from among experienced politicians, military officers and businessmen, and are to give advice to the Premier and the Cabinet on important national policies pertaining to the present national and international situations.

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, Printing Bureau, Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau, Board of Planning, Manchurian Bureau, North-Eastern District Bureau, Information Bureau, and China Affairs Board.

All bills to be submitted to the legislature by the Government and all ordinances to be promulgated are drafted at the Legislation Bureau in accordance with the order of the Premier. Proposals of amendment or repeal of laws or ordinances are also submitted to this bureau. In the discharge of his duties the Chief of the Legislation Bureau is at liberty to present his opinion to the Cabinet.

The Merit Bureau handles all business pertaining to the Orders of Merit, decorations and the pensions affiliated to them, national and international.

The Board of Planning is to make recommendations to the Prime Minister in regard to important national policies and to their co-ordination and adjustment, to investigate the important policies proposed by Ministers and make recommendations based on due observation of them, to make recommendations concerning control over budget estimates, and to make plans for the control and unification of Ministerial businesses for carrying out the national mobilization scheme.

The Manchurian Bureau is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory through the Kwantow Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

The China Affairs Board was created, in December 1938, as the central office for carrying on works pertaining to the rehabilitation and development of China.

The Information Bureau was strengthened, in 1940, by taking over the similar business of information in the Foreign, Army and Navy Ministries, with the purpose of giving unified informations on important State affairs. Information Sections in these three Ministries were abolished accordingly.

The Executive Ministries

Ministry of Foreign Affairs The Minister for Foreign Affairs administers all the diplomatic affairs of the Empire; organizes the protection of the Empire's commercial interests and Japanese subjects resident in foreign countries; and directs and supervises Japanese diplomats and consuls. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into six bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic (3) American, (4) South Seas, (5) Commercial, and (6) Treaties.

There are two other offices of importance, namely the Investigation Bureau and Cultural Works Bureau (for China).

Ministry of Home Affairs The Minister for Home Affairs is in charge of national shrines, prefectural administration, national and local political elections, police, public undertakings, town planning, publication and copyrights, etc. It is also his function to supervise the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the prefectural governors. The ministry has one board and four bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs:—(1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works, and (5) Planning.

In 1940, the former Shrine Bureau was raised to the status of a Board and became empowered not only to administer matters pertaining to shrines but to educated the people in the spirit of worshipping.

Ministry of Finance The Minister of Finance is in charge of accounting, payments and receipts of public money, taxation, government bonds, coins, money in deposit and custody, negotiable instruments owned by or in custody of the Government and all matters concerning banking, trust business, "ko" (an oriental mutual loan association), and sale of negotiable instruments. He also supervises the finances of the prefectural governments and other local public bodies.

The Finance Ministry has the following 10 bureaux:—(1) The Accounts Bureau, (2) The Bureau of Taxation, (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, (4) The Banking Bureau, (5) The Exchange Bureau, (6) The Deposit Funds Management Bureau, (7) The National Deposit Encouragement Bureau, (8) The

Building Bureau, (9) The Mint Bureau and (10) The Monopoly Bureau.

Ministry of the Army The function of the Minister of the Army, who is appointed from among Generals or Lieutenant-Generals in active service, is to direct the military administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Army and supervises all branches of the Army. Though the Army Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor they have nothing to do officially with military secrets and military orders (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

Ministry of the Navy The Minister of Navy is appointed from among Admirals or Vice-Admirals in active service and is responsible for all naval administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Navy and supervises all branches of the Navy. The parliamentary vice-minister and counsellor have nothing to do with naval secrets and naval commands (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

Ministry of Justice The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Ministry contains four bureaux, dealing respectively with Civil Affairs, Criminal Affairs, Prisons and Protection and a division for judicial investigation.

Judicial procedure is divided into three instances. The courts of first instance are the Local and District Courts. In the Local Court are tried civil and criminal cases of minor importance.

The District Court conducts trials of first instance of cases beyond the jurisdiction of the Local Court and preliminary examinations of criminal cases of a complicated character.

The District Courts and Courts of Appeal are courts of second instance. The former handles cases on appeal from the Local Courts, and the latter appeals against the first instance decisions of the District Courts.

The court of third instance is the Supreme Court, which tries all civil and criminal cases which are brought before it, and conducts preliminary trials for (1) serious offences against the Imperial House, (2) high treason, and (3) offences committed by members of the Imperial Family. (For further details, see Chapter XXVII.

Ministry of Education All matters relating to education, art, science, literature, and religion are under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Education. There are six bureaux and one division in the Ministry, i.e. (1) Bureau of College Education, (2) Bureau of Common Education, (3) Bureau of Technical Education, (4) Bureau of Social Education, (5) Bureau of Books, (6) Bureau of Religions, and the Division for Investigation. (See Chapter XXVIII).

Ministry of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry administers all matters concerning commerce and industry.

There are 11 bureaux in this Ministry (1) The General Bureau, (2) The Mine Bureau, (3) The Iron and Steel Bureau, (4) The Chemical Bureau, (5) The Machine Bureau, (6) The Fiber Bureau, (7) The Control Bureau, (8) The Price Bureau, (9) The Foreign Trade Bureau, (10) The Patent Bureau and (11) The Fuel Bureau, and a Promotion Division. Bureau, and a Promotion Division.

Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry The Minister of Agriculture and Forestry controls all matters concerning agriculture, forestry, marine industry, stock-breeding and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. The Ministry is divided into the following 8 bureaux:— (1) The General Bureau, (2) The Agriculture Bureau, (3) The Forestry Bureau, (4) The Fisheries Bureau, (5) The Foodstuffs Bureau, (6) The Silk Bureau, (7) The Horse Bureau, and (8) The Rice Bureau.

Ministry of Communications The Minister of Communications administers the State post, telegraph, telephone, broadcasting and beacon services, and is in charge of all matters relating to electricity, aviation, shipbuilding, and water transportation.

There are 8 bureaux and one board in the Ministry:—(1) The Postal Service Bureau, (2) The Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau, (3) The Bureau of Engineering (4) The Bureau of Mercantile Ships, (5) The Aviation Bureau, (6) The Bureau of Accounts and Supplies, (7) The Postal Savings Bureau and (8) The Control Bureau; and the Board of Electricity.

Ministry of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the opera-

tions of all private railway companies. The Ministry is divided into 7 bureaux and one board, namely, (1) The Supervising Bureau, (2) The Traffic Bureau, (3) The Construction Bureau, (4) The Engineering Bureau, (5) The Manufacturing Bureau, (6) The Electric Bureau, and (7) The Bureau of Finance and Purchasing, and the Board of Tourist Industry. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to 8 local regions: Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima, Moji, Niigata, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is in charge of a director who has full powers to conduct all but the most important affairs within his jurisdiction. (See Chapter XXIV.)

Ministry of Overseas Affairs The Minister for Overseas Affairs supervises the administrative work of the Chosen Government-General, the Taiwan Government-General, the Kwantung Government, the Karafuto Government, and the Government of the South Sea Islands. He also supervises the business operations of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Oriental Development Company. He directs all matters concerning emigration excepting those of a diplomatic nature. For the performance of these duties, the Minister is empowered to direct and supervise consuls stationed in foreign countries in consultation with the Foreign Minister. There are the following 4 offices in the Ministry; the Chosen Office, (having a special status and being always under the direction of the vice-minister), Industry Development Bureau, the Supervision Bureau, and the Exploitation Bureau.

Ministry of Welfare The Minister of Welfare administers all matters relating to the health and well-being of the people. The Ministry is divided into 5 bureaux of Physical Strength, Public Hygiene, Disease Prevention, Social Affairs and Labor, which are responsible for matters relating to national health, social welfare and labor, and the Board of Insurance which is responsible for matters relating to health, insurance, accident, relief, liability and insurance for laborers, and other systems of social insurance as well as post office life insurance and post office life annuities.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. The Council is

composed of one President, one Vice-President (non-voting) and 24 Councillors. All the Councillors are officials of shinnin (highest) rank. All these members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister. Cabinet Ministers are entitled by virtue of their office to sit in the Privy Council as councillors and have the right to vote. Princes of the Blood who have attained their majority and are resident in Tokyo can sit in the Council under the same conditions.

The questions that are to be submitted to the Privy Council for deliberation cover:

(1) All matters that fall within its jurisdiction according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

(2) All matters concerning interpretation of the provisions of the Constitution and laws and ordinances supplementary thereto.

(3) Proclamation of Martial Law under Article 14 of the Constitution, Imperial ordinances under Article 8 and Article 70, and any other Imperial ordinance which has a disciplinary clause.

(4) Treaties and all other international pledges.

(5) All matters involving an amendment in the regulations concerning the organization and procedure of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters inquired of the Council by the Emperor.

Though the Privy Council is thus the highest consultative organ of the Emperor in important matters of State, it has nothing to do with the actual government administration.

Ministers Outside the Cabinet

There are two important offices of a quasi-administrative character of which the holders are styled "Daijin" (Minister). These "Ministers" are not members of the Cabinet and do not change with the Government.

The Office of the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is generally regarded as the senior of these offices. Its holder has the duty of keeping the Imperial Seal and the Seal of State, and of supervising secretarial work in connection with Imperial Edicts and Rescripts and other documents of the Imperial Court. The other office is that of Minister of the Imperial Household (Consult the chapter on Imperial Court for fuller information as to their duties.)

The Board of Audit

The Board of Audit is provided for by Article 72 of the Constitution and is on an equal footing with the Ministers of State. It is composed of a president, three divisional chiefs and 12 inspectors, who are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister, but cannot be dismissed, transferred or placed on the retired list except by effect of either a criminal or a disciplinary trial.

The function of the Board is to audit accounts of the central government and other corporate bodies, public or private, receiving government subsidies or guarantees.

The Court of Administrative Litigation

The law of 1890 which established this Court is envisaged in Article 61 of the Constitution. The Court is entirely distinct from ordinary judicial courts and its function is to decide on the validity of administrative acts. The Court is not interfered with by the Government. According to the law the Court of Administrative Litigation is to be located in Tokyo and no local court established. It is composed of a President and 11 Counsellors. Its members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister and are not to be removed, suspended from office or deprived of position, without their consent. This is exactly the same as with ordinary judges (see Chapter XXVII), but the differences are that the former's position is not for life, while the latter's is and that there is no institution of the retiring age for the former.

The Court passes on cases relating to (1) the levying of taxes and fees except the customs tariff; (2) dispositions for the recovery of taxes in arrears, (3) the prohibition or suspension of business, (4) water-ways and public works, and (5) fixing the boundary between the Government and private owned lands.

An appeal is immediately taken by the Court and the decision on it is given by a majority vote of the council of more than 5. The decision is the first, and at the same time, final.

Government Officials

Civil officials are divided into four ranks according to their grade of merits, education and ability, and their salaries differ accordingly. The four ranks are:

(1) Shinnin rank, appointed by His Majesty directly, (2) Chokunin rank, appointed by His Majesty's order indirectly, (3) Sonin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow:

Year	Number	Salary
1929	134,831	¥163,745,391
1930	126,995	160,265,485
1931	134,537	160,644,249
1932	130,988	157,688,618
1933	132,987	159,579,259
1934	135,692	163,333,026
1935	142,543	170,419,940
1936	148,984	176,848,499
1937	159,877	190,788,126
1938	167,343	197,194,535

Note:—The number of the other employees was 353,698, the wages paid to them amounting to ¥192,602,172, in 1938.

The Imperial Diet

The Parliamentary system could not develop in Japan before the Meiji Restoration because politics was controlled by the Samurai class for hundreds of years. Thus, the Imperial Diet was established solely according to the pattern of Western countries. In accordance with the promise contained in the Charter Oath of the Emperor Meiji, councils or assemblies of various kinds were established at the beginning of the Meiji Era, but their members were not elected by the people and consequently they were of a different nature from the parliaments of the West. In 1831 it was promised to convoke a National Assembly within 10 years, and the Imperial Diet on Western lines was first opened in 1890.

The Diet is much limited in its power and the duration of its sessions, but in its fundamental nature it has much in common with the national assemblies of Western countries. According to Article 5 of the Constitution, the legislative power belongs to the Emperor and the Diet's function is only to give (or presumably withhold) consent to legislation proposed by the Throne. But this is a formality, and the Diet has almost the same power of legislation, including that of initiative as the parliaments of other civilized nations. At the same time, the Diet, in virtue of its being an assembly

of representatives, has been invested with the power of supervising the administrative organs, as represented by the State ministers. It is a bicameral legislature, consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, and the decisions which are harmoniously made by both Houses are the decisions of the Imperial Diet.

The House of Peers The House of Peers is composed of the Imperial Princes, Peers, and the Imperial nominees, according to the provisions of the House of Peers Ordinance. This Ordinance was promulgated at the same time as the Constitution and has been revised several times since. In 1925, important revisions were made, the number of the peerage members being lessened while that of the representatives of the wealthy people was increased, also there was an addition of the Imperial Academy. Thus the former majority of peerage members was brought to an end and their number became equal to that of members chosen by Imperial order.

According to the present House of Peers Ordinance, the House is composed of the following members:

(a) all the Imperial Princes above 20 years of age, and the Kotoishi and Kotoison, if above 18.

(b) all Princes and Marquises above 30 years of age, with the term of office for life.

(c) 18 Counts, 66 Viscounts and 66 Barons elected by the Peers of their respective ranks. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is 7 years.

(d) Imperial nominees from among statesmen and scholars who have made valuable contributions to politics or science. They must be above 30 years of age; their term of office is for life. Their number must not exceed 125.

(e) 4 members of the Imperial Academy, elected by the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor. Their term of office is 7 years.

(f) Members elected by and from among the highest tax-payers, in any prefecture, in direct national taxation on land, income and business profits. Each member represents 100 such high tax-payers, his age must be above 30, and his term of service is 7 years. The number of this class of members must not exceed 66.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 195 representatives of statesmen, scho-

lars and wealthy businessmen, and a certain number of Imperial Princes, Princes and Marquises, the number of the last named not being fixed for obvious reasons. The present (June 1940) total of the members of the House of Peers was 410.

The House of Representatives The House of Representatives is composed of members elected by the people in accordance with the provisions of the Electoral Law. This Law was first promulgated simultaneously with the enactment of the Constitution in 1886, and has undergone many revisions since. Important revisions were made in 1900, 1919 and 1925. The Law of 1889 required yearly payment of direct national tax of ¥15 as a qualification for both candidates and voters, and prescribed the system of small constituencies and the open ballot. In 1900, the requirement of tax payment was removed in the case of candidates and lowered to 10 yen voters. Constituencies were divided into two classes, municipal and rural, making each city an independent district and each prefecture one district; and the secret ballot was adopted. In 1919, the tax requirement was again lowered to 3 yen and the old small constituency system revived. In 1925, the male universal suffrage system was finally adopted, the division of municipal and rural districts was abolished, and a system of constituencies electing from 3 to 5 representatives each was established.

The universal suffrage of Japan is restricted as yet in comparison with that of Western countries, as to sex, age, residence and the conditions of eligibility. Women are totally ineligible and the age qualification for male voters is 25. The Electoral Law itself says nothing of the restriction on residence, but the list of voters must be made by Sept. 15 of the year previous to that of the general election and only persons who have lived a minimum period of one year in the same city, town or commune are eligible for inclusion. The Law also contains provisions for withholding the right to vote from criminals, legally disabled persons, such as bankrupts, etc., actual holders of a peerage, persons engaged in the active combative services.

Candidates must be 30 years of age otherwise their qualifications are the same as those for voters, except that of residence. The number of the members of the House of Representatives was 444, vacancies 22 on September 1, 1940.

According to the relevant articles of the Constitution, the Diet has power over all affairs of State which belong to the responsibility of the State Ministers. There is, however, a working but not complete separation of the legislative and executive powers between the Diet and the Ministers. There are certain statutory limitations of the Diet's power to control the executive. The Imperial Diet must not interfere with matters pertaining to the Imperial House. Except in regard to matters within the Diet itself, it can neither use the power of administration directly upon the people nor represent the State vis-à-vis foreign nations.

Fixed Number of Lower House Representatives and Number of Votes at Recent General Elections

Date of Election	Representatives	Voters
Mar., 1909	379	757,788
May, 1908	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,650
Mar., 1915	381	1,546,341
Apr., 1917	381	1,422,118
May, 1920	464	3,069,787
May, 1924	464	3,288,368
Feb., 1928	466	12,409,078
Feb., 1930	466	12,813,192
Feb., 1932	466	13,095,621
Feb., 1936	466	14,479,553
Apr., 1937	466	13,938,456
Apr., 1942	466	14,951,753

Function of the Diet The Diet has five functions, namely, constituent, legislative, financial, general supervision of the administration, and executive on matters in the Diet itself.

(1) The constituent power of the Diet is confined to deliberation on constitutional amendment initiated by the Throne. Action can only be taken by a two-thirds majority of a quorum of two-thirds of the membership of both Houses, as provided for in Article 73 of the Constitution.

(2) The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet, all laws and legislative ordinances must obtain that consent. Bills may be presented by the Diet itself as well as by the Government. The right of consent of course contains the rights of amendment and rejection. This right is subject only to the condition that the Diet's action does not contravene the Constitution, the Imperial House Law, and international law. Thus the power of legislative "consent" contains within it that of initiative. Legislative

ordinances promulgated by the Emperor must be submitted to the Diet at the next session for approval or rejection but not amendment.

The legislative authority of the two Houses is equal in theory, and projects of law may be initiated in either. Naturally, therefore, no legislative enactment is complete without the consent of both Houses to all its provisions.

(3) The national budget must get the consent of the Diet. The budget is presented by the Government first to the Houses of Representatives, but consent to it must be accorded by both Houses. Article 70 of the Constitution, however, empowers the Government to take all necessary financial measures by Imperial Ordinance, and Article 71 empowers it, if the Diet has not voted on the budget or if the budget "has not been brought into actual existence," to carry out the budget of the previous year. National loans must obtain the consent of the Diet. All contracts outside the budget which involve State financial liability, disbursement of public money by the Government made without the Diet's consent between sessions must be submitted for approval at the earliest opportunity. The restrictions of the Diet's financial power, other than those mentioned above, are clearly stipulated in Article 67 of the Constitution. It is to be noted that the Budget as a project of administrative action is confined to expenditure. Revenue is determined by law, so that the Diet's control thereof comes within its general legislative competence.

(4) The responsibility of Ministers, collective or individual, to the Diet is not clearly established either in law or custom, but so far as the responsibilities of Ministers are concerned, the Diet clearly has a certain supervisory power. The Government can do what it wishes without the consent of the Diet in its administrative function, but the Houses can express independently of each other their judgement on what the Government has done. They may present written appeals to the Emperor against the actions of State Ministers. They can make proposals by resolution to the Government concerning administration. They may receive petitions from the people (the only function of the Diet to keep a direct contact with the people), and if these concern administrative matters, they are handed to the Government with the opinion thereon of the

Houses to which they were addressed. The Houses may also pass resolutions on important State matters which are not addressed to the Government directly, but which, being made public as they are, naturally have an effect on the Government's popularity if they contain adverse criticisms. In these ways the Diet subjects the Government to a limited measure of control.

The Diet has the right of investigating the conduct of the administration, although this is very narrowly limited and rarely used. The Diet has the right of making inquiries on the responsibilities of the Ministers, the right of receiving reports from the Government on the income and disbursement of the National Treasury, on the handling of petitions sent in by the people through the Houses, and on serious diplomatic questions, unless they are such as require absolute secrecy.

(5) The Houses of the Diet have the right of self-government as to the regulations of their own Houses, on the procedures of session, on the police system in the Houses. The House of Peers has also the right to be consulted by the Emperor as to the privileges of peers.

The Diet is convoked annually by the Emperor (under Article 41 of the Constitution) for a period of ordinary session of 90 days. This period may be prolonged if necessary by Imperial Order. Extraordinary session can be convened in the same way. The annual session is usually called at the end of the year, although there is no regulation to this effect in the Constitution, and continued to the end of the following March, so that the budget can be voted before the new fiscal year begins. The Emperor may give orders to open or close the Diet; or suspend the session for a certain number of days for negotiations between the Diet and the Government or the two Houses; or dissolve the House of Representatives. All these actions are taken on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Officials of the Houses Each House has a President and Vice-President. The President not only presides and keeps order during the sessions but also directs the business of the House between sessions. The manner of appointment of the officers differs in the two Houses. In the House of Peers, they are appointed by the Emperor from among its members for a term of 7 years, the House itself having nothing

to do with the appointment. In the House of Representatives, the House chooses three candidates for each of these positions and the Emperor makes the appointment from among the candidates. Their term of office is that of the life of the House.

There is an Official Bureau attached to each of the Houses, and officials such as the Chief Secretary, secretaries, stenographers, and the chief sergeant are appointed by the Government, although they act under the orders of the respective House Presidents. Several things in the Japanese parliamentary system have been copied from the British and this official bureau is one of them.

The House of Peers has five and the House of Representatives four standing committees, and special committees are appointed when the need arises. Each House may sit as a committee of the whole for which chairmen are elected at the beginning of the session. The procedure of discussions and resolutions is similar to that customary in the English-speaking countries.

Local Government

The units of local government are four: the prefecture, the city, the town, and the village.

The Prefecture Japan proper, except Hokkaido, is administratively divided into 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures which are administered by governors. The function of the governor is to be the highest local administrative organ of State, and, at the same time, the head of the prefecture as a unit of local self-government. He is directly controlled by the Ministers of State and takes charge of the general national administration within his prefecture. The appointment and dismissal of governors is made by the Minister for Home Affairs.

The system of prefectural government has undergone several changes and the nature of the work done is not necessarily the same in all the prefectures, but it is common, at present, to divide the duties into 4 divisions, namely, the General Affairs Division, the Economical Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division.

As a unit of local self-government the prefecture stands between the State and the municipalities. It has a prefectural assembly and a prefectural council as organs for decision, but the right of

decision of these organs is much narrower than that of the city assembly and council, while the chief executive is the governor who is officially appointed by the Central Government.

The Prefectural Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, and the number of members is fixed by law. Membership of the assembly is honorary and the term of service is four years.

The Prefectural Council is composed of 10 members elected by and from among the assemblymen. The Governor is ex-officio chairman of the council, which is in fact a standing committee of the assembly, although entrusted with certain functions of arbitration which are not specifically devolved from the larger body.

Hokkaido is not divided into prefectural districts, but is itself an administrative unit as a whole, under a governor, although it covers an area of 88,775.04 square kilometers and is thus many times as large as most of the prefectures. The Governor is controlled by the Minister of Home Affairs directly and his function and duties are mostly the same as those of a prefectural governor. The special features of his function are that he undertakes colonization work, that as there is no national forestry law applied to the district the administration of forestry is left altogether in his power, and that he has to take care of the native Ainu according to the Protection Law for the Hokkaido Natives. The Hokkaido office is divided into 6 divisions, namely, General Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization, Police and Economy. The organization and rights of the Hokkaido Assembly and Council are almost the same as those of similar bodies in the prefectures. (On the governmental system of the Overseas Territories see Chapters XL-XLII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village) On April 1, 1938 there were 146 cities, 1,711 towns and 9,524 villages in Japan proper. (A village here means an administrative unit composed of a village or villages.)

There was some measure of local self-government in old Japan. The heads of villages were chosen from among the villagers and were asked to rule over them. For some time after the Meiji Restoration, these customs were continued, although the official names of the heads of villages were changed. Moreover, towns and villages were allowed

to exercise the right of managing public affairs with their own money as financial units. But it was with the formation of prefectural assemblies according to the new laws issued in July 1878, that the local self-government of Japan began to assume a modern form. The self-government system of cities, towns and villages has been several times revised, the last revision being that of 1929.

There were formerly several restrictions on citizenship of the local communities, but according to the laws now in force every man is entitled to it in virtue of the male universal suffrage principle. The requirements of citizenship are about the same as those for the right to vote in parliamentary elections. Every male inhabitant of and over 25 years of age who has resided for a minimum period of two years in the same municipality is a citizen of the same and has the right to vote or to be elected and, at the same time, has the duty of accepting any honorary post of service to which he may be elected.

The organs of local self-government are the assemblies of the representatives and the chiefs of the municipalities. The fixed minimum number of representatives in these assemblies is 30 in the cities and 12 in the towns and villages. The cities have also councils of ten members elected by and from among the assemblymen.

The Mayor of a city is a salaried official while the corresponding posts in a town or village are honorary in principle. Mayors are elected by their respective assemblies for a term of four years. Their function and responsibilities are diverse, for they not only administer the affairs of the municipalities but also handle matters delegated to them by the central and prefectural governments and are entrusted with the supervision of some public bodies. As servants of the central government they take charge of the census register and all the business related to it, the election of the members of the House of Representatives, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law.

Improvements in 1942

A reorganization of the central Government has long been required in con-

sonance with the improvements and reorganizations in the economic world and other lines of the national activity. The Tojo Cabinet decided on a thoroughgoing revision in the old organization of central and local governmental offices in July 1942, and the reduction of the

fixed number of civil officials effected by the simplification of office works in different ministries and local governments was announced by the President of the Information Board on July 28 and August 11 as follows:

REDUCTION OF CIVIL OFFICIALS

	Existing Legal Number	Reduction	New Legal Number
Central Government	35,563	10,577	24,986
Local Governments	69,165	12,005	57,160
Government Factories	1,037,164	102,773	934,391
Total	1,141,892	125,355	1,016,637

The reduction of the 125,355 officials is to be completed by the end of 1942. Most of able officials thus dismissed from the governmental offices of the country have been and are going to be appointed as civil officials in the South Sea regions occupied by the Imperial Forces and where the Imperial Military Administration is established, while the remaining ones are to work one more hour in offices, receiving better pay of salary in the form of a special allowance which corresponds to 10 per cent of the usual salary.

Establishment of the "Dai Toa Shyo"
The establishment of the "Dai Toa Shyo" or Ministry for Greater East Asia was decided by the Government on September 1. The new ministry is to have under its jurisdiction all the countries and regions in the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere under the influence of the Imperial Army and Navy, and to unify administration in the Co-prosperity Sphere of political, economic and cultural matters other than diplomatic affairs. The Manchurian Bureau and

the China Affairs Board of the Cabinet, the East Asiatic Bureau and the South Seas Bureau of the Foreign Ministry, and the Ministry of Overseas Affairs have been abolished with establishment of the new Ministry for Greater East Asia on November 1, 1942, their business being taken up by the new ministry, except those matters pertaining to Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto which were formerly under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs and have come under the direct supervision of the Home Ministry.

Change of Cabinet Ministers In connection with the setting up of the Ministry for Greater East Asia, there was a little reshuffle in the Cabinet personnel. Masayuki Tani, President of the Board of Information, in addition to the same post, was appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs to fill the vacancy created by the resignation of Shigenori Togo. At the same time Kazuo Aoki, highest economic adviser to the National Government of China at Nanking, was appointed Minister for Greater East Asia.

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CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

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A Brief Survey of Politics During 1881-1935

Japan's modern political life fairly started with the promulgation of the Constitution on February 11, 1889, and the opening of the Diet on November 25, 1890, in accordance with the Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years which had been issued on October 12, 1881.

Party Formation Upon the issuance of the Imperial Edict parties began to be formed with a view to be prepared for the opening of the Diet. On October 18, 1881, the colleagues and comrades of Taisuké Itagaki drafted the rules of the new Jiyu-to Party and elected Itagaki President and N. Nakajima Vice-President at a preparatory meeting which was held at Asakusa, Tokyo. The governing principle of this party was that of Rousseau's social contract.

The next great party to be organized was the Kaishin-to. It came into being in March 1882, with Shigenobu Okuma as President. The leading thought of this party was English liberalism, and it aimed at a healthy, mild policy with the educated class of people as its central constituency. It was, therefore, natural that the Kaishin-to won the cities, while the Jiyu-to got a hold on the people in the country districts, where the inhabitants were peasants who sympathized with more radical political thought because of their long sufferings under the feudal governments. Many parties were born contemporaneously. Besides the Kaishin-to and the Jiyu-to, 40 other parties, mostly local, were said to have been formed. The first Ito Cabinet, which was organized in 1885 was not, of course, connected with any political party.¹

The First Election The Jiyu-to was once dissolved into smaller groups, and

¹ For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

the first general election was carried out on July 1, 1890, amid a general confusion of political parties. Its result so far as the political parties were concerned was as follows:

Daido Club 55, Kaishin-to 46, Patriotic Public Party 35, Conservative Party 22, Kyushu Association 21, Jiyu-to 17, Jichito 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

The House of Peers consisted of 252 members, classification being as follows: 10 Imperial Princes, 10 Princes, 21 Marquises, 15 Counts, 70 Viscounts, 20 Barons, 45 High-Tax-Payers, and 61 "Chokusen," i. e. those nominated by Imperial order.

The number of voters was 450,365 in all Japan of which abstention was but 6.1 per cent. Franchise was given only to those who paid national tax of more than ¥15 a year. Of the 300 members elected, 109, or one-third, was of the samurai class. The number of anti-government members in the Lower House far exceeded that of the pro-government, and the bureaucratic Yamagata Cabinet feared for its very existence. Hostilities between the two started with the choice of the President of the House of Representatives and continued over the first budget subjected to the discussion of the House. The budget amounting to ¥83,075,000 was cut down to ¥75,194,300, or about 9% reduction. But the first session of the Imperial Diet was closed in March 1891, without dissolution.

The Matsukata Cabinet was formed in May of the same year; its head was as strong a foe to political parties as Yamagata, if not more so. Then there occurred, on May 11, 1891, the attack of a murderous fanatic on the Crown Prince of Russia at Otsu near Lake Biwa and a great earthquake wrought fearful destruction in Gifu and Aichi prefectures; the Government was unable to cope with these emergencies while it was discredited in its policy against the parties.

Matsukata Cabinet Falls The second session of the Imperial Diet was con-

voked on Nov. 21, 1891, in a menacing atmosphere from the outset, and was finally dissolved on Dec. 25. The general election of Feb. 15, 1892, was carried out under extreme interference of the Government. Shinagawa, Minister of Home Affairs, ruled the local governors with an iron hand and used every measure for obtaining as many pro-governmental members as possible, the freedom of the vote being completely trodden underfoot. It was reported that 25 persons were killed and 388 were injured in this savage struggle. The result was, however, the victory of the anti-governmental party men, who numbered 163 against 137 of the pro-governmental. The unconstitutional policy of the Home Minister provoked the indignation of the people and Ito, President of the Privy Council, and compelled the Cabinet to change the Home Minister, and caused a discord among Cabinet members. The House of Representatives passed a vote of non-confidence in the third session, although the stubborn Matsukata Cabinet clung to its position in defiance of it.

But the Cabinet fell to pieces from within, right after the third session of the Diet, and the second Ito Cabinet was formed in August 1892. It was Ito who drafted the Constitution and stood aloof from the political parties, although he later became the President of the Ji-yu-to or the Liberal Party himself. And the Ito Cabinet cleverly managed the fourth session of the Diet which threatened a collision between the Cabinet and the Diet over the question of the Budget. But the Cabinet was taken to task by the Diet over the misbehavior of some Ministers and the fifth session was dissolved without any reason given on Jan. 30, 1894. At the third general election which occurred on March 1, 1894, the Ito Cabinet took a very fair attitude because Ito was always anxious to be or at least to seem constitutional. Its outcome was again disadvantageous to the Government, and the sixth session, which was convoked on May 12, 1894 was dissolved on June 2 because of the non-confidence resolution on the last dissolution and the diplomatic inability of the Government. It may be remarked here that Tsuyoshi Inukai, the late Premier, appeared on the surface of the political world for the first time at this session. He was a member of the Lower House from the beginning and had organized a

progressive party of his own a little before this, but his motion of wholesale non-confidence was the first occasion that his earnestness and sincerity for the maintenance of parliamentary authority began to show itself.

The Sino-Japanese War The interval between the sixth and seventh sessions was but half a year, yet it was marked by many important political and diplomatic affairs. The Sino-Japanese War, 1894-1895, broke out in July 1894. The general election was carried out on September 1 of the same year. The seventh session had been expected to witness a repeated collision of the Diet and the Government, but the first international war drew all the attention of the people and the session closed peacefully after lasting but four days instead of a week as fixed, on the 22nd of October 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Emperor was staying during the war to command the Imperial Army and Navy. All parties were united for the national cause and supported the Government with one accord, and the military emergency budget amounting to ¥150,000,000 was immediately passed without any reduction. All the political conflicts at home were stilled in the face of the international war and the eighth session convoked on Dec. 22, 1894, was quietly carried out. The peace treaty with China was sanctioned on March 20, 1895. But the interference of the Three Powers on the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centered in an attack on the Government.

A Political Bloc The Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to, People's Association, Chugoku Progressive Party, Financial Kakushin-to and Ohté Club were united in criticizing the Government's weak diplomacy, and formed a union called the Central Representative Club. The Liberal Party did not join the Club, because it had come to some understanding with the Government, and had a special connection with Ito, who gradually had drawn nearer to this political party. Just before the 9th session the Liberal Party took off its mask and openly declared its coalition with the Ito Cabinet. This was the first instance of a political party being publicly united with the Government.

The Progressive Party Ito's policy was a success and the 9th session end-

ed in the victory of the Government by the faithful support of the Liberal Party. The defeated parties recognized the need of a stronger union and on March 1, 1896, the Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to and three other bodies dissolved themselves and organized the Shimshu-to or Progressive Party under Okuma.

Since then the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party, as the two greatest political parties in the country, became rivals. The members of the Lower House, by party grouping, were as follows at the end of March: the Liberal Party 110, the Progressive Party 100, People's Association 32, Yamaguchi Group 5, Kishu Group 4, unaffiliated 49.

Itagaki Joins Ito After the 9th session, Itagaki of the Liberal Party entered the Ito Cabinet and took the post of Home Minister. The Ito Cabinet was in power three full years and managed numerous political matters of importance but it collapsed in August 1896, mainly because of the difficulty of making the Budget meet the post-war financial need. The Matsukata Cabinet which came next was a coalition of Matsukata's Satsuma clan and Okuma's Progressive Party, for these two elements were most fitted to manage the financial difficulty of the country. This cabinet took a very progressive policy in removing long existing political evils and financial defects and its activity was welcomed with much expectation. But the Liberal Party, now in opposition, was ready to make attacks against its political enemy. The tenth session which was convoked on Dec. 25, 1896, passed off with little trouble for the Government, although the Liberal Party attacked it on the score of its foreign diplomacy. It is to the credit of the Matsukata Cabinet that it established the gold standard of national currency.

Exit Okuma Okuma, Foreign Minister, resigned in November 1897, and the relation between the Cabinet and his party was severed. Matsukata now endeavored to get the support of the Liberal Party but in vain, and the Cabinet faced the 11th session of the Diet without any assistance from political parties. A non-confidence resolution was proposed by 38 members in the session and seconded by 150. On Dec. 25, 1897, the Lower House was suddenly dissolved, but the Cabinet itself resigned in miserable defeat. Ito was

ordered to form a cabinet for the third time, and it was again a transcendental one. The 12th session was begun on May 14, 1898. The Government proposed an increase of taxes on land, saké, and incomes, but was defeated by an absolute majority of 247, and the House was dissolved in revenge. This action of the Government, however, greatly stimulated the development of anti-governmental parties and brought about an extraordinary political phenomenon. It was but a faint herald of the dawn of party government, but it gave a real shock for the first time to the foundations of the clan and bureaucratic forces in Japanese politics. Both the Liberals and the Progressives had had a very hard time in the past to wage war against clan statesmen and bureaucracy, but in most cases they had been treated by the latter like mere instruments for accomplishing their own purposes. Now they came to their senses and saw that their real foes were these same clansmen and bureaucrats who monopolized the government, and that their first aim must be to destroy them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theater, Tsukiji, Tokyo, and amalgamated themselves into a new party, the Kenseikai, or Constitutional Party, to put an end to bureaucratic government and to establish a party government.

The Kenseikai and Ito All the elder statesmen, clan and bureaucratic bodies were alarmed in the extreme by this organization of the Constitutional Party. A meeting was called before the Emperor on the 24th and a hot discussion on counter measures against the power of the party was continued for several hours. Ito asserted that there were but three ways for him to meet the situation: either to form a governmental party himself to carry on the government, or to resign first and form a party to support the Government from outside, or lastly to surrender altogether before the Constitutional Party and let them organize a cabinet with Okuma and Itagaki at their head. Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan was firmly opposed to this proposal. On June 27, 1898, however, Okuma and Itagaki were finally called to the Imperial Court and ordered to form a cabinet. A coalition cabinet was thus formed on the 30th of

that month, all the posts except those of Navy and Army Ministers being filled by party men.

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience sake, and the partisans soon began to quarrel among themselves, so that the Constitutional Party, which tried to advance too quickly, soon split up again into the former Liberal and Progressive Parties, largely by the tactics of Toru Hoshi, who played an influential part in politics as a member of the Liberal Party, and was assassinated later in a room of the Tokyo City Hall. So the first party cabinet was compelled to dissolve without meeting a session of the Diet on Oct. 31, 1898, within four months of its formation.

Yamagata Returns Now came the turn of bureaucracy again, under Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan (these two Japanese words indicate the same Nagato province at the south-western end of the Main Island). In November 1898, Yamagata had had bitter experience with political parties and this time he succeeded in getting the support of the Liberal Party (which called itself Kenseito as yet) and handled the 13th session of the Diet as he wished, many important revisions of the national laws being made, and the military preparations being enlarged by raising the taxes on many important items.

It was during the life of this cabinet that the new treaties which had been concluded with foreign nations at the time of the former Ito Cabinet were put into force, and Japan came to stand on an equal footing with the other civilized countries of the world politically and diplomatically. This was on July 17, 1899. The Yamagata Cabinet accomplished great feats in the administration of complicated and extensive political affairs after the Sino-Japanese War, and laid the foundations for the future development of Japan. But as a representative of the old bureaucracy, a survivor of the discarded clan officials, he left many bureaucratic traces in the law and the governmental system by establishing the rule that the posts of Army and Navy Ministers can be held only by officers on the active list, and by enlarging the power of the Privy Council which hindered the healthy development of political parties in later days.

Satisfied with his own performance

in the enlargement of military preparations, completion of laws and institutions in general, revision of the election law, improvement of local governments, and advancement in the educational system and institutions, Yamagata tendered his resignation to the Throne in September 1900.

Ito Forms the Seiyukai A little before that, Ito returned from his tour of China and wanted to organize a powerful political party himself, and the Liberal Party was anxious to get him to revive its power after its separation from the Yamagata Cabinet. The party wished to put Ito at its head, while Ito wanted to organize a party purely of his own without the help of any existing party. But the general trend of political affairs at this time finally compelled these two to become united into one, and the Liberal Party was renewed by Ito, assuming a new name, Rikken Seiyukai, or Constitutional Party, on Sept. 15, 1900. On Oct. 9, 1900, Ito formed a cabinet for the fourth time, and it was welcomed by the party men and the people at large, but the reactionary movement of the House of Peers shortened its life, and Ito never again had an opportunity for organizing a cabinet, although he had much to do yet for national politics, especially in the field of Korean affairs.

The Katsura Cabinet On June 2, 1901, General Katsura formed his cabinet upon the basis of bureaucracy again. Katsura and the members of his Cabinet were rather young compared with those of the preceding cabinets, and the Elder Statesmen were anxious about their ability, but Katsura was quick to see the unrest in the Seiyukai and immediately took steps to control it for the convenience of the Government. In this he succeeded fairly well, and the 16th session of the Diet passed off in peace, at the beginning of the year 1902, winning, at the same time, the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on Feb. 12, 1902. The 7th general election was held on Aug. 10, 1902, in which the number of the Lower House members was enlarged from 300 to 376, and as the result the Seiyukai gained 189 seats, the Kensei-honto (Progressive Party) 104, the Empire Party 18, the San-shi Club 7, and independents 58. As is always the case with a bureaucratic cabinet, even this clever and skilled tactician met with strong opposition from the

Elder Statesmen and the two great parties over the problem of raising funds for naval expansion by increasing the land tax, and the 17th session was dissolved because of a direct collision between the Lower House and the Katsura Cabinet. It did not end in the victory of the Government, but Katsura again made a painstaking effort to utilize parties, and found a way out in the 18th session by changing his policy from raising the land tax to floating a public loan to obtain the necessary means for the proposed naval extension.

Saionji Succeeded Ito The Katsura Cabinet had been in power over two years already and the general atmosphere suggested a change when the threatening state of affairs in Manchuria was further complicated by the aggressive policy of the Russian Government. Katsura was ordered to stay at his post although he tendered his resignation, largely because of the pressure of Ito, who was a Genro (see Chapter IV, Government, for the meaning of "Genro") and the head of the Seiyukai at the same time. According to the advice of Yamagata and Matsukata, who were also Genro, Ito and Saionji exchanged positions and President Ito of the Seiyukai was appointed President of the Privy Council; while Saionji, President of the Council, succeeded Ito as President of the Seiyukai.

Saionji was a progressive statesman, and it was his earnest desire to see a pure party cabinet come into existence. He had been many times suggested as Premier but had always refused, as he considered it unreasonable and bureaucratic to form a cabinet with no backing in the House of Representatives, so he gladly accepted this proposal of the Seiyukai and made great efforts for the revival of the party, which had shrunk to 120 from its absolute majority of 193 at the beginning of the 18th session largely because of long inner disturbances.

At the same time, the rival party Kenseishinto was also experiencing the same kind of internal troubles because of Katsura's despotic policy for reducing the power of all parties, and it was natural that the two parties should unite to impeach the Katsura Cabinet. The 19th session was convoked at the end of 1903, with Kono as President of the House of Representatives and Iyesato Tokugawa, that of the House of Peers.

But this session was dissolved immediately after its opening meeting because of the resolution impeaching the Government.

War with Russia War was declared against Russia on Feb. 10, 1904. The emergency session of the Diet was convoked on March 18 and the regular one on Dec. 28 of the same year, and in the latter the Diet unanimously passed a budget of ordinary expenses ¥110,000,000 and war disbursement ¥780,000,000. The famous victories at Port Arthur, Mukden and the Japan Sea finally brought peace, and by the mediation of President Roosevelt the peace treaty was concluded between Japan and Russia on Sept. 5, 1905. On the same day riots broke out in Tokyo and other big cities because of the general dissatisfaction with the terms of the peace treaty, and Tokyo was put under martial law. Ito, President of the Privy Council, went to Korea by Imperial Order in November and that country was made a protectorate of Japan, Ito becoming the first Resident-General, while Komura, who returned from Portsmouth, immediately went to Peking and concluded treaties with China on Japanese rights and privileges to settle the problems arising from the peace treaty.

The Saionji Cabinet The Katsura Cabinet remained in power as long as 4 years and 7 months and accomplished several important enterprises, but taking the responsibility for the riots and for a disturbance in the Tokyo Imperial University, which also occurred in connection with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, resigned in January 1906, and Saionji was ordered to form a cabinet but failed to organize one of pure party-government because of the great power of bureaucracy behind the national politics. The most important measure in the 22nd session of the Diet was that for the State ownership of all railways. With great difficulty it was passed with an amendment by the House of Peers. The peace-loving Saionji strove for the civilization of Manchuria, transforming the military rule into civil administration. It was as an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

While the Seiyukai became prosperous as the government party, the Kenseishinto had a hard time and Okuma finally left it on Jan. 20, 1907.

The Salonji Cabinet continued for two-and-half years fighting against the forces of bureaucracy, and the Seiyukai obtained an absolute majority of 190 at the 10th election, May 1908. But Salonji left his position a little after the election partly because of his illness and partly owing to the stubborn pressure of the bureaucrats, who were specially critical of his liberal policy toward the socialists, who had gradually increased in number since the Sino-Japanese War.

The Second Katsura Cabinet The second Katsura Cabinet which was formed on July 14, 1908, was of course bureaucratic. One notable event of the 10th election was the appearance of representatives of business men in the Lower House, prophetic of the rise of the business class who now rode on the universal tide of capitalism. Katsura saw the change of the times and allied himself with business men to realize his policy for a readjustment of the taxation system and consolidation of the public loan. But the Seiyukai having no less than 193 seats in the Lower House at the 25th session, Katsura could do nothing without their agreement. With his usual tactics he came to a full understanding with them and the 25th and 26th sessions passed off very quietly.

Then Kensel-honto kept only 65 seats in the Lower House and internal discord caused it to dwindle further. But stimulated by the increase of the Seiyukai, it united with other forces on March 13, 1910, and merged itself into a new party named the Rikken Kokuminto or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in the Lower House and was led by Inukai and Oishi.

During the three years' régime of the second Katsura Cabinet the outstanding events were the first general arrest of socialists and the annexation of Korea. The latter was hastened by the assassination of Ito by a Korean at Harbin station on Oct. 26, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of Army, was appointed to the additional post of Resident-General of Korea in May 1910, and on Aug. 29 of the same year Korea was at last annexed to Japan.

Army Division Increase Question Salonji became Premier for the second time on Aug. 30, 1911. His Cabinet was supported by 214 Seiyukai members in the House of Representatives and this

time he could form it without much regard for bureaucracy, although he could not yet wholly get rid of its interference, both open and secret. While he was in power, the Emperor Meiji passed away amid the sorrow and lamentation of the people on July 30, 1912, and the Emperor Taisho came to the Throne. After this national event, bureaucratic forces began to work again and caused General Ueyehara, Minister of Army, to propose an increase of two Army divisions. Ueyehara resigned his position independently because of the rejection of his proposal by the Cabinet. Salonji asked Yamagata to recommend his successor, but this Elder Statesman, who had himself established the military minister system for military and naval departments, and was the leader of the bureaucratic and military forces, rejected Salonji's request, and the Cabinet collapsed at once.

But this plot of the dark forces stirred up the party men to the extreme, and loud cries arose for the destruction of bureaucracy and protection of constitutional government, when Katsura appeared for the third time to form his bureaucratic government. Katsura tried every means to still the general antagonism, but in vain. Inukai, Ohoka and other influential party men led the national movement with the backing of public opinion for putting an end to bureaucracy, and the situation became so critical that to push Katsura's policy further meant something like the outbreak of a civil war, consequently he was compelled to resign after but 53 days. This was an epoch-making event in the political history of Japan and real party-government was now at hand although Katsura was succeeded by Yamamoto, who was one of the foremost navy men at that time.

Yamamoto to Okuma The defeated Katsura sadly realized the power of parties and organized the Rikken Doshikai or Constitutional Comrades Party after his resignation, and the 31st session of the Diet was held at the beginning of 1914, with the classification of members of the Lower House as follows:

Seiyukai	203	Chuseikai	37
Doshikai	93	Independents	7
Kokuminto	40		

The Yamamoto Cabinet was supported by the Seiyukai and had no doubt about passing the Navy Increase Bill,

but the unexpected exposure of bribery in high naval circles, the so-called "Commission Scandal," caused the overthrow of the Government at the end of March 1914. The Council of Genro had difficulty in choosing the person to be recommended for the Premiership and after considering several candidates Okuma was finally ordered to form a cabinet.

About 15 years had passed since Okuma left his party, the Kenseito, and when he once more took the position of Premier the public welcomed him with sympathy and he responded to the public goodwill by reducing the power of navy men in politics with the support of the members of the old Kenseito. It was Doshikai which contained many former members of the old Kenseito. It was during his premiership that Japan entered the World War on Aug. 23, 1914.

It was the Seiyukai's turn to tread the thorny path of opposition. President Salonji had left it in 1913, and Hara had been its practical leader since then, and the number of members was declining when the question of election of the President arose. Opinions were divided and many a member wanted to call Salonji back, but he was too unselfish to accept the proposal and earnestly recommended Hara to be the new President of the Seiyukai.

The new President Hara was a plain untitled man, but a man of rare ability, and the Seiyukai renewed its strength under his leadership.

Okuma's Sweep The 35th session was dissolved because of the rejection of the Army Division Increase Bill by the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party. The general election of March 1914, ended in victory for the pro-government parties, largely because of the aggressive interference of Oura, the Home Minister, the backing of a business clan and the sympathetic campaign conducted by the faculty and students of Waseda University, which had been founded by Okuma. The Doshikai gained 150 seats in the House of Representatives against 104 of the Seiyukai, which was reduced to half its former number. But the latter stubbornly attacked the Government on Oura's interference with the election and other matters, and compelled Oura to leave the Cabinet by bringing a public suit against him. Okuma once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and re-

organize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaakira (Komei) Kato by the combination of the Doshikai Party, the Koyu Club, and the Chuseikai on Oct. 10, 1915, in the expectation of organizing the next cabinet. But Masataké (Seiki) Terauchi was recommended instead, and he again formed a transcendental government, a sort of off-shoot of the old Choshu clan; he soon met with a vote of non-confidence by the Lower House, and the 38th session was instantly dissolved. After the general election the Terauchi Cabinet got the support of the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party and managed to get through the 39th and 40th sessions without damage to the Government. But the general cost of living shot up to unreasonable heights owing to the vast increase of capitalistic business during the World War, and the artificial rise in the price of rice caused nationwide rice riots in August 1918, which shook the foundation of the Cabinet, so that Terauchi was forced to resign on Sept. 21.

Among the five Genro, Inoué and Oyama, who had been the commander of armies at the time of the Russo-Japanese War, had died, and Yamagata, Matsukata and Salonji were the only ones now left, and they chose Salonji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Salonji to form a cabinet, but he was clever enough to see the progress of democracy among the people and courteously declined the Imperial appointment and recommended Hara instead. Yamagata finally yielded and gave his consent to this decision, but asked Hara to form a coalition cabinet of the Seiyukai and the bureaucrats.

The First Party Cabinet Hara rejected his suggestion and for the first time in Japanese party history a cabinet was organized by party men only, except for two or three ministers who were mostly pro-Seiyukai.

As was mentioned above, the political parties of Japan were originated by the statesmen of the samurai class and had much of the bureaucratic element in themselves, and the clan statesmen had the confidence of the Imperial Court and wielded real power in general politics as a matter of fact, re-

ardless of the public opinion represented and expressed by the political parties or through the press. Up to the first half of the Taisho Era the political parties could not make much progress as independent bodies, and were almost always made use of by the clan statesmen or military leaders, not having enough power of their own to form a party cabinet, but allowing themselves to become tools of bureaucracy even when the head of the party himself organized a cabinet. But the remarkable development of capitalism and the rapid progress of democratic thought among the people at the time of the World War and afterwards caused a decline in the power of the bureaucrats. The coming of Hara, President of the Seiyukai, who was a commoner, into power gave almost the last blow to the old bureaucracy, which gradually faded away by the beginning of the Showa Era.

Hara's Policy The policy of the Hara Cabinet was, in outline, the completion of national defence, the improvement of the educational system, the promotion of trade and the adjustment of traffic organs. The establishment of the jury system, the improvement and enlargement of the higher educational organs, and the revision of the Election Law must be counted to the credit of this Cabinet. Hara showed his democratic spirit in revising the military governmental system of Taiwan and Chosen so that a civil official might become the Governor-General of a colony. The 41st session passed without much disturbance. But the Seiyukai had not yet an absolute majority and when the anti-cabinet parties proposed the bill of universal suffrage at the following session, Hara took advantage of it and dissolved the Lower House to get his much-wanted majority. The result of the general election held on May 10, 1920, was as follows:

Seiyukai	279	Kokuminto	20
Kenseikai	108	Neutrals	48

Hara was able to do as he pleased, for he again had the support of the great Seiyukai, and pushing aside all opposition from his political foes he was advancing brilliantly toward the completion of the said policies when he fell a victim to the dagger of a young assassin at Tokyo Station on Nov. 4, 1921. He was succeeded as President of the Seiyukai by Korekiyo Takahashi,

who organized his Cabinet after the incident, but it was short-lived and was compelled to resign within 6 months. The Seiyukai had troubles among themselves, while the other great party, the Kenseikai, was rather weak so that bureaucratic cabinets were organized one after another for about three years. When Count Kiyoura formed his bureaucratic Cabinet in Jan. 1924, the Seiyukai was divided into two on the question of supporting or not supporting the new cabinet, and the majority of its members who were pro-cabinet seceded from the Seiyukai and organized the Seiyuhonto under the leadership of Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi and Tokonami.

The General Election of 1924 The Kiyoura Cabinet dissolved the 48th session of the Imperial Diet and at the general election which was held in May 1924, the opposition parties, namely, the Kenseikai and the Kakushin Club stood up against the Government rallying their forces in defense of parliamentarism, and under Premier Kato who was the head of the then largest party, the Kenseikai, a coalition cabinet of the three parties was realized. This was a death-blow to the bureaucracy of Japan; the clan chieftains and bureaucrats entirely lost their power as a political class and the bourgeois parties completely took their place, the final blow being the passing of the Universal Suffrage Law at the 50th session of the Diet.

Universal Suffrage The 50th session of the Diet was convoked on Dec. 25, 1924, and it became a memorable one by passing the Universal Suffrage Bill. The demand for universal suffrage had a long history, but it seemed impossible to realize it as long as bureaucracy had its iron grip on all such questions. But the time had come for the mass of the people to voice their convictions on politics with freedom. This time the Government itself drafted the bill and it was first subjected to the examination of the Privy Council. The conservative Council advised revisions and the Government sent to the House of Representatives which passed the original bill of the Government and sent it to the House of Peers. The latter House could not directly oppose it, but passed it with amendments on weighty points pretty nearly to the same degree as those of the Privy Coun-

cil. The consultations between the two Houses were repeated, and the Universal Suffrage Bill was at last passed, to come into force on May 5, 1925. The antagonistic attitude of the House of Peers toward universal suffrage resulted in a revision of the House of Peers Law to the effect that the number of Eazoku or noblemen among its members was decreased.

Side by side with the accession of the bourgeois parties to power, there broke out many political movements of radicals and proletarians in the form of political parties. Radicals among the existing parties organized their own party, the Kakushin Club, mentioned above, in Nov. 1922, by the combination of the group of Ozaki, Shimada and their comrades who had left the Kenseikai, with Inukai, and one other group. But in May 1925, it broke up, and Inukai and his colleagues joined the Seiyukai. Later the Kakushin Club dwindled into a very small party, although it played an important part in the doings of the Imperial Diet.

There was another movement organized by businessmen under the leadership of Sanji Muto in April 1923, but this party was unable to get much sympathy from the general public.

Tanaka to Hamaguchi Viscount Takahashi resigned the Presidency of the Seiyukai and General Baron Tanaka was called to succeed him in April 1925. This change broke up the unity of the Coalition Cabinet of the three parties mentioned above, and it was forced to give up office. It was followed by a Renseikai Cabinet under Premier Kato in August of the same year. The Premier fell ill and died, and Wakatsuki, the new President of the Kenseikai was ordered to form a cabinet in January 1926. Tokonami, who led the Seiyu-honto, took a very ambiguous attitude toward the other parties, but finally joined Wakatsuki and the two parties became one on June 1, 1927, assuming the new name of Minseito. Of this new party Hamaguchi became President while Wakatsuki and Tokonami were made advisers.

On the other hand, the Seiyukai began to rally its power gradually under the leadership of Tanaka, inviting Inukai and his comrades and a part of the Seiyu-honto to join them and after the collapse of the Wakatsuki Cabinet in

April 1927, the Tanaka Cabinet came into being. But unsatisfied with the result of the first general election by universal suffrage in 1928, they tried to collect as many members as possible from among the neutrals and the Minseito. At the same time, Tokonami, who had lost hope of becoming the head of the new Minseito Party, seceded from it in August of the same year, and afterward, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed in July 1929, he went back to his old home, the Seiyukai.

In July 1929, Hamaguchi organized the Minseito Cabinet and his party won an absolute majority in the House of Representatives as the result of the second universal suffrage election in the following year. But on Nov. 14, 1930, Hamaguchi was shot at Tokyo Station, and although he lived another year his wound finally proved fatal and hard times again visited the Minseito. Wakatsuki became its President again and formed a Cabinet in April 1931.

With retrenchment as its warcry, the Wakatsuki Cabinet carried out a general reduction of the salaries of officials and tried to make readjustment in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden.

The budget for the fiscal year 1931-1932 could not be made out without floating a national loan or increasing the taxes, which would of course be most unwelcome to the people. Rowdiness and riotous struggles in the House of Representatives at the 59th session which was held at the beginning of 1931, greatly lowered the standing of the House in the eyes of the people and the inability of the Imperial Diet to take any decided course of action after the Manchurian Incident brought parliamentary government into discredit with the nation, and this state of affairs much affected the stability of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. In October 1931, Wakatsuki expressed his wish to resign, and there arose discussions on the wisdom of forming a new cabinet which might combine the forces of the Minseito and Seiyukai. But opinion was divided, and in the end the Wakatsuki Cabinet was forced to resign on December 11.

Inukai and the Embargo Inukai, who became President of the Seiyukai in 1929 after the death of Tanaka, publicly announced his idea of reimposing the

gold embargo at the general meeting of his party on November 10, and the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet, which came immediately after it, therefore, suggested the possibility of something serious taking place with the choice of the succeeding government. Salonji, the Genro, laid the nomination of Inukai to the Premiership before the Throne, and on December 13, 1931, the single Seiyukai Cabinet came into power.

The Inukai Cabinet proclaimed the reimposition of the gold ban on the day following its installation, as had been expected. This Cabinet had a minority in the Lower House, so they intended to dissolve the Diet at the coming session when suitable occasion arose, to seek for an expression of national confidence at the general election, and hastened to make preparations for it. Hardly had a week passed before it changed most of the local governors to those who were favorable to the Seiyukai, because these officials had direct influence over the general election. The new Cabinet assumed the post but two weeks before the 60th session of the Diet and had no time for planning a budget of its own, which made it necessary for it to borrow that of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. It was, nevertheless, presented to the Diet with some changes or revisions, but it failed to be passed because of the dissolution of the Diet on January 21, 1932.

Previous to this, an unexpected event endangered the life of the Cabinet. It was nothing less than a bomb thrown at the Emperor's procession near the Sakurada Gate of the Palace Grounds and before the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police. The Emperor and an Imperial Prince narrowly escaped injury. This act of "lèse majesté" compelled the cabinet to resign, but the Emperor did not ask them to assume responsibility, and encouraged them to continue in office, and Inukai and other members of the Cabinet pledged their patriotism and loyalty to the Throne, in spite of public opinion which was rather against their holding on to the reins of power.

The Seiyukai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20 was carried out amidst the apparent apathy of the people because their attention was absorbed by the Manchurian problem and the events in Shanghai which seemed to be impelling the nation toward interna-

tional discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyukai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseitō dwindled to 146.

The Seiyukai Cabinet, which had gained the absolute majority in the House of Representatives, was to call an extraordinary session of the Diet in March to decide upon the emergency military expenses.

The May 15 Affair In the meantime, the new State of Manchoukuo was born and the activities of international diplomacy helped to solve the complications in Shanghai, warfare there being terminated by mutual agreement. But Japan's international relations became strained and the world's attitude toward Japan became increasingly unfavorable, which reacted badly on the Inukai Government. The financial condition held out little hope for the business world, and the Government was unable to make any positive plans for the present and future of the public welfare. On the other hand, the general social and political unrest, and the discredit brought on parliamentary government helped the rapid growth of national socialistic thought in the minds of the people, and the organization of various Fascist associations among the hot-heads, both young and old. The repeated assassinations disturbed the public mind to the last extreme, and alarming rumors spread from the metropolis to the remotest parts of the Empire. The veteran statesman Inukai, the Premier, was eager to protect parliamentarism by making a thorough improvement of the political parties and realizing an even distribution of political benefits among the people in general instead of a partial accumulation of it in the hands of privileged classes. But the younger elements of the nation were too hasty-tempered to place reliance in his words and idealism, and on the evening of May 15, 1932, a dozen young cadets and officers of the Imperial Army and Navy armed with pistols broke into his official residence at Nagata-cho, Tokyo, and finding him in his Japanese sitting room fired at him and the Premier fell. At the same time another band of young farmers attacked the transformer stations in the suburbs with intent to throw the city into darkness, but they were caught before they could carry out

their plans.

The Saito Cabinet. Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saito to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saito Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers, three Selyukai members, and two Minseito members, so that it was called a "National Cabinet."

At its second extraordinary session in 1932, the Imperial Diet passed the most important resolutions on the relief of the financial hardship of farmers and the recognition of the new state Manchoukuo. The latter was carried out in spite of obstacles, visible or otherwise, and to carry out the former decision a vast amount of money was needed in order to give substantial aid to the hard-stricken farmers, with their debt of ¥4,000,000,000.

The 64th Session of the Diet The 64th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on Dec. 24, 1932, with the following line-up in the Houses:

House of Peers:

(Number of members, 402, vacancies 4)

Imperial Princes	
Kenkyukai	18
Koseikai	148
Dowakai	69
Kōyū Club	41
Kayokai	40
Doseikai	34
Independents	15
	37

House of Representatives:

(Number of members, 456, vacancies 7)

Selyukai	293
Minseito	116
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	13

This session closed on March 25, 1933. It was a peaceful or rather monotonous one, and passed the budget of over ¥2,300,000,000 without a single cut, and 51 of the 53 bills proposed by the Government and 7 of the 97 bills proposed by the members of the Diet. Among those passed, there were such important laws as the Farm-Village Debt Readjustment Law, a law for the relief of the people of Tohoku district who had suffered from earthquake and tidal waves,

the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, and the revision of the Iron-manufacture Promotion Law which meant the union of all the largest iron-manufacturing works.

Social Mass Party In 1931, the National Socialist movement suddenly appeared on the surface of the sea of social unrest, and the tide of Fascism began to permeate the proletarian fighting lines; the right-wing of the legitimate proletarian parties turned toward National Socialism. On the other hand, the left-wing was influenced by the Japan Communists, who never ceased their clandestine movements in spite of the constant interference of the authorities, and the power of the proletarian parties was greatly reduced. This state of affairs induced another union, and on the 24th of July 1931, the Social Mass Party was organized by the union of the Social Democratic Party and the National Labor-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Isoo Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee; and Hisahi Aso, Chief Secretary.

Orientation to National Socialism In 1931 the Labor Union established the Japan Labor Club with the purpose of realizing a great union of the right wing. Stimulated by the supremacy of Fascism in Italy and the Fascist movement of the Nazis in Germany, there appeared a movement for National Socialism among the members of the Social Democratic Party. Besides, after the Manchurian Incident the atmosphere among the Japanese people was very suitable for the growth of nationalism and patriotism, and the national socialistic section of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

The rise of the nationalistic tide, which coaxed the proletariat partisans away, correlatively gave inspiration to the activities of the old nationalists, and their leading principles began to take national socialistic color in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

Super-legal Movements of the Rights In addition to the national commotion arising from the Manchurian Incident, the failure of the crops in the north-eastern districts dealt a heavy blow to the poor villagers groaning under financial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the peo-

ple in the emergency became so acute that no time was to be lost. This nation-wide suffering and anxiety urged the right-wing movement to proceed to extremities, and they passed far beyond the limits of lawful action. In the midst of the election campaign, on February 9, 1932, Junnosuké Inoué, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nissho Inoué, a priest of the Nichiren sect. On March 5, Takuma Dan, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Mitsui Company and one of the ablest contemporary business men, was assassinated by Hishinuma, a member of the same secret association. At 5:30 on the afternoon of the 15th of May, Premier Inukai was killed. This was the so-called "5:15 Affair" as it occurred on the fifteenth of the fifth month, 1932. The after-claps of the event appeared in the secret plots of Dr. Imamaki, adviser to the Jimmu-kai, in the middle of August, and of the Tenko-kai and the Independent Young Men's Association in November, finally at the arrest of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, head of the Jimmu-kai and the Far Eastern Economic Research Bureau.

Later investigations showed that those directly connected with the affair were 10 young Navy officers, 11 students of the Military College and 21 farmers and scholars.

The Farmer-Central Movement As a result of the May 15 Affair the Saito Cabinet was organized. The new Government called the second Emergency Session of the Diet in June and the third session was held in August, and the Diet passed the "Resolution for the Relief of the Economic Depression," for the purpose of relieving the impoverished villages of the farmers. The motive power of this action of the Imperial Diet was the Farmer-Central Movement of the Self-governing Farmers' Council and its sympathizers.

The Self-governing Farmers' Council was led by the farmer-central idea of Mr. N. Gondo, and rejecting both the strikes of farmers and national socialism, it endeavored to realize a farmer-central government with the harmonious co-operation of the ruling class and the people, and unifying the landowners, the landed farmers and the tenant farmers. The Council was organized by the association of the Nagano-Prefecture Japan

Farmers' Association, the Emancipation Society, K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School), and R. Nagano of the Japan Village Government Union, which had been established in 1931, with him as its leader.

Communist Movements The Nippon Communist Society was apparently broken up by the wholesale raids of 1914 and 1915, and the members who then escaped arrest hid themselves in the depth of society, and secretly continued their endeavors to reconstruct it. But the leaders of the new society, which they organized in 1927, were all arrested on April 16, 1928, and the remaining members had a difficult time to accomplish the work under the constant oppression of the authorities, and the society showed its activity before the public at the general election of 1931. It was for the third time scattered by the iron hand of the Government after February 1931, but it continued its secret activities by order of the International Headquarters with the subdivisions of the communists.

Withdrawal from the League of Nations On March 27, 1933, Japan served notice to withdraw from the League of Nations to which she had made valuable contributions for over 12 years (See Chapter VI).

The year also witnessed a decided decline of the left-wing socialistic parties, especially the communists, many of the leaders leaving camp and ceasing activities.

65th Session On December 23, 1933, the 65th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened and after the customary recess for the New Year's holiday, resumed its work on January 23, 1934.

Finance Minister Takahashi presented the 1934-35 budget, which amounted to ¥2,112,000,000 (¥8,000,000 less than the previous year), of which ¥1,248,000 was to be met by ordinary revenue, ¥19,000,000 to be covered by the balance of the previous year, and ¥785,000,000 to be obtained from loans. Of the ¥785,000,000 loan, ¥606,000,000 was for covering the deficit.

On March 14 the Budget passed the House of Peers without amendment. But the amount voted for the relief of farmers was meager and by the request of the Diet the Government presented an additional budget for the purpose amounting to ¥20,990,000 for Japan

proper and ¥8,200,000 for Chosen, which passed the Diet as a matter of course. On March 26 the Session adjourned, passing the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35 and 50 laws.

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The detention on May 19, 1934, of Hideo Kuroda, the Vice-Minister of Finance, on charges connected with the Teikoku Rayon scandal was sufficient reason for the resignation of the Saito Cabinet. This was a matter of political common sense. But on the other hand, the charge partook somewhat of a political nature and it was considered unwise to tender resignation hurriedly. So the resignation was delayed, but the development of the case and the outbreak of other cases to the disadvantage of the Cabinet finally compelled Premier Saito to tender resignation to the Emperor on July 3, 1934. The new cabinet with Admiral Katsuké Okada as Premier came to power on the 8th of the same month.

The Okada Cabinet The Okada Cabinet was virtually the continuation of the Saito Cabinet. It was a non-party cabinet, as was the Saito Cabinet, and had likewise the tiding-over of the crisis years as its objective. When forming the cabinet the first plan was to exclude party men, but later this restriction was modified, due to difficulties which such cabinet would probably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseitō and 3 from the Seiyūkai). The Seiyūkai had turned down Okada's invitation to join his cabinet and when three of its members became ministers in the new Cabinet, it forthwith announced their expulsion from the Seiyūkai.

Farm-Village Problem By the end of October 1934, the National Treasury disbursed approximately ¥300,000,000 for the relief of farm-villages. This means that the yearly disbursement was approximately ¥100,000,000, and, when left alone, it would necessitate increased taxation. The relief of farm-villages thus assumed the position of an important factor in national finance. The impending questions which had to be solved were how to dispose of the stock of rice and how to restrict over-production so as to increase farmers' income by higher prices. The solution of the questions was complicated by the fact that over a half of the farmers could hardly afford to consume

rice which they themselves raised because of the high price. This resulted in a shortage of rice in the farm-villages.

In order to cope with the situation, though partially, it was decided at the 65th session of the Diet to increase the fund for purchasing surplus rice, and also the Government undertook to find out more effective means to meet the situation. Under the Okada Cabinet a committee was appointed for the study of the problem from among the members of the both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyūkai and Minseitō were also united in organizing a committee for drafting a more effective law dealing with the problems.

Extraordinary Session and After The Okada Cabinet at first took a lukewarm attitude toward convening an extraordinary session of the Diet in spite of the resolution passed at the last session under the Saito administration and the strong demand on the part of the Seiyūkai, which was essentially a farm party. But an unexpected event compelled the Government to give heed to the above demand. A damage greatest since 1923 was sustained in the Kansai district and Central Japan by the typhoon of September 21, 1934. The year 1934 was also a very unfavorable one for farmers. An untimely cold weather checked the growth of rice plants in the north-eastern district and Hokkaido, precipitation was scanty in Shikoku and Kyushu islands, and the south-western half of the country was visited by the typhoon just mentioned. An immediate relief of farmers thus became a national necessity, and on September 28 the Government decided to convene an extraordinary session by December.

The 66th Session An extraordinary session of the Diet was, therefore, convened on November 27, 1934, and closed on December 10. The main objective of the session was the relief of the sufferers in a variety of natural calamities in the year.

The budget for the relief (214 million yen) passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, specially by the Seiyūkai.

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March

26, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyukai on the various questions pending, both sides were, in the final analysis, willing to come down the wall half way and the session was carried on in peace. The peace was, however, an armed peace and the Seiyukai took care that a number of important government bills were killed. The promise which the Government made at the last session in regard to the relief appropriation was made good to the amount of ¥15,000,000, instead of ¥180,000,000, as was originally demanded by the Seiyukai.

The Government, beside the Budget for 1935-36 which passed without amendment, proposed over 50 bills to the Diet. Of these only 5 important bills passed the Diet and among those shelved there were such important bills as the Rice Control Law, Cocoon Distribution Law, Manure Control Law, Iron and Steel Tariff Law, and the Regulations for Fishing in the Northern Seas.

The session was enlivened unexpectedly with a discussion in regard to the interpretation of the Constitution. It was in February that a criticism on the exposition of the Constitution by Dr. Tatsukichi Minobé, Emeritus Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University and Professor at the Commercial University, was raised. Dr. Minobé's theory is that the Tennō, the Emperor, is the highest institution of the Empire and against this the assailants stated that Tennō is the absolute Sovereignty and origin of all laws. The discussion was ended, at least so far as the Houses and the session were concerned, by the promise given by the Government at the initiative of the House of Peers that it would do all to clarify the special nature of the Japanese State.

Political Affairs in 1935-36

Legislature The year 1935 was rather a poor one in legislative activities. The 67th session of the Diet passed 44 out of the 55 bills presented by the Government and 3 of the bills proposed by the House of Representatives, but the majority of them were of the nature of administrative rules or in connection with the 1935-36 budget. Few important laws were passed, the principal ones being the Special Profits Tax Law, the Warehouse Law, etc.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

The political movement of the proletariat in 1935 was, generally speaking, a continuation of the previous year. Since 1932 the political power of the proletariat has waned mainly due to the nationalistic atmosphere generally prevailing in the political world. But the elections of the members of prefectural assemblies in the fall of 1935 proved favorable and this served to prepare good ground for proletarian parties to try their fortune in the general election for the Diet.

By this time the Marxists had lost their leaders and their political activities had sunk almost underground. They had lost the support of the people because of their misdeeds, such as attacking banks for funds. And side by side with this the tide of extreme rights had exhausted itself and it had not developed into a political party. It was thus that the Social Mass Party grew to power, which now occupies the leading position in the proletarian political movement. It was in 1932 that the party was formed through the amalgamation of the Social Democrats and the Mass Party. The party sent 53 candidates to the prefectural elections just mentioned and secured 25 seats in the assemblies. In the 67th session of the Diet (1934-35) the Social Mass Party had only three seats in the House of Representatives, but put up a brisk fight against the overwhelming power of the bourgeois parties in the House. They presented two important bills, i. e. the tenant bill and a bill for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households for one year. Both of them were shelved, but a prevention law quite similar in nature was passed. In February 9, 1935, the party held a mass meeting in Tokyo "for demanding the immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives." The meeting adopted 6 resolutions and handed them to the Presidents of both Houses and the Premier. The resolutions urged an immediate promulgation of the emergency industrial labor law, an increase of Government subsidies for unemployment relief, the promulgation of the tenant law and a law for preventing the attachment on food of farm-households, a thorough measure for securing the living of laboring classes in cities, the suspension of payment of all Government bonds for two years, and an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives.

In the elections of members of prefectural assemblies which were carried out in September and October 1935, the proletarian parties secured 41 seats and 219,854 votes.

In the beginning of the year 1935, liberalism appeared regaining power and criticism of the actions of the national socialists and others was heard in a considerable degree at the 67th session of the Diet. The Army Ministry seemed amenable to the criticism, as shown by its thoughts, the reaction shown among military bodies, the removal of the high officers in August, etc. Public opinion evidently welcomed the Army Ministry's policy. The assassination of Lieutenant-General Nagata, Director of the Board of Military Affairs, on August 12, 1935, by Saburo Aizawa, Lieutenant-Colonel on the active list, was a turning moment for the general policy of the Army Ministry. Aizawa was one of the group of officers who were associated with the May 15 affair of 1932. General Hayashi's place was taken by General Kawashima as Army Minister in September and the general policy of the Army Ministry naturally swung back to the former one.

Dissolution of the House There were many predictions, and hopes in some

cases, entertained as to the relation of the Cabinet and the Seiyukai, the Opposition, from the end of 1935 to the beginning of 1936. But the hopes entertained toward effecting a possible understanding remained unrealized and the Seiyukai hardened its front more and more towards the cabinet. Okada, thereupon, asked H.I.M. the Emperor to dissolve the House of Representatives, which was done on January 21, 1936, and it was declared that a general election would be held on February 20. The strengths of political parties in the House of Representatives at the time of dissolution were as follows:

Total Number of Seats	466
Seiyukai	242
Minseito	127
Kokumin Domei	20
Showakai	24
Social Mass Party	3
Independents	11
Vacancy	39

The 19th General Election The General Election was held on February 20, 1936, with the number of eligible voters totalling 14,479,553 and 878 candidates for 466 seats. The warcry of the General Election was "Pure Election." The Government took a mean attitude toward the whole affair of the election, and the result was as follows:

THE 19TH GENERAL ELECTION, FEBRUARY 20, 1936

(As it stood on February 24)

Number of Seats in the House of Representatives	466
Number of Voters	14,479,553
Number of Candidates	878
Collective Votes	11,117,116

According to Parties:

According to Parties:					
Candidates	Elected	In Janu- ary	Increase or Decrease	Votes Ob- tained	%
Seiyukai	336	174	242		
Minseito	296	205	127	4,156,643	37.4
Kokumin Domei	33	15	20	4,456,250	40.1
Showakai	49	20	24	401,261	3.7
Social Mass	30	18	3	523,663	4.7
Other parties	33	9	0	518,360	4.6
Independents	101	25	11	285,670	2.6
Total	878	466	427	775,269	6.9
The defect			+39	11,117,116	100.0

The defeat of the Seiyukai which had held an absolute majority in the House was unexpected, as was the great advancement of the Social Mass Party. Reasons were complicated and no final inference can be drawn from the re-

sult. But this much was clear that the general demand for a radical change in the country's politics so as to insure and advance the welfare of the mass is reflected in the return of 18 members of the Social Mass Party.

Political Affairs in 1936 and 1937

February 26 Incident The Cabinet was anything but displeased with the result of the election, for it had brought about the defeat of the Seiyukai. But an event unprecedented in the history of the country since the Restoration of 1868 was in store for it. Early on the morning of February 26, 1936, over 1,480 soldiers rose against it and the high officials, and assassinated Admiral Makoto Saito, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, Korékiyo Takahashi, Finance Minister, and Lieutenant-General Jotaro Watanabé, Inspector-General of Military Education, and seriously injured Admiral Kantaro Suzuki, Grand Chamberlain, at their residences.

Martial law was immediately put into force for a part of Tokyo surrounding the Imperial Palace under the command of Lieutenant-General Kohéi Kashii. (For a full account of the Incident see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 135-143.)

The Hirota Cabinet Admiral Okada and other members of the Cabinet tendered their resignations to the Throne on February 27, taking full responsibility for the Feb. 26 Incident. On March 5, Koki Hirota, Foreign Minister in the Okada Cabinet, was summoned to the Imperial Palace and he accepted the Imperial Order to form a new Cabinet.

The formation of the Hirota Cabinet met difficulties on its course, but was finally completed and the inauguration took place on March 9, 1936.

Imperial Diet, 69th Session The 69th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on May 1, 1936 and closed on the 27th of the same month. Kojiro Tomita of the Minseitō was elected President of the House of Representatives, and the formal opening ceremony was held on the 4th of May in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor, who gave an Imperial Message.

The reference to the February 26 Incident in the Imperial Message strongly touched the hearts of the members of the Cabinet and both Houses and the session was carried out in a most serious attitude of mind all through the three weeks.

Many important bills awaited the decision of the Diet in this short 69th Session, such as supplementary budgets, the autonomous rice control bill, the rice control law revision bill, the joint unhulled rice storage subsidy bill, the

cocoon disposal control bill, the bill to revise the silk manufacturers' guild law, the bill to revise the silk industry law and the important fertilizer control bill, all of these pertaining to the welfare of the agricultural communities, the shipping business control bill, the bill for the establishment of two companies to aid the rehabilitation of the north-eastern districts, the bill for the establishment of a central bank for commercial and industrial guilds, the seditious literature restriction bill, the national mobilization secrets protection bill, and the workers' discharge reserve fund and allowance bill. The supplementary budgets (given in full in the Japan Year Book, 1936, pp. 237-280) passed both Houses without amendment.

Important Policies of the Hirota Cabinet The much talked about new policies of the Hirota Cabinet met with difficulties before being finally decided upon the following 7 national policies:

- (1) Completion of National Defense;
- (2) Improvement of the Educational System;
- (3) Readjustment of National and Local Tax Systems;
- (4) Stabilization of the Living of the People by a more effective prevention of natural disasters, completion of health protection, further economic measures for helping villagers and city merchants and manufacturers of small means;
- (5) Promotion of Industry and Expansion of Foreign Trade by the increase and control of electric power, self-supply of liquid fuel and iron and steel, full supply of materials for the fiber industries, aid and control of foreign trade, encouragement of aviation and sea transportation businesses and encouragement of emigration;
- (6) Establishment of important policies with regard to the relation of the Empire with Manchoukuo such as the emigration of Japanese to Manchoukuo or the greater investment of the Japanese capital in that country;
- (7) Improvement or Reformation of the Administrative System.

Advance to the National Control of Economics The financial policy of the Hirota Cabinet advanced to the national control of important economic organs and industrial enterprises. The phrase "Quasi-wartime economic system," which was frequently used by the Financial Minister and journalists in the latter half of the year, well voiced the Government's intention for national economic control. The first aim of this eco-

economic control was the completion of national defense, the second was the remedying of the defects of individualistic capitalism and the third was the establishment of an economic policy of self-sufficiency along with the world tendency of forming economic blocs.

Among the bills which were put by the Government before the 69th session of the Diet and which passed both Houses, were many which aimed at this betterment of the life of the people and strengthening of defense, for instance, the Rice Control Law, the Cocoon Disposition Control Law, the Important Fertilizers Business Control Law, the Important Commodities of Trade Control Law, the Automobile Manufacturing Business Law, the Revised Industrial Control Law and the Navigation Control Law. These laws had been planned by former cabinets so were not the legitimate offspring of the Hirota Cabinet policies, but they passed into law because of the Diet's desire to strengthen economic control to meet the quasi-wartime needs.

Sino-Japanese Issue On August 24, 1936 a Chinese mob attacked four Japanese at Chengtu, Szechwan province, killing two newspaper correspondents and seriously injuring the other two. This event aroused the indignation of the whole Japanese nation as similar misdeeds against Japanese subjects in China had become rather frequent. Negotiations between the Japanese envoys at Nanking and Chinese Foreign officials for the peaceful settlement of these matters were becoming a daily feature.

The Japanese Government and people took the occurrence of these regrettable incidents as a natural outcome of the anti-Japanese education and policy of the Nanking Government. The recurrence of such incidents could not be prevented, the Japanese inferred, by a mere proclamation of the Chinese Government enjoining on Chinese people to behave in a more friendly manner toward the Japanese. The Japanese Government seemed rather too cautious, while the public opinion in Japan was strong enough to back the Government in taking any positive measures toward China. The Nanking Government took a negative attitude all through and, taking advantage of the East Sulyuan issue at the end of the year, communicated to the Japanese re-

presentatives that it would be difficult to bring the Nanking negotiation to a successful conclusion so long as the East Sulyuan question was not settled, and assumed an attitude threatening to repudiate all agreements so far reached. The final outcome of all conversations between the representatives of the two Governments, which had extended over three months, was the visit of Ambassador Kawagoe to Chang Chun, Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs, on December 3, 1936 when a note embodying points on which agreement had been reached was handed him, and the Nanking parley entered a holiday, both sides publishing statements contradicting each other.

The Sino-Japanese issue in the last three months of 1936 left the final solution to a later occasion. The Japanese press and the people as a whole were not satisfied with the activities of the authorities concerned with the issue, considering their attitude as disclosing weakness on the part of the Hirota Cabinet and taking, on the other hand, the unfriendly attitude of the Nanking Government so heavily to heart that another crisis between the two nations seemed likely at any moment.

Japan-German Agreement In cognizance of the fact that the object of the Communistic International, or the so-called Comintern, is the disintegration of existing States recognized by it as Imperialistic or capitalist, and that its interference in the internal affairs of nations not only endangers their internal peace but threatens international peace, and desiring to co-operate for defense against communistic disintegration, Japan and Germany agreed, on November 25, 1936, on a mutual exchange of information concerning the activities of the Comintern, confer upon necessary measures of defense and carry out such measures in close cooperation.

The 70th Session The 70th session of the Imperial Diet, convened on December 24, 1936, was of great importance to the Hirota Cabinet, which had been formed to cope with the grave state of national and international affairs and the February 26 Incident and which was now to ask the judgment of the nation concerning its plans and administration for the first time, because the 69th session had been a short and extraordinary one. There was a

fresh expectation in general for the session because it was to be held for the first time in the new and permanent edifice of the Imperial Diet Building which had been completed in November 1936.

The strength of the political parties in the House on the day of the opening of the Imperial Diet was as follows:

The House of Peers:

Princes of the Blood	18
The Kenkyukai	160
The Koseikai	66
The Kayokai	42
The Koyu Club	36
The Dowakai	34
The Doseikai	22
Independents	30
Total	408

The House of Representatives:

The Minseitō	205
The Seiyukai	171
The Showakai	25
The Kokumin-Domei	12
The Tohokai	9
The Social Mass Party and Local Proletarians	21
Other small groups	18
Independents	4
Vacant seats	1
Total	466

The general atmosphere at the opening of the 70th session of the Diet suggested a strong attitude of the leading political parties against the policies of the Government, especially against the lukewarm Arita diplomacy. But the collision between the House of Representatives and the Hirota Cabinet occurred on January 21 in connection with the interpellation of K. Hamada and the answer of Lieutenant-General Terauchi, Army Minister.

Resignation of the Hirota Cabinet
The Hirota Cabinet tendered its resignation en bloc to the Throne on January 23, 1937, after two days of extraordinary adjournment of the Diet. The events surrounding the formation of the succeeding Cabinet revealed many facts important to Japan's history of politics and gave valuable suggestions concerning the future of the constitutional government of Japan.

The hot words exchanged between the Army Minister and Kunimatsu Hamada on January 21 were too insignificant to be the cause of the resignation of the Hirota Cabinet, but the Army

was unwilling to discuss matters any further with the party men in the House of Representatives, not because of the alleged insult of Hamada against them but for the reason that there was a difference of opinion between the Army and members of the House of Representatives in regard to the recognition of the seriousness of the situation into which the country was thrown as a result of the declarations of the leading parties at their general meetings and the move of the party men in the Houses. The Army insisted upon an immediate dissolution of the House of Representatives. Hamada and his party found no reason for making an apology on what he had said in his interpellation although the general atmosphere among the parties seemed to be toward a compromise.

But all the efforts of the Ministers for bringing the House of Representatives and the Army to a compromise proved futile. The Army took a firm stand and handed the resignation of the Army Minister Lieutenant-General Terauchi to the Premier by the morning of the 23rd, evincing thereby the uncompromising attitude of the Army on the issue.

Premier Hirota did not give his consent to the asking of the Throne for the dissolution of the Lower House, but, on the contrary, decided on his own accord to give up all measures for maintaining the life of the Cabinet, and announced his reason for resignation to the effect that since assuming the duties of Premier by Imperial Order in March 1936, he had done his best for the proper administration of state affairs, but in spite of all his efforts the difficulty of the political situation had become an unsurmountable obstacle.

Premier Hirota's attitude toward the 70th Session of the Diet was rather negative. Criticism of the diplomatic failure of the Hirota Cabinet in general and the discouraging atmosphere regarding the important bills and budget before the meeting of the Diet was such that it was expected that the political parties would force the resignation of the Government. Both the Minseitō and the Seiyukai were represented by two members in the Cabinet, yet their attitude towards it became worse with the approach of January 21 when the 70th session of the Diet was to begin its business. Premier Hirota took no measures to better his position, but easily

yielded to the adverse situation and handed in his resignation after but two days' deliberation, in spite of all surmises in political circles that there might come either a dissolution of the House of Representatives, or the Government would manage matters so as to get through the 70th Session and resign, if necessary, after the session, and after having made full preparations for the quick succession of a new cabinet.

General Kazushige Ugaki who had been enjoying a quiet life for years at Nagaoka, Shizuoka prefecture, came up to Tokyo on January 25, 1937, and was granted an audience and received the Imperial Order to form a cabinet. But he met with difficulties in the formation of a cabinet and after five days' deliberation and negotiations, that is, on the 29th, he gave up his task and asked the pardon of the Throne for his inability to form a Cabinet.

The Hayashi Cabinet Prince Saionji first recommended Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, and then, General Senjuro Hayashi as candidate for Premiership, and the latter was ordered to form the Cabinet. The Hayashi Cabinet was organized in February 2, 1937.

Dissolution of the House of Representatives The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet which had been convened on December 24, 1936, was closed on March 21, 1937, with the Dissolution of the House of Representatives. The session was a very extraordinary one, for, during its sitting, the Hirota Cabinet resigned and the Hayashi Cabinet came into power. It adjourned three times, at the end of January and in the beginning of February, on account of the change of the Cabinet, and at the end of March it was prolonged for 6 days beginning with the 26th and finally on the last day it met the Dissolution. All through the session the Cabinets, both old and new, were unsympathetic with the parties in the House of Representatives, while the parties, in turn, took a negative and equivocal attitude toward these governments as a whole, although some of their members were brave enough to make attacks on the movement of a part of the Imperial Army or Government's social policies. The Dissolution was also peculiar. The Diet was closing on March 31 in peace, hurriedly passing resolutions and bills left over to that day, 49 important

bills including the budget for 1937-38 being voted already, when it all of a sudden was dissolved to the surprise of the members of the House of Representatives and the general public.

General Election of April 1937 The general election of April 30, 1937, was carried out without a clearer aim than that of the Government, which asked for the "repentance" of the House of Representatives because its behavior had been unsatisfactory in the eyes of the Cabinet and the election was the outcome of the Dissolution brought about by its behavior. It was neither a fight between the Government and the parties around important issues nor an election of confidence on Government's policies. In any case, the results of the election were entirely against the Government. The victory of parties whose platforms were decidedly against the Government was overwhelming, and the combined forces of the Minseitō and the Seiyūkai in the Lower House kept the absolute majority as it was in March. The number of the representatives sent by the Social Mass Party, which was most strongly opposed to the Government's political ideas, was nearly doubled. On the other hand, the number of the representatives of the Showakai, the ministerial party, was reduced from 24 to 18 and another pro-governmental party the Kokumin-Domei gained nothing, while the independents who were in sympathy with the Government sent but a few members to the new House of Representatives. All the efforts of the Government to turn the results to its benefit were defied. The general election presented the people with a chance of expressing their deep concern with the political affairs of the country and the bustle of the election which had been thought meaningless by many at the outset gave birth to many points suggestive of the future of the Imperial Diet. The first of them was that the voters did not sympathize with the political ideas destructive of the existing parliamentary system, the second was that they showed a strong opposition against the attitude of the Government which seemed to fill the political stage to the exclusion of others, and the third was that they expressed their earnest wish for the renovation of the Diet in the votes that went to the Social Mass Party.

According to the Local Bureau of

the Home Ministry, which has been investigating the voting at the 20th general election of April 30, 1937, the percentage of absentees increased by 5.4%, being 26.7 against 21.3 at the previous election, and in the comparison of in-

valid votes, blank votes increased by 2,012 and voting papers on which were written miscellaneous things increased by 3,682, while on the whole the total number of invalid votes decreased by 2,779.

RESULTS OF THE 19TH AND THE 20TH GENERAL ELECTIONS

Parties	19th Election	20th Election	Percentage of Increase(+) or Decrease(—)
Minseitō			
No. of persons elected	205	179	— 12.5
No. of votes obtained	4,456,250	3,666,067	— 17.7
Seiyūkai			
No. of persons elected	174	175	+ 0.5
No. of votes obtained	4,156,643	3,608,882	— 13.1
Social Mass Party			
No. of persons elected	18	36	+100.0
No. of votes obtained	518,360	900,916	+ 73.8

On May 3, Premier General Hayashi published a statement in connection with the result of the 20th general election which was received by the public as voicing the Government's determination to carry on its mission in the face of all criticism none of which supported the Government's stand. The unanimous opinion was that the Government would have to retreat in a few months, either before the proposed extraordinary session of the Diet in August or at its beginning when a non-confidence decision would be passed by a unanimous vote.

Resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet
In spite of the Premier's statement matters went from bad to worse for the Hayashi Government. Movements for the formation of a new ministerial party all failed, while the much talked about disruption, if there had been any possibility of one, of the existing large parties was checked by the Dissolution and the general election, for these events worked contrary to the hope of the Government for bringing about such a disruption and strengthened the unity of political parties in their common fight against the Hayashi Cabinet.

The general state of political affairs and the trend of public opinion in May tied up Hayashi's hand in trying to get persons for the vacant ministerial chairs. Besides, secret movements for a new cabinet began to be more active, along with the public movements and decisions of leading parties for the downfall of the Hayashi régime.

On May 31, 1937, the resignation of the Hayashi Cabinet en bloc was finally announced.

Konoé Comes to Power. The public nomination for the new Premier was Prince Fumimaro Konoé, President of the House of Peers. The Imperial wish was the same, for the Genro, Prince Salongi, the President of Privy Council Baron Hiranuma and the Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals Kurahai Yuasa unitedly recommended Konoé to the Throne on June 1, 1937.

Konoé's coming to power was welcomed by all circles in Japan. His family prestige is second to none among the Japanese subjects, his political career as the President of the House of Peers has been brilliant, and his knowledge of and sympathy with the conditions of the people as well as his understanding of military issues is thought to be deep and thorough.

The formation of the new cabinet went on smoothly in favorable circumstances. Prince Konoé was successful in the first place in persuading the Army and Navy Ministers to stay in their former chairs, then in bringing Dr. Eichi Baba, Minister of Finance in the Hirota Cabinet, to the chair of Home Minister, and finally in getting Koki Hirota, the former Premier, for the Foreign Affairs portfolio. According to his policy of forming a cabinet in which all the political forces are represented, Prince Konoé was able to get one Minister from each leading party, Ryutaro Nagai, Chief Secre-

tary of the Minseito, to be Minister of Communications, and Chikuhei Nakajima, one of the four members of the Acting-Presidential Board of the Selyukai, to be Minister of Railways.

The Konoé Cabinet was formally inaugurated on June 5, 1937.

The new Cabinet came into power with the full support of the press, the military circle, the leading political parties and the economic world. It was believed that the Konoé Cabinet intended to make all efforts to overcome the quasi-wartime crisis by the united force of the defense services, the bureaucracy and the political parties, keeping harmony with military forces and heeding the wishes of officialdom. The economic policy of the Cabinet was to adjust the international payments of Japan, to establish a concrete program for the development of productive power in the country and to get a clear prospect of demand and supply and control the relations of the two most effectively.

The 71st Session The 71st session of the Imperial Diet was convened on July 25, 1937, the opening ceremony being honored by the presence of H.I.M. the Emperor.

The addresses of the Premier, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Finance were delivered at the general meeting of both Houses on the 27th.

The minute reports of the North China Incident made by the Army Minister, General Gen Sugiyama, before the Diet on the same day and on several other occasions held the attention of the audience, and the Diet gave consent to the Government's request for the second supplementary budget in relation to the North China Incident which reached ¥419,800,000, without any amendment.

The 71st Session of the Diet passed two bills presented by the Lower House and the 34 bills introduced by the Government, including budgets for the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Only one bill was laid on the table. The closing ceremony was held on August 8, 1937.

The North China Incident On Wednesday night, July 7, 1937, a small unit of Japanese troops was engaged in manoeuvres on their usual grounds, near Marco Polo Bridge, southwest of Peking, and in the vicinity of Lukouchiao

and Lungwangmiao on the Yungting River. With the regular summer inspection but a fortnight ahead, all Japanese troops in the area had been drilling day and night for weeks. The Chinese authorities had been notified of these manoeuvres, as usual and nothing untoward had occurred or been anticipated.

But suddenly, at 11:40 o'clock on this particular night, the Japanese troops were fired upon by Chinese soldiers from the directions of Lukouchiao and Lungwangmiao. This small incident brought in its train the present China Affair.

Political Affairs in 1937 and 1938

The political affairs of the country in the second half of 1937 and the first half of 1938 were almost exclusively concerned with the international developments arising from the China Affair which began on July 7, 1937. The Government, the political parties and the people of Japan were united closely in pressing forward Japan's national policy with regard to the East Asiatic continent by concentrating the national power to the utmost. All the conflicting opinions and movements were promptly set aside before the great task, and the nation was ready for utmost sacrifice both on the war and the home front.

The 72nd Session The 72nd Diet was specially convened at the beginning of September 1937. It was opened on September 4 in the presence of His Majesty the Emperor and closed on the 9th of the same month after passing the supplementary budget for military operations and other legislative bills.

In October 1937, the Government organized the Cabinet Advisory Council to reinforce its power by gathering veteran statesmen and experienced businessmen around the Cabinet. The first 10 members of the new Cabinet Advisory Council who were appointed on October 15, 1937, were as follows:

General Kazushigé Ugaki
General Baron Sadao Araki
Admiral Baron Kiyokazu Abo
Admiral Nobumasa Suetsugu
Chuji Machida of the Minseito
Yonezo Maeda of the Selyukai
Kiyoshi Akita, M. H. R.
Baron Seinosuké Go
Seihin Ikeda
Yosuké Matsuoka

The 73rd Session The 73rd session

of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1937, and closed on March 27, 1938.

During the session discussions were centered round the National General Mobilization Bill, the Electric Power Control Bill, and the bills for the increase on taxes. After lively debates and keen deliberations all of these epoch-making bills and 86 other bills, submitted by the Government, were passed by both Houses, amendments being made on the Electric Power Control Bill and 11 others only. Among the 86 bills mentioned above, there were such important ones as those for establishing Governmental companies in North and Central China, for tending the limit for issuance of fiduciary notes, for increasing the production of important minerals, for the readjustment of farm lands, for the revision of the Conscription Law, the Health Insurance Law, the Shop Law, the Pension Law and the Labor Exchange Law, for the establishment of the central funds for pensioned and salaried men.

Political Affairs in 1938 and 1939

Ugaki Resigns General Kazushigé Ugaki, Foreign Minister and Overseas Minister, tendered resignation to the Throne, on September 29, 1938. The reason was unintelligible, but it was generally surmised that there was a certain discrepancy of opinion in the Cabinet in regard to foreign policy at issue.

Machiro Arita who had been the Foreign Minister in the Hirota Cabinet in 1936, was appointed again Foreign Minister, and Yoshiaki Hatta was installed as Overseas Minister on October 29, 1938.

Wartime Financial and Economic Measures During the months after September, the Government was fully occupied with the wartime situation at home and diplomatic affairs in relation to international questions which constantly arose with the development of the China Affair. Important steps taken by the Government in continuation from preceding years or as new measures were as follows:

For the purpose of meeting war expenses which amounted to 7,400 million yen, bond issues amounting to 6,700 million yen, encouragement of savings among the people, tax increase for obtaining 400 million yen, and transfers from special accounts to the sum of

100 million yen; For an increased production of munitions material, expansion of factories and equipments in mining and heavy industries; For the maintenance and improvement of international balance of payments, trade control and foreign exchange control; For increasing imports and the maintenance of foreign exchange and the international value of currency, promotion of export business, creation of foreign exchange fund system, installation of export and import link system, utilization of bonded factories, a new system to advance export funds, increase of receipts in invisible trade, encouragement of gold production and concentration of gold with the Government, and regulations against profiteering; For restraining rises in commodity prices and stabilization of the living conditions of the people, price restraining measures, creation of the Price Commission and Price Adjustment Commission, institution of the standard maximum price system, official price system, net price system and economic police system; For the relief of the unemployed and persons who have been forced to suspend business or change occupation on account of restriction on importation and use of goods, state management of labor exchanges and other measures; For safeguarding adequate supply of military material, restriction on and prohibition of use of goods, control of distribution of important goods, encouragement of invention and use of substitutes, subsidy for manufacture of substitutes, and encouragement of reform of the people's way of living.

The Konoé Cabinet has been, in general, successful in carrying out these measures with good understanding and loyal support of the people, except such complicated and apparently difficult question as price control and the relief of persons who lost business and were compelled to change occupation, both of which have been left to the good office of the Hiranuma Cabinet.

China Affair In regard to the advance to and occupation of important points and cities in China by the Japanese army and navy, minutes are given in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations and the Chapter on China. The Japanese conviction in the present incident and the attitude toward the Kuomintang Government have been announced unchanged by competent authorities on

various occasions.

On November 3, 1938, the Government made a statement concerning the future of East Asia.

Premier Konoé's Address On the same day, Prince Konoé, Prime Minister, made a radio address on the same subject, excerpts from which follow:

Following upon the capture of Canton, Hankow, the heart of China, was also taken, so that the so-called "Middle Plain" with its seven great cities, which virtually sustain the life of modern China, has now fallen into our hands. There is an old Chinese saying to the effect that "He who controls the Middle Plain controls the whole land." Thus the Chiang Kai-shek Government is no longer anything but a local régime. Japan has achieved these results without overstraining her fighting power, which has always been kept at a level sufficient to ward off any intervention from the outside. We are moved, as never before, by the consciousness that this has been made possible by the august virtue of His Majesty the Emperor, and the heroic efforts of His valiant officers and men. . . . The key to China's fate is now in our hands. What, then, do we want? We want not the destruction of China but her prosperity and progress; not the conquest of China but cooperation with her. Working hand in hand with the Chinese awakened to a new consciousness of being people of the Orient, we want to build up an East Asia which is peaceful and settled.

It is an historical necessity that the three great neighbor nations, China, Manchoukuo and Japan, while fully retaining their respective individuality should stand closely united in their common duty of safeguarding East Asia. It is deeply to be deplored not only for the sake of Japan but for that of all Asia that the attainment of this goal has been thwarted through the mistaken policy of the Kuomintang Government. The policy of that government was based on the transient tide of the period that followed the Great War. It did not originate in the inherent intelligence and good sense of the Chinese people. In particular, the conduct of that government, which in its efforts to stay in power cared not whether the nation was left a prey to Communism or relegated to a minor colonial status, cannot but be regarded

as treason toward those many patriotic Chinese who had risked their lives in order to erect a new China. It was in those circumstances that Japan, reluctant as she was to be involved in the tragedy of two great kindred nations fighting against each other, was compelled to take up arms against the Chiang Kai-shek régime.

Japan fervently desires the awakening of China. It is my hope that wise and foreseeing Chinese will be swift to assume leadership and to guide their nation back to the right path, and lead the rejuvenated state forward in the fulfilment of our common task in East Asia. Already in Peking and Nanking signs of rebirth have appeared. And in the wide plains to the north and west, a new Mongolia is springing to life. Let the Chinese people, who in the past 5,000 years of their history have illumined again and again the annals of civilization, prove once more their greatness by sharing in the stupendous task of creating a new Asia. Participation even by the Nationalist Government need not be rejected if, returning to the true spirit of China, it should repudiate its past policy, remould its personnel and offer to join in the work as a thoroughly regenerated régime.

The Japanese Government, which had hitherto published statements mostly on the general aim and principle of Japan in carrying on the China Affair, made a substantial statement in regard to her demands upon China, in the name of Premier Konoé, on December 22, 1938, as was quoted on p. 157, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.

Diplomatic Issues The rapid development of the China Affair gave rise to many diplomatic problems between Japan and the Powers which have rights and interests in China such as Great Britain, France and the United States of America, during the period under survey. The explanations on the problems and negotiations with these countries are given in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations. As a whole, the Powers were very moderate in their attitude toward Japan, apparently with due understanding as regards the inevitability of troubles arising under such circumstances, and negotiations are going on without any grave frictions.

Matters concerning Japan's aid for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of China are stated in the Chapter on

China at the end of this volume.

Anti-Comintern Agreement The German-Japanese Agreement against the Communist International which had been concluded on November 25, 1936, was reinforced by the participation of Italy on November 6, 1937, as it was stated in the 1938-9 Japan Year Book, pp. 200, 201. Now this Tripartite Anti-Comintern Pact developed to a hexadic agreement, with the participation of Hungary and Manchoukuo on February 24, 1939, and Spain on March 27, 1939.

Change of the Cabinet On January 4, 1939, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, Prime Minister, tendered resignation to the Throne. H.I.M. the Emperor granted audience to Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, President of the Privy Council, on the same day, and gave him order to form the new Cabinet.

Baron Hiranuma succeeded in his task with an unprecedented speed and the inauguration of the new cabinet took place in the Imperial palace in the afternoon of January 5, 1939.

According to the press comments on the occasion, the Konoé Cabinet was confronted with difficulties in carrying out wartime political, economic and social renovation measures. Another reason was in the failure of the efforts for the formation of a new political party sponsored by some members of the Cabinet and outsiders, and Prince Konoé, who was always unwilling to be brought forward as the president of the proposed party, was glad to be freed from this lure as well as premier's responsibility and leave the pending questions with a certain senior statesman.

The 74th Session The 74th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened on December 24, 1938, and closed on March 26, 1939. The strength or representation of different organizations and parties in the Houses on the day of its opening was as follows:

House of Peers:

Body Represented	Membership
Imperial Princes	16
Kenkyukai	161
Koseikai	69
Kayokai	44
Koyu Club	35
Dowakai	31
Doseikai	21
Others	36
Total	413

House of Representatives:

Party	Membership
Minseitō	178
Seiyukai	170
The First Room Club	46
Social Mass Party	35
The Second Room Club	13
Tohokai	12
Others	6
Total	460

Note: Vacancies 6.

The Houses gave consent to the Governmental budgets which amounted to over ¥9,400,000,000, and passed all the 89 bills presented by the Cabinet, only 10 of which were amended in some minor points. Important bills passed and later promulgated as new laws were as follows:

1. Financial Laws; Revised China Affair Special Tax Law, Revised Special Profits Tax Law, Revised Temporary Land Tax Disposition Law, Law for the Exemption from or Postponement of Levying Taxes for the Relief of Calamity Stricken People, Revised Tariff Law, and four other laws on taxes.

Nine laws for the floatation of public bonds. Three laws for special accounts. Four laws for readjustment of funds.

2. Laws pertaining to exploitation of resources; The Imperial Mining Company Law, Law for mining coal in Karafuto, The Japan Gold Mining Company Law, Revised Gold Mining Law, Law for the Manufacture of Light Metals, Revised Industry Law, Revised Mine Law, Rice Distribution Control Law, Taiwan Rice Importation Control Law, Horses Protection Law, and six other laws.

3. Laws on transportation; The Dai-Nippon Airways Company Law, The Sea Transportation Association Law, Shipbuilding Industry Law, and four other laws.

4. Military Laws; Military Resources Secrecy Protection Law, Revised Conscription Law, and five other laws.

5. Social or Cultural Laws; Officials' Health Insurance Law, Mariners Protection Law, Revised Health Insurance Law, Revised P. O. Annuity Law, Cinema Law, Copy Right Agent Law, and two other laws.

6. Educational or Religious Laws; Religious Organization Law, and five other laws.

7. Judicial Laws; Arbitration Law, Criminals Protection Law, Revised Court Formation Law, and four other laws.

8. Laws in relation to colonies; For

Chosen five laws, for Taiwan one law, and for others four laws.
9. Others; Revised Insurance Law, Law on the way of taking Census, and one other law.

Political Affairs in 1939—1940

The Hiranuma Cabinet Complications almost unprecedented in Japan's history marked the political situation in this country in the second half of 1939. In August, the signing of the German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact came as a bolt from the blue. The Hiranuma Cabinet, engrossed in its endeavors to strengthen the anti-Comintern axis with Germany and Italy, was compelled to resign on August 28 after only eight months in power. The 74th session of the Diet, which closed on March 26, 1939, not only revealed that the administrative policy of Premier Hiranuma was aimed at the maintenance of the status quo, but also that his Cabinet was not powerful enough to satisfy the general expectation. During the 74th session of the Diet the public was made acquainted with many important facts such as a concrete policy for the disposal of the China Affair, and the future direction of the materials mobilization and productivity expansion plans.

The Hiranuma Cabinet was tormented from start to finish by the strengthening of the Tokyo-Berlin-Rome anti-Comintern axis, and finally collapsed as a result. The Hiranuma Cabinet failed to leave any meritorious accomplishments except as one of a chain of Cabinets advocating maintenance of the status quo.

The Abe Cabinet On the same day, an Imperial order to form the next Cabinet was received by General Nobuyuki Abe. The Abe Cabinet was organized on August 30, and trampled with considerable élan all pending problems inherited from preceding Cabinets and was ready to make known its policies and platforms. Diplomatically, the troubles surrounding the proposed strengthening of the Tokyo-Berlin-Rome axis vanished with the exit of the Hiranuma Cabinet. The China Affair had reached a new phase. Thus, externally, the Abe Cabinet made its start with comparatively light tasks.

The Second European War By that time, however, the European situation became increasingly worse. Germany, like a whirlwind, swept over Poland and Germany and the Soviet on one

side and England and France on the other came to rival each other. Thus, the curtain was raised on the second World War. Under the circumstances, the Abe Cabinet issued a statement on September 4, setting out its policy of non-involvement in the European War.

The Abe Cabinet declared that the disposal of the China Affair was the pivot of the national policy, and also endeavored to solve all pending problems from the days of the Konoé Cabinet. The Cabinet applied the provisions of the General Mobilization Law concerning the prevention of the advance of prices, salaries, etc., and thus resorted to an epoch-making measure to cope properly with the price problem.

Economic Problems Economic problems concerning the supply of materials and control of prices became more acute. Toward the middle part of October, the unilateral accumulation and uneven distribution of rice became apparent, besides a plethora of illegal transactions. In order to cope with the situation, the Government raised the maximum price of unpolished rice from ¥38 to ¥43 (per koku) on November 6, and later enforced the provisions of the General Mobilization Law for the compulsory use of 70-per cent-polished rice. Thus, the Government was compelled to concentrate its whole efforts on the adjustment of the supply and demand of rice, coal, charcoal, etc. by purchasing foreign rice and other measures.

Diplomacy In diplomatic dealings, Foreign Minister Nomura and Foreign Vice-Minister Tani negotiated with the British Ambassador Sir Robert Craigie, the American Ambassador Clark Grew and the Soviet Ambassador Smetanin, respectively, in an effort to adjust diplomatic relations with these countries. Efforts were directed toward renewing the American-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and for solving various outstanding problems in China with the United States, for solving pending issues of varying kinds, including the Tientsin issue with Great Britain, and for concluding a Japanese-Soviet commercial treaty and a fishery pact as well as delimiting the border line with Soviet Russia.

Confronted with Difficulties The Abe Cabinet, which succeeded the Hiranuma Cabinet, took up domestic problems, but

without success. In no other Cabinet preceding it was the rivalry between the faction urging drastic reform and the faction advocating maintenance of the status quo so clearly manifested as in the Abe Cabinet. General Abe, General Hata and Admiral Nomura apparently had close ties with the senior statesmen, while Messrs. Nagai, Aoki, Endo and Karasawa were in the van of the progressive group. These two rival currents contended within the Cabinet, and gave rise to many important questions, such as the Trade Ministry issue, which began like a cyclone but ended like a zephyr.

On December 23, 1939, the 75th Session of the Imperial Diet convened and on December 27 a group of members of the House of Representatives held a special meeting in the Diet Hall and handed Premier Abe a note of resolution advising him to resign, giving the reason that the Abe Cabinet had lost the people's support. It was later revealed that 276 out of 442 members had signed the non-confidence bill.

The Yonai Cabinet Without waiting for a formal vote on the bill, the Abe Cabinet tendered its resignation to the Throne on January 14, 1940, and the new Cabinet under Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai came into power on January 16.

On February 1, Premier Yonai revealed in his address before the Diet his determination (1) to dispose of the present situation in accordance with the basic policy that had been formulated for the settlement of the China Affair in the expectation of the establishment of a new Chinese Central Government under the leadership of Wang Ching-wei; (2) to adhere firmly to Japan's non-involvement policy in regard to the current European conflict; and (3) to take measures in effecting increased production and proper distribution of goods for a successful operation of the current wartime economy and for the maintenance of the people's livelihood under the wartime situation.

On the same occasion, Finance Minister Sakurachi explained the economic situation of the country, assuring that the financial circles passed the year 1939 in peace, 87 per cent of the public bonds floated being consumed, and spoke of his intention to continue the low-price policy, to do his utmost for the expansion of foreign trade and to consolidate the national economy by

cooperation between the Government and the people for the accomplishment of Japan's mission in East Asia.

The 75th Session The 75th Session of the Diet adjourned on March 27, after passing budget bills calling for ¥10,500,000,000 and 108 other bills, including bills for a complete revision of tax laws. (See Chapter VIII.) One of the episodes of the session was the political disturbance caused by Takao Saito's interpellation of the Government policy for settling the China Affair on February 2; this case ended in his expulsion from membership in the Diet on March 7.

The New Nanking Government Wang Ching-wei's announcement on March 12 of the completion of preparations for establishing a new régime was followed by Premier Yonai's declaration that the Japanese Government was prepared to extend full support to the new Chinese Government. On March 30, the Central Government of the Republic of China was established in Nanking, and in April, General Nobuyuki Abe, former Premier, was sent to Nanking as envoy with the mission to offer felicitations to the new régime and to regulate relations between China and Japan.

The Second Konoé Cabinet On July 16, 1940, the Yonai Cabinet resigned and the Cabinet under Prince Konoé was installed on the 22nd of the same month. The direct cause of the change of cabinet was differences in opinion between Prime Minister Yonai and War Minister Hata concerning the Cabinet's cooperation in the movement to reorganize the nation on the basis of a new political structure, and the fundamental change in diplomatic policy in view of the changing world situation following the Nazi occupation of France. However, the fundamental reason which compelled the resignation of the Yonai Cabinet may be found in the national demand for a stronger Cabinet capable of disposing satisfactorily the economic and diplomatic problems.

Political Affairs in 1940-41

Itaro-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance (This important subject is mentioned in Chapter VII, "Foreign Relations.")

Conclusion of Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Treaty The anti-Japanese attitude of the Soviet Union reached its zenith with the outbreak of the Nomonhan In-

cident. Later, the Soviet attitude became steadily ameliorated parallel with the progress of the European war situation. Specially, after the conclusion of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance the Soviet Union signified its intention of cooperating with Japan. Yosuke Matsuoka, Foreign Minister, left Tokyo on March 12, 1941, on a trip to Europe with the object of meeting the leaders of the Axis Powers and gaining first-hand information of conditions on the spot. After important talks with Government leaders at Berlin and Rome, Foreign Minister Matsuoka visited Moscow on his way home and conferred with the Kremlin leaders regarding the adjustment of diplomatic relations between the Soviet Union and Japan. The talks resulted in the conclusion of the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Treaty at Moscow on April 13. Undoubtedly, Japan's international relations have taken a new aspect by virtue of the conclusion of the neutrality pact.

Progress of Domestic New Structure
At this juncture when the settlement of the China Affair should be considered on an international scale, it is only natural that the existence of the old structure in Japan should be dispensed with as soon as possible. It was solely because of this necessity that the people of Japan, in unison, desired the setting up of a high-tensioned political machine. It is an admitted fact that strong politics cannot exist independently from a high-powered national system. Naturally, a general cry for a strong national structure had been manifest ever since the fall of 1939, although it was not yet strong enough to develop into a concrete movement at that time. From about the spring of 1940, Prince Fumimaro Konoé, then President of the Privy Council, himself exhibited a positive zeal and enthusiasm toward a new national structure. When the second Konoé Cabinet was formed on July 22, 1940 to succeed the Yonai Cabinet which resigned because of its irresolute attitude toward important diplomatic issues on July 16, a concrete movement toward the new structure was started.

Developments of the new structure movement from about the time of the formation of the second Konoé Cabinet are chronologically arranged as follows:
July 6, 1940—Dissolution of Social Mass Party.

July 16—Dissolution of Kuhara Faction of the Seiyukai.

July 26—Dissolution of Kokumin Domei Party.

July 30—Dissolution of Nakajima Faction of the Seiyukai.

August 15—Dissolution of Minseitō.

August 22—Organization of New Structure Preparatory Committee.

August 28—Opening of First General Meeting of the New Structure Preparatory Committee.

September 3—Fundamental Principles of New Structure referred to Second General Meeting of the New Structure Preparatory Committee.

September 6—Program of New Structure in Original Form and Essentials of By-Laws referred to Third General Meeting of the New Structure Preparatory Committee: Two Plans approved at Fifth General Meeting held on September 13.

September 17—Termination of New Structure Preparatory Meetings.

October 12—Inauguration of Imperial Rule Assistance Association.

Thus, the Imperial Rule Assistance Association was organized as the pivotal body of the national structure to guide the nation's march toward the completion of the domestic structure and the construction of a high-tensioned defense State through the cooperation of all strata. (See "National Movement for Assisting the Throne," pp. 175-182, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42.)

Third Stage of Compulsory Control
Drastic changes which characterized the third stage of wartime economy can be principally ascribed to many and various causes. By the time Japan's wartime economy entered upon its third stage, production indices, on a steady advance since the outbreak of the China Affair, started tending downward. This tendency, coupled with these cardinal causes, further forced productivity expansion operations to become deadlocked. It was in those days that curtailed reproduction was widely preached. With these circumstances as the background, State control over industry, which had tended toward the enhancement of free initiatives in the second stage of wartime economy, was inevitably returned to compulsory restrictions. As the two most representative examples of com-

pulsory control, consumption control and corporation accounts control can be cited. The consumption control steadily came to take a concrete form as the disorder of price control and unrest among consumers became visible. In these circumstances, the State control over daily necessities came in the form of the enactment of the Charcoal Distribution Control Regulations in December 1939, enforcement of the charcoal ration system in seven major cities in Japan in August 1940 and the ticket ration system for sugar and matches in June of the same year. In this connection, Regulations Restricting the Production and Sales of Luxuries, etc., decided upon in July 1940 and enforced from October, meant a step forward as an attempt to restrict direct consumption of objects of daily use. The corporation accounts control, coming as it did in the fourth stage, was important as having made this transition to the fourth stage decisive.

Fourth Stage in Reorganization
With the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance concluded in September 1940, clarifying Japan's fundamental national policy to cope with the changing international political situation, Japan's wartime economy was naturally called upon to stabilize its self-supplying and self-sufficient structure to meet with this new development. A demand for the reconstruction of State control came to be strongly expressed in order to tide over the deadlock of controlled economy which, passing through three stages already, came to a standstill together with a new structure movement in political circles. Those two demands of the times, were together responsible for the advent of the fourth stage in national reorganization. The special features of the new stage were the thorough reorganization of controlled economy, its application domestically upon a planned basis over a wide sphere of economic activities.

Internal Inevitability of Reorganization
An acute depression came to prevail in domestic economic circles in the fall of 1940 and the downward tendency of production conspicuous since the summer of 1939 failed to recover. Industrial profit rates and stock prices tended generally downward. Specially, small-scale and medium-sized enterprises found themselves in difficulties due to the adjustment and merger

necessitated by the enforcement of the priority principle and the Government ban on production and sales of luxuries. As a result, the money market became stringent and dishonored bills kept on sharply increasing. Causes leading to such a strained situation may be traced to various inevitabilities such as the characteristic inner weakness of wartime economy and the aggravation of foreign trade situation due to the spread of war. However, they were also attributable in no small measure to the faults in the method of conducting economic control. Note should be taken that Government control in the past was principally concentrated on the control over prices or control over distribution, and the production control which directly touched the root of production processes was not stabilized. In order to remedy this evil and strengthen and enliven the productivity expansion, the treatment of industries charged with the task of productivity expansion was to be fundamentally re-examined and reconsidered. The actual application of industrial control in the past, however, was made in a compulsory, formal and bureaucratic manner as a reaction to the autonomous control which had been tried first and had failed. Enterprises, which were purely profit-making concerns were treated as the direct object of control. Under the circumstances, the display of initiative and the autonomous character of enterprises were eliminated. An outstanding example of control legislature is the Corporation Accounts Control Ordinance promulgated in October 1940. This ordinance provided for the necessity of governmental permission on annual dividends exceeding 8 per cent on the basis of dividend rates in the business year just preceding the year concerned through the rationalization of the dividend restrictions provided by the Corporation Profit Dividend Ordinance.

Early in December 1940, the historic economic new structure plan was decided upon formally by the Cabinet meeting, thus laying an immutable cornerstone for wartime controlled economy. The plan did not distinctly provide for the separation of capital from management, but emphasized the priority of public interest in the stabilization of the industrial structure and urged the necessity of operating control through civil and governmental cooperation on the basis of the priority principle, and thus

responded to the general demand for the economic reorganization of the nation. A single unit law was enacted to thoroughly legalize the economic bodies, and the National General Mobilization Law was drastically revised in order to meet the demand in this connection. The population policy plan announced at the close of January 1941 and the scientific and technical new structure stabilization plan announced toward the end of May 1941, together with the economic new structure plan, form an important element of the economic reorganization. In November 1940, the Cabinet decided formally upon the labor new structure stabilization plan, and toward the close of that month the Japan Patriotic Industrial Association (Dainippon Sangyo Hokoku Kwai) was organized.

Expansion of Economic Structure

Keeping pace with the general progress of economic reorganization within Japan, economy on the Continent also made a great development. The first step toward the synthetic and comprehensive utilization of land in Japan and Manchoukuo was taken by the announcement of the national land development plan in the latter part of September 1940. Early in November 1940, the Japan-Manchoukuo-China economic construction plan was decided upon officially by the Japanese Government, and the fundamental principles concerning the stabilization of a self-supplying and self-sufficient economic structure with those three countries as a single unit for the coming ten years were thus clarified. The greatest fruit in the period under review, however, was the drafting of a concrete policy by the Government for an advance to the East Asia co-prosperity sphere, a term which had come into the limelight toward the close of the preceding period, and the consequent development of the Japan-Manchoukuo-China economic bloc to the East Asia regional economy. On the occasion of the advance of the Japanese forces to French Indo-China at the close of September 1940, economic negotiations with French Indo-China were started. The negotiations also had an encouraging influence on Japan's mediation in the Thai-French Indo-China border trouble. With the Netherlands East Indies Japan commenced negotiations through her first delegate Ichizo Kobayashi, Minister of Commerce and Industry, and then through Kenkichi

Yoshizawa. The negotiations, however, finally ended in failure, although Japan had its claim partly recognized by the Netherlands Indies. Separately from the economic negotiations, Japan concluded a monetary arrangement with the Netherlands Indies in December 1940. Economic negotiations have also been under way with Thailand.

Reorganization and Strengthened Control In the course of those reorganization activities both at home and abroad, the Government also took many necessary steps for economic control at home. The small rice crop of 60,000,000 koku in 1940 despite strenuous efforts toward the increased production urged a fundamental re-examination into the maintenance of agricultural productivity. To cope with the situation, the Government took various steps such as the Regulations Pertaining Control Over Rice aiming at placing rice under State control, Temporary Farmland Prices Control Ordinance, Farmland Development Law, Temporary Farmland Control Ordinance, etc. The rice ticket ration system in six major cities, Living Necessaries Control Ordinance, Raw Fish Distribution Control Regulations, etc. adopted in parallel, also serve to indicate the direction of control measures taken by the Government in the period under review. Two important problems which were seriously studied parallel with the proposed economic reorganization were the treatment of smaller and medium-sized industries and that of newly-rising financial interests. The vocational change and unemployment problem of smaller and medium-sized enterprises called for solution again since the time when the Government decided upon the essentials of the new economic structure through the strengthened enforcement of the priority system. As measures to cope with the situation, the National Recovery Bank, National Vocational Guidance Office and National Labor Training Camp were established, while a plan was outlined for adjustment of machinery and iron-steel industries for the purpose of improving the status of smaller and medium-scale industries.

Side by side with the revision of low prices, the Government came to give serious consideration to the absorption of purchasing power. Shipping companies, which played an important role in Japan's foreign trade, were left to

autonomous control at the start of the Sino-Japanese hostilities, but have come to be steadily placed under semi-governmental control in regard to distribution and prices. The Government enacted the Shipping Control Ordinance in February 1940, and decided upon the essentials of the national shipping control policy in September, thus steadily completing the State control over shipping.

The second Konoe Cabinet barely managed to ride out the storm of aggravated national and international situation through the three months of the 76th session of the Imperial Diet. But the demand for further strengthening of the administrative power of the Government after the outbreak of Russo-German war compelled Prince Konoe to effect a thorough reorganization of the cabinet and the second Konoe Cabinet tendered resignation to the Throne on July 16. His Majesty the Emperor ordered Prince Konoe to be the Prime Minister for the third time on the following day and the third Konoe Cabinet was organized, on the 18th.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet
The 76th session of the Imperial Diet was convened at Tokyo on December 24, 1940, and its actual business was commenced on January 21 of the following year to be continued until March 1, the number of sitting days only 40, the shortest in the history of ordinary sessions. Besides giving approval to 16 budgetary bills without any amendment, the Diet passed 87 governmental bills, including such important

bills, for strengthening wartime measures, as the Revised Penal Code, the Act for Revising the National General Mobilization Law, the Revised Public Peace Preservation Law and the new National Defense Security Law. The singular characteristic of the 76th session was that no party oration or interpellation was heard because of the dissolution of all political parties during latter half of 1940 as mentioned above. But all the members of both Houses were united in supporting the Government in its efforts to accomplish important policies for bringing about the China Affair to a satisfactory conclusion and to properly deal with difficult problems arising out of the grave international situation of the country, and the House of Representatives adopted a decision for encouraging the Government for enforcing control measures on national economy, while the House of Peers adopted another decision supporting the Government in the efforts of surmounting all difficulties confronting the advance of the nation toward a greater future. The formal closing ceremony was held on March 26 as usual, but the session finished its main business on March 1, to give the Government time free for taking quick actions at any emergency.

The 4 year term of office of the members of the House of Representatives became due with April 1941, most of the present members being elected at the 20th general election of April 30, 1937. But it was postponed one year, the 21st general election to be conducted at the end of April 1942.

POLITICAL AFFAIRS DURING 1941-42

The United States enforced freezing restrictions against Japanese assets held in that country as from July 26, 1941, as a direct retaliation to Japan's joint-defense agreement with French Indo-China and the resultant despatch of Japanese forces to Indo-China. Britain followed the United States in enforcing similar measures against Japanese assets, and also notified the Japanese Government on July 26 the abrogation of three commercial and trade treaties with Japan. The Japanese Government immediately decided to take retaliatory measures and the Foreigners Transactions Control Regulations were promulgated on July 28 in order to control all assets and transactions of Americans and

British subjects in this country (See pp. 320-322, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42). The diplomatic relations between Japan and the United States became worse and worse, and the negotiations between the two countries which had been commenced at Washington in the spring of 1941 finally culminated in the rupture of their friendly relations during past 87 years or since 1854 when the Amity Treaty between them was first concluded, tracing such a course as mentioned in the chapter on "Foreign Relations."

Japan's political affairs during 1941-42 may be said to have centered round the diplomatic issue, the consequent outbreak of the Greater East Asia War on December 8 and the development of the

War in the South Sea regions.

Change of Cabinet The third Konoé Cabinet resigned on October 16, on account of a division of opinion among its members, and the Tojo Cabinet came into power on October 18 with General Hideki Tojo as Premier, and those members whose names and careers are given in the "Present Cabinet" in the chapter on "Government."

The 77th Session of the Diet The 77th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo on November 15. In his address, on the 17th, before the Diet, Premier Tojo said in reference to the international crises around Japan as follows:

"... Japan entered into an agreement with the Vichy Government for the joint defense of French Indo-China and in accordance with this agreement our reinforcements were despatched to South Indo-China in the latter part of July. But Great Britain, the United States and the Netherlands East-Indies viewed these legitimate measures of self-defense with suspicion and misgivings. They froze our assets in their countries and by resorting to virtually complete embargoes enforced an economic blockade and at the same time rapidly augmented their military measures against our country. It hardly requires an explanation that economic blockade resorting to as between non-belligerent countries constitutes a measure little less hostile in character than armed warfare. . . .

"The Japanese Government, in the peace-loving spirit which has inspired the nation since the foundation of the Empire, are even now devoting their utmost efforts to a diplomatic settlement in order to safeguard the existence and prestige of the Empire and to establish a new order in East Asia. The Japanese Government expect that (1) the third Powers will refrain from obstructing a successful conclusion of the China Affair which Japan has in view; (2) The countries surrounding our Empire will not only refrain from presenting a direct military menace to our Empire, but nullify such measures of hostile character as economic blockade and restore normal economic relations with Japan; and (3) Utmost efforts will be exerted to prevent the extension of the European War and the spread of the disturbances into East Asia."

A bill for increasing the State revenue,

mainly in indirect taxes, by 630 million yen in an average fiscal year was passed by the Diet, partly with the purpose of absorbing the surplus purchasing power and curbing the consumption of material for purposes of extravagance. A bill for the establishment of an Industrial Equipment Corporation was approved by the Diet. The proposed corporation is to build the equipment of important industries which are required to be set up by the State, and to utilize idle equipment in time of war. The Session was closed on November 21, after passing 4 budgetary bills, 5 bills for amending existing laws and 2 new laws, including the tax increase regulations and the law concerning the establishment of the Industrial Equipment Corporation, besides giving sanction to one Imperial Ordinance and a provisional postal regulation.

The Imperial Diet, at the 77th session, was organized with the following political groups:

The House of Peers

Imperial Princes	16
Kayo-kai	45
Kenkyu-kai	165
Kosei-kai	68
Dowa-kai	32
Koyu Club	31
Dosei-kai	25
Non-Party Club	23
Individuals	10
Total	415

House of Representatives

Yokusan Giin Domei	334
Doko-kai	37
Ko-A Giin Domei	26
Giin Club	11
Dojin Club	8
Individuals	17
Total	432

The Greater East Asia War and the 78th Session of the Diet With the purpose of rallying the whole nation for the successful execution of the Greater East Asia War which began on December 8, the 78th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo on December 15.

The brilliant victories in the Pacific up to that date as recorded in the article "The Greater East Asia War," Chapter VII, National Defense (Section II), have more than answered the national confidence in the Imperial Army and Navy and the expectation of the Throne and the subjects, who felt to have come out

of the darkness on December 8 when they listened to the first radio announcement early in the morning that the Imperial Army and Navy had entered the conditions of war against American and British forces in the Southwestern Pacific. That announcement only was enough to bring the nation to a great joy and to a firm decision that they would surely win victory over enemy countries, even before obtaining any report of the outcome. Japan had fought several international wars. But there was no occasion comparable with this one in that the whole nation have been united in one heart with full confidence in their defense forces and conviction in the national power, although the adversaries are much more powerful than former enemies.

On the same day the august Imperial Rescript declaring war against the United States and the British Empire was granted and the Government announcements followed calling forth the time-honored loyalty and patriotism of all subjects to the Throne and the country. The full text of the Imperial Rescript is given in Chapter VI, but it says in part:

" It has been truly unavoidable and far from our wishes that Our Empire has now been brought to cross swords with America and Britain. . . . Moreover these two Powers, including other countries to follow suit, increased military preparations on all sides of Our Empire to challenge us. They have obstructed by every means our peaceful commerce and finally resorted to a direct severance of economic relations, menacing gravely the existence of Our Empire. The situation being such as it is, Our Empire for its existence and self-defense has no other recourse but to appeal to arms and to crush every obstacle in its path. . . . We rely upon the loyalty and courage of Our subjects in Our confident expectation "

The 78th Session sat only two days as an extraordinary session for giving approval to the war measures of the Government, and passed a budget and 8 acts relating to war, expressing hearty thanks to His Majesty's brave soldiers and sailors and national decision for carrying the war to the final victory.

The 79th Session of the Diet The 79th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo on December 24. It attained an epochmaking achievement in

passing many important budgetary bills, including the extraordinary military budget of 18,000 million yen and the ordinary 1942-43 budgets of 8,837 million yen, and 84 bills, and adopting a resolution on attaining the full purpose of the Greater East Asia War through all difficulties. It finished its work practically by February 14, and was formally closed on March 26, 1942, in great satisfaction over its own achievement and the victories of the Imperial forces in Malaya, Java, Burma and Luzon fronts.

The political, economic and military affairs in Japan since the outbreak of the war and Japan's intentions were well described in ministerial speeches made before the Diet on January 21, February 16 and March 12 which are hereunder quoted.

Prime Minister General Hidéki Tojo said in part as follows:

"It is indeed a matter for congratulation that, since the beginning of the War of Greater East Asia, the Imperial forces have achieved brilliant victories wherever they went, carrying everything before them, and have already destroyed, in a short space of time, most of the enemy's strategic points in Greater East Asia. Pressure upon the Chungking régime, too, has been increasingly strengthened, while our defense in the North is secure and adamant. The power and prestige of our Empire is thus being enhanced both at home and abroad. This is solely attributable to the august virtue of His Majesty and for this we cannot but be profoundly impressed. To the loyal and brave officers and men of the Imperial Army and Navy, who are winning these signal victories over a wide area by fighting with courage and vigour, overcoming all adverse elements, I wish to express my profound appreciation of and pay tribute to their fortitude and accomplishments. I wish also to tender my sincere respect to the spirits of those who have died in defense of the country, and extend my deep sympathy to their families as well as to the wounded officers and men. . . .

The United States and the British Empire are, however, the countries which boast of their wealth and power as the greatest in the world, having for many years consolidated the foundation for their domination of the world. Even though they have suffered overwhelming defeats in the opening of the war, it is not difficult to imagine that they will

stubbornly resist us and try to turn the tide of the war. We must, therefore, be prepared for difficulties of various sorts which may arise in the future and that the present war will become a protracted one. Accordingly, this war remains indeed to be fought hereafter. In order to fulfill the purpose of the war, the whole nation must persevere in whatever difficulties and tribulations that may confront them with a firm conviction of ultimate victory and thus serve the country. It is this very spirit of industry, of thrift, of reverence for valour, and of sacrifice for the State that is absolutely indispensable not only for overcoming the present crisis but also for assuring the future progress and prosperity of our Empire.

Japan is now vigorously proceeding with the great task of establishing the sphere of common prosperity of Greater East Asia, while prosecuting military operations on a most extensive and grand scale with the total strength of the nation. The basic policy of establishing the Greater East Asian Co-prosperity Sphere has its origin in the great ideal which guided the foundation of our Empire, its aim being to enable each country and people in that part of the world to have its proper place and demonstrate its inherent character and to secure thereby an order of co-existence and co-prosperity based on moral principles with Japan as its nucleus. Its establishment is to extend over a vast area and is to be realized through our cooperation with different peoples. The regions which will newly participate in this work of construction are those which, though abounding in various resources, have had the progress of their civilization greatly impeded due to the ruthless exploitation of the United States and Great Britain for the past hundred years.

By including these regions, our Empire intends to establish a lasting peace in Greater East Asia with a new conception which will mark a new epoch in the annals of mankind and to proceed to construct a new world order in conjunction with our Allies and friendly Powers in Europe. This is truly an unprecedentedly grand undertaking, and its success is a condition prerequisite to leading our successes in armed combat to ultimate victory.

It is the intention of the Government that, in this construction, the areas essential for the defense of Greater East

Asia shall be controlled and dealt with by Japan herself; with regard to other regions, appropriate measures will be taken as the war situation develops, in accordance with the traditions, cultures and other circumstances of their respective peoples.

The Imperial Army and Navy forces have already occupied Hongkong, secured the greater part of the Philippines, brought nearly all of the Malay Peninsula under their control and recently occupied strategic points of the Netherlands East Indies. Of these regions, Hongkong and the Malay Peninsula have for many years been the British possessions serving as bases for disturbing the peace of East Asia. Therefore, Japan not only will eradicate thoroughly the sources of such evil but will even convert these places into bulwarks for the defense of Greater East Asia. As regards the Philippines, if the peoples of those islands will hereafter understand the real intentions of Japan and offer to cooperate with us as one of the partners for the establishment of the Greater East Asian Co-prosperity Sphere, Japan will gladly enable them to enjoy the honor of independence. As for Burma, what Japan contemplates is not different from that relating to the Philippines.

With respect to the Netherlands East Indies and Australia, if they continue as at present their attitude of resisting Japan, we will show no mercy in crushing them. But, if their peoples come to understand Japan's intentions and express willingness to cooperate with us, we will not hesitate to extend them our assistance, with full understanding, for the benefit of their welfare and progress.

It is really regrettable that the Chungking régime is still continuing its meaningless resistance against us. Japan will thoroughly destroy that régime. I am firmly convinced, however, that it is high time that all of the four hundred millions of the Chinese people saw the great change in the world situation in its true light and joined in the glorious task of constructing the sphere of common prosperity in Greater East Asia by discarding once for all their time-old dependence upon the United States and Great Britain.

It is to be sincerely felicitated that the peoples of Manchoukuo, China under the Nanking Government, and Thailand, in unity with us, are putting forth ceaseless efforts for the construction of the Great

er East Asian Co-prosperity Sphere and that French Indo-China also is cooperating with us to the same end.

We are profoundly gratified that our Allies, especially Germany and Italy, are steadily winning victories in common with our Empire for the establishment of a new world order. We intend to strengthen further our solidarity with these allied Powers in military, diplomatic, economic and various other phases and go forth toward the attainment of the common purpose.

The constructive undertaking contemplated by our Empire will, in the early stages of war, be commenced under military administration, beginning with those which are essential for the prosecution of the war. Meanwhile preparations will be made for future construction on a large scale, and as the defense and maintenance of peace and order are firmly secured, the scope of civilian participation will be extended. In view of the fact that our plan of Greater East Asian construction is one that will determine the fortunes of the Empire for generations to come, it is necessary to perfect preparations to the fullest possible extent. The Government intend, therefore, to leave nothing to be desired in the formulation and execution of the plan, by mobilizing all the best minds and talents in Government and civilian circles and by securing their wholehearted cooperation.

Considering such circumstances as I have stated, what is urgent for our country today is to devote our total strength to the purpose of further exploiting successes in armed combat, so as to bring the enemies to their knees, and, at the same time, to accelerate the strengthening of our power to prosecute the war, thereby ensuring our position for winning ultimate victory. It is the firm belief of the Government that various measures should also be concentrated on this purpose.

Consequently, the Government are desirous of establishing programs in all branches of administration necessary for the war and of executing them speedily. For the purpose of maintaining and augmenting wartime productive capacity, the Government intend to concentrate, on priority basis, materials, labor, electric power, funds, etc. on superior and urgent enterprises, thereby effecting the maximum utilization of the existing equipment and, at the same time, to pay special attention to the expansion

of production of important national defense industries. They also intended to leave no room for improvement in perfecting the wartime food policy in order to ensure the people's livelihood. In view of the fact that the most important problem at present is not an insufficiency of resources but rather the question of perfecting communication and transportation facilities, the Government desire to improve the means of communication and transportation by exerting special efforts to the construction of vessels.

Since the opening of the war, the scope of activities of our people has notably expanded with their responsibilities having steadily grown in importance. The improvement of the qualities of the people and an increase of population have accordingly become essential, not only for the prosecution of the war but also for the completion of various constructive enterprises. To this end, the Government intend to put forth utmost efforts for the renovation and reinvigoration of education in general and for the fundamental readjustment of the institutions and systems for people's health and medical treatment."

Finance Minister Okinori Kaya revealed the economic conditions of the country in 1941 and the future plan of the Government in his speech as follows:

"During the last year the conditions of our financial circles continued to progress in peace without showing any sign of disturbances in spite of the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia. Thus, although the Government funds have continued to be distributed to reach an enormous amount during the last few years, the back flow of these funds has on the whole been realized advantageously and the note issue at the end of last year stood at ¥6,231,000,000, which, though representing an increase of ¥1,301,000,000 as compared with ¥4,930,000,000 at the end of the year before last, has favorably decreased after the turn of the new year. In the interim, the bank deposits increased by ¥6,611,000,000 during the last twelve months, the postal savings mounting by ¥1,650,000,000 during the same period. The capital market also made favorable progress with the new issues of corporation bonds amounting to a huge total of ¥2,649,000,000.

The flotation of public bonds reached

the figure of ¥8,782,000,000 last year, but during the same period as much as ¥7,366,000,000, or 83.9 per cent of the whole amount, was absorbed.

As for the public bonds floated since the outbreak of the China Affair, these have totalled ¥26,361,000,000, of which ¥21,827,000,000, or 82.8 per cent of the total, has been digested. This is quite a commendable result. However, their flotation is expected to continue to climb during and after the 17th fiscal year of Showa (1942-1943), and it will have to become increasingly imperative for us to endeavor for the satisfactory digestion of public bonds.

In the operation of wartime finance, the importance of taxation is too obvious to need any comment, and the people on the home front have demonstrated their patriotism by paying their tax dues in a most satisfactory manner. Hence, in spite of their added tax burden due to the tax increases enforced recently, the payment of taxes has shown extremely satisfactory results to our genuine gratification. Meanwhile the Government, after careful deliberation on the requirements of finances and their bearing on the daily life of the people as well as on the national economy as a whole, have formulated a project of tax increases affecting the whole system of taxation, and we have already put into practice with your consent a series of increases in the rates of the brewery tax and other levies, most of which are indirect taxes. Furthermore, we have decided to increase the rates of a number of taxes, most of which are direct levies, and have introduced into the present Diet a bill calling for necessary revisions in the Taxation Law, with the object of providing for the expected increases in the Extraordinary Military Expenditures.

As for foreign trade, our economic relations with the United States, the British Empire, and the Netherlands East Indies were competently severed due to the freezing of Japanese assets by these countries in July of last year, followed by the start of the War of Greater East Asia. On the other hand, however, our trade with Manchoukuo and China is making a steady progress. We feel strongly encouraged, from the viewpoint of the projected Co-prosperity Sphere of Greater East Asia, to see that our trade with French Indo-China and Thailand is registering considerable increases both in imports and exports. Thus, as the result of our economic

activities abroad having come to be concentrated on the areas within the Co-prosperity Sphere of Greater East Asia, it has devolved upon us to make efforts for the planned interflow of materials within the co-prosperity sphere as quickly as possible. In this connection we also recognize the urgent need at effecting a radical revision of our past policy in the field of international banking relations and enforce such a policy as will meet the new situation on the basis of a new plan.

The previous foreign exchange policy, which we aimed at preserving the balance of international payments between our country and third Powers and also at stabilizing and maintaining the exchange rates based on the dollar and the sterling, has already lost the weight it used to carry when our economic relations with foreign countries depended to a considerable extent on the United States and Great Britain for operation. And now, having severed our relations with American and British economy, we ought to lay a primary emphasis on such financial measures as will facilitate the interflow of materials within the Co-prosperity Sphere and speedily expedite the development of natural resources, in order to meet the urgent need to augment national defense economy for the Co-prosperity Sphere as a whole. From a viewpoint such as this, the Government abolished the old foreign exchange rates which were based on the dollar and the sterling at the end of last year, and officially fixed independent exchange rates with the yen as their standard. Moreover, in the future, we intend to liquidate all American and British financial influences from the southern regions and make the currencies in these regions gradually adopt the yen as the basis in fixing their values, specifically for the purpose of introducing a procedure to effect settlement of accounts between these regions at Tokyo in the yen and thereby contribute to the establishment of the financial sphere of Greater East Asia with Japan as its center.

Hitherto Japan has been engaged in expanding productive capacity in the general interest of the Japan-Manchoukuo-China bloc as a whole, and now it goes without saying that it is imperative for us to develop most effectively and utilize the rich natural resources in which the southern regions abound so as to facilitate the execution of the

present war and at the same time hasten the establishment of a system of self-sufficiency within the Co-prosperity Sphere of Greater East Asia. In other words, we are confronted with the urgent necessity of frustrating the military strength of the enemies on the one hand and accelerate the development of natural resources on the other. In view of these necessities, the Government have decided to organize what is to be known as the Nampo Kalhatsu Kinko, or the Chest for Development of Southern Regions, to pave the way for satisfactory execution of the currency and credit policy for those regions, and have introduced into the present Diet a bill calculated to meet this need.

The recent revision of the foreign exchange rates with the yen as the standard, as well as the preparation on the part of the Bank of Japan to extend its financial activities abroad is indicative of the forward step which is going to be taken in the field of banking within the Co-prosperity Sphere of Greater East Asia centering around Japan. In the southern regions, our military notes are now being warmly received by the inhabitants wherever they are introduced and their circulation is proving extremely satisfactory, and coupled with the proposed establishment of the Nampo Kalhatsu Kinko and the various measures to be taken in Tokyo and also on the spot, the situation just mentioned will enable us to take necessary step to meet the requirements of the currency and banking problems in the southern regions.

In order to put into full motion the total strength of a nation in time of war, it is imperative to operate funds under proper control to its best possible advantage, while endeavoring to accumulate as much funds as possible at the same time. For this purpose, the various existing financial organs will have to be structurally readjusted. First of all, it is absolutely necessary to make the Bank of Japan, which is our central bank of issue, cooperate most closely with the Government as the nucleus of our currency and banking system, and thus take charge of the regulation of currency, the readjustment of the money market, and the maintenance and development of the credit system along the lines of the national policy and otherwise fulfil its duties as the central financial organ of the Co-prosperity Sphere of Greater East Asia. Accordingly, the

Government have now made it known that the organization of the Bank of Japan is to be radically reformed, the system of conversation for the Bank of Japan notes abolished and a system of controlled currency completely independent of gold adopted to keep pace with the march of time. This reform, however, merely means the confirmation of a fait accompli, and will not affect the importance of gold in any way.

Further, in order to perfect the control on credit and the operation of capital, it has been considered appropriate to readjust the organic structure of financial institutions on a legal basis and induce them to exercise self-discipline, insuring their positive cooperation with the Government in banking control. Accordingly, the Government are now making necessary preparations with a view to inaugurating an organization aimed at controlling financial undertakings under the provisions of the National General Mobilization Law.

It is the primary objective of wartime economy to provide for a smooth supply of funds to the munitions industry, those industries in which productive capacity is to be expanded, and other urgent industries. Therefore, all kinds of financial establishment in our country ought to render concerted efforts to this end. The functions of the banks which have hitherto been chiefly concerned with commercial banking are now being so changed as to take care of wartime industrial banking, with the result that all the financial organs are gradually assuming the character of wartime financial institutions.

However, some of the strategic wartime industries apparently are in the nature of things not in a position to receive sufficient supply of funds, were they to depend entirely on the ordinary processes employed by the existing financial organs. In view of the tendency of such industries growing further in scope in the future, the need has been seen of establishing a special financial machinery in order to assure them the supply of necessary funds. It is for this reason that we have introduced into the present Diet a legislative measure concerning the Chest for Wartime Banking. It may be said that the reorganization of the Bank of Japan, the establishment of an organization for the control of banking and the inauguration of the Chest as already mentioned, may, coupled with the creation of the Chest for Develop-

ment of the Southern Regions and with the cooperation of the existing financial organs, go a long way in perfecting the banking system in charge of our wartime economy.

It is also quite imperative to make the prices of securities appropriate and stable with a view to making smooth the circulation of funds for expanding productive capacity and other industrial purposes and protecting the people's savings. From this viewpoint, the Government have taken various measures to stabilize the prices of securities and corporation stocks, checking unreasonable rise or fall in prices to avoid all untoward fluctuations ascribable to excessive speculations. As regards the insurance companies, the Government intend to direct them in such a way as to enable them to cultivate new fields and amplify their functions, in view of the fact that they have hitherto contributed greatly to the maintenance and stabilization of the people's daily life and also to the accumulation of necessary funds.

Our country has been carrying on a large-scale war in Greater East Asia for the past four and a half years, and during the interval the economic resources essential for our national defense have continued to grow considerably year after year, and if the rich natural resources in which the southern regions abound are developed and utilized satisfactorily, the future of our economic circles may be said to be exceedingly hopeful. However, in order to develop these natural resources and further to strengthen our national defense economy on the basis of such development, enormous materials, labor, technical knowledge and transport capacity will be needed, and the funds necessary for the projected expansion of productive capacity and for meeting the mounting war expenditures will reach staggering figures. In the meanwhile, it will become increasingly obligatory to withdraw necessary portions of the funds which are flooding the general public as the huge war expenditure continues to be paid out, such withdrawals of funds being calculated to safeguard a satisfactory operation of national economy. The success of absorption and accumulation of funds for this purpose will depend in large measure upon the augmentation and consolidation of the people's savings. Therefore, it is absolutely necessary for all members of the nation

to assist in increasing the sinews of war and other necessary funds of our country through the payment of their respective shares of the tax burden, and at the same time to redouble their efforts in performing their daily duties, practise thrift in their life as consumers and convert whatever they might be able to spare into their savings. Only by virtue of such savings on the part of the people will the collectoin of war funds, amplification of productive capacity and supply of necessary funds become possible. Furthermore, a favorable growth of the people's savings will at the same time serve as an indication of the satisfactory operation of the wartime financial and economic policy and of the comprehensive results it may achieve.

We are prepared for the resistance to be persistently continued over a long period on the part of the United States and the British Empire, whose Governments will in all likelihood concentrate the enormous resources of their nations to that end in spite of their miserable failure at the outset of the war, and being firmly determined to carry on the war to the bitter end until we win a complete victory and thereby establish the Co-prosperity Sphere of Greater East Asia. We are convinced of our ability to work out various financial and economic measures formulated on a comprehensive and grand scale and attain our objective through infallible efforts and inexhaustible endurance born of our fiery love for our fatherland of 100 million souls, a nation unparalleled in the whole world."

Premier Tojo's speech of February 16 contained congratulation for the fall of Singapore and wishes for India and warnings to Australia and New Zealand as follows:

"As has been already announced by the Imperial Headquarters, the Imperial forces have occupied Singapore yesterday, February 15.

At the outset of the war, following the issuance of the gracious Imperial Rescript, our forces immediately crushed the main body of the American-British fleet; and in eighteen days they brought Hongkong to submission; in twenty-six days they occupied Manila, and in seventy days they brought about the fall of Singapore. Thus the important bases of the United States and Britain for their encroachment on East Asia for many years past have all fallen into the hands of the Imperial forces.

Such strategic points as Borneo, Celebes, and New Britain have also all been occupied by our forces, and moreover, the main body of the Dutch East Indies fleet has been annihilated. The Imperial Army and Navy are now carrying out operations in a vast area, the largeness of whose scale is unparalleled in the history of mankind. . . . Singapore and other strategic points, which have hitherto been the bases of the United States and Britain for the invasion and domination of East Asia, are resurrecting with boundless hope and glory as bases for the construction of a new order and defense for the peoples of Greater East Asia. Hongkong, the Philippines, and the Malay Peninsula are already starting on the road for such new construction with steady strides.

On this epochal occasion I wish to reiterate once more the real intentions of Japan to the peoples and countries concerned.

The Imperial forces are steadily carrying out offensive operations in the region of Burma also with her strategic points falling one after another into their hands. But the true intention of Japan in marching into Burma is to crush British military bases as well as to cut off the route for American and British aid to the Chiang Kai-shek régime. It is farthest from the thought of Japan to regard the Burmese people as her enemy. Therefore, if the Burmese people take full cognizance of the actual situation of Britain, who has exposed her utter inability, and offer to co-operate with Japan by shaking off the shackles of the British rule of many years past, Japan will gladly extend them its positive co-operation for the establishment of Burma for the Burmese, the long-cherished aspiration of the Burmese people.

It is a golden opportunity for India having, as she does, several thousand years of history and splendid cultural tradition, to rid herself of the ruthless despotism of Britain and participate in the construction of the Greater East Asia co-prosperity sphere. Japan expects that India will restore her proper status as India for the Indians and she will not stint herself in extending assistance to the patriotic efforts of the Indians. Should India fail to awaken to her mission forgetting her history and tradition, and continue as before to be beguiled by the cajolery and manipulation of Britain and act at her beck and call, I

cannot but fear that an opportunity for the renaissance of the Indian people would be forever lost.

As regards the Dutch forces which continue to resist us by cooperating with the United States and Britain, Japan will thoroughly crush them. However, if the Indonesian people understand our real intention and cooperate with us for the greater East Asian construction, we will respect their desire and tradition and emancipate them from the despotic rule of the refugee Dutch Government, which is merely a puppet of the United States and Britain, and make their present region a land of contentment for the Indonesian people.

Australia and New Zealand also should avoid a useless war with their reliance upon the United States and Britain who are not worth any dependence. Whether the peoples of these regions will or will not enjoy happiness and welfare depend entirely upon whether or not their Governments understand the real intentions of Japan and take a fair and just attitude. How Britain has used and treated the officers and men of the Australian and New Zealand forces in Europe, in Hongkong and again in the Malay Peninsula must be fully known to the peoples of Australia and New Zealand themselves."

Premier Tojo again enunciated Japan's intention and wishes toward British India and Indian people in his speech of March 12 in the following words:

"As to the Indian people, Japan entertains, of course, not the slightest thought of antagonizing them. I desire, however, to reiterate clearly that the determination of Japan to crush thoroughly the American and British influence will undergo no change whatever. Burma for the Burmese is already on its way to realization. It is my firm belief that now is the time to establish India for the Indians, which has for many years been the aspiration of the 400 million Indian people. Great Britain has for long deceived and continued her arbitrary rule over India. What the reality of the British promise made to India in the last Great War was must be still fresh, I believe, in the memory of the Indian people. Now Great Britain is trying again to deceive India with all sorts of cajolery. If the leaders of India, misled by such British cajoleries, betray Indian people and thus fling away this Heaven-sent opportunity, I believe, there

will be no chance for saving India forever and there will be no greater misfortune befalling the 400 million Indian people. Will India rise as India for the Indians to have the honor of cooperating for the establishment of the Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere, or will she permanently stoop under the shackles of the Anglo-American Powers to leave her name as a slave to posterity? She is now face to face with the time when she should liquidate her past, see the new situation correctly and make her final decision."

Enforcement of Important Laws

During March and April many important laws which passed the 79th Session of the Diet or others were promulgated and enforced to firmly reorganize the nation in the emergency. For instance the Important Material Management Corporation Law was enforced as from March 5, the new Bank of Japan Law from March 20, and the Temporary Sea Transportation Administration Ordinance from March 25 to realize the State management of all ships of more than 100 gross tons in the case of steamers and more than 150 gross tons in the case of motor or sailing ships, the Perpetual Lease Resumption Ordinance on April 1 to put an end to the disgraceful system of granting extraterritorial rights to foreign nationals (the abolition of the system had been proclaimed in 1937, but time was required for obtaining the complete consent of the governments concerned), and laws and ordinances concerning the increase of income tax and other taxes as from April 1.

The 21st General Election. General election which had been due 1941 and postponed one year was carried out on April 30, 1942. The Government, in spite of its pre-occupation in gigantic military operations, resolutely carried out the general election for the House of Representatives. On February 18, the seventy-second day after the start of the Pacific war, the Tojo Cabinet decided to hold it on April 30. Simultaneously, it adopted a four-point plan in order to conduct a campaign for holding the election in the line of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association program. The plan laid down that the general election should reinforce the national determination to win a convincing victory, that an unadulterated interest in politics should be aroused so as to organize a fresh, powerful Diet on the basis of

national service, that a nation-wide enthusiasm should be developed to return to the Diet only those candidates who are fit to render such service to the nation, and that, in view of the gravity of the situation confronting the nation, all election contests should be held in a fair and clean manner.

In his meeting with the representatives of various walks of life on February 23, Premier General Hideki Tojo stressed the necessity of holding a general election with a view to waging the war to a successful termination. The substance of his speech was as follows:

The Government has decided to hold a general election for the House of Representatives in the midst of the war of Greater East Asia, firstly because the election will provide the nation with an opportunity to tighten its determination with iron solidarity to conduct the war to a glorious end by concentrating its efforts for that purpose, and secondly because the situation which has made a phenomenal development since the commencement of the China Affair, especially since the outbreak of the war of Greater East Asia calls for fresh blood to be injected into the Diet.

On that occasion, the Premier solicited their services in enabling vigorous, able men to be returned to the Diet by the forthcoming election. For that purpose, he entrusted the representatives of various circles with the task of working out a formula, with the result that the thirty-three representatives met in a conference the same day and decided that a council for establishing a national service political organization be forthwith organized and that General Nobuyuki Abe be nominated its president. Soon after its inauguration, the newly-organized National Service Political Council (Yokusan Seijitaisai Kyogikai) met several times. On March 18, it registered with the Home Office as a political association. At the same time, it set up branches in all prefectures, and its nation-wide machinery was completed on March 20, when its membership throughout the country reached 800. On March 22, the branch managers of the Political Council met in a conference, General Abe presiding, and it was decided that the council would recommend candidates for the House of Representatives for building a new political structure. In his address to the meeting, General Abe said:

"The so-called new political structure cannot be built on an extraordinary

idea. Parliamentary government is possible only through the election system. For the establishment of a new political structure, it is essential that the nation's political interest should be concentratedly directed toward the right path through the general election. So far as formality is concerned, the general elections in the past had been quite free. All men who wanted to run for election were able to do so by notifying the Home Office to that effect. On the other hand, this free contest system led to the upsurge of various evils. Some candidates stood for election as mere publicity stunts, while some others desired to promote their selfish ends. This unhealthy tendency hindered the establishment of a political structure on the basis of Assistance to the Imperial Rule.

If a rational formula is worked out in connection with the candidacy for the Diet, it is easy to see that the nation's political interest will be heightened and concentrated in the right direction, because the voters will be able to go to the polling stations, full of confidence in the candidates whom they will support. The newly-organized National Service Political Council proposes to evolve this formula by recommending candidates for the Diet from among men, who are genuinely capable of meeting the State's requirements."

The National Service Political Council recommended a total of 466 candidates for all the seats of the House of Representatives. As against this, the number of "free" or independent candidates reached 613, and thus the aggregate number of candidates came up to 1,079, when the list of registration was closed.

The general election which came off on April 30 without any hitch had been preceded by an enlightenment campaign and a political movement centering on the recommendation system. The election proved a signal success for both the Government and the people. Out of 466 candidates, recommended by the National Service Political Council, 381 or more than 80 per cent., were returned to the Diet, while out of 613 "free" candidates only 85 were elected. Of the newly-elected members of the House of Representatives, 199 are sitting for the first time, of whom 170 were recommended by the National Service Political Council, the remaining 29 being "free" candidates. Reflecting national interest in the election, the percentage of absentee voters was but 17 per cent or 2,464,632 out of a total electorate roll of 14,506,294.

Cases of election irregularities were also remarkably few.

As stated by Premier Tojo, new blood has been injected into the Diet by the election with the return of a large number of able men, who might have felt shy of running for the election under the past "free" contest system. Among those who have been elected for the first time are Hiroya Ino, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Nobusuke Kishi, Minister of Commerce and Industry, Kazuye Miura, former Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Gon-ichi Kodaira, former Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Toshio Shiratori, former Ambassador to Rome, Nobutaka Shiohden, Yoshindo Takagi and Eijiro Tajima, all lieutenant-generals on the retired list, Masato Arakawa, retired major-general, Nerima Uyematsu, retired rear-admiral, Katsuji Mazaki, retired rear-admiral, and distinguished scholars and men active in cultural fields, such as Masamichi Royama and Shinjiro Honryo.

Birth of A New Political Association

The National Service Political Council which fulfilled its mission in successfully carrying the 21st general election of April 30, dissolved on May 5, and a new political association "the National Service Political Association" (Yokusan Seiji Kai) was organized on May 20.

On May 7 Premier Tojo invited 70 representative men of various circles to his official residence. He expressed his opinion in regard to the necessity of a strong political organization for the successful execution of the Greater East Asia War and asked them to find out the best means and lender service for its realization. A preparatory committee was formed by 20 of them, which decided to propose the formation of a political association under the name of "Yokusan Seiji Kai" (National Service Political Association) and adopted the draft principles, program, rules and declaration of the new party on May 14. The formal meeting for the organization of the proposed Yokusan Seiji Kai was held in the hall of the Dai To-A Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo on May 20. Over 900 people who represented different groups and circles all over Japan were present. The general meeting installed General Nobuyuki Abe as the President of the new political association and proclaimed the founding of Yokusan Seiji Kai, making decisions on its principles, program and other matters.

The 80th Session of the Diet

The 80th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo on May 25 and closed on the 29th. After the general election and along with the progress of the movement for organizing Yokusan Seiji Kai, all petty political parties dissolved on their own accord and the entire members of the House of Representatives entered the new party, although it is by no means organized in principle to have one and only party in the country. Consequently the procedures of the 80th Session were most simple in the history of the Imperial Diet, 444 members sitting in the House of Representatives. They chose Tadahiko Okada as the Speaker. The Diet approved a supplementary budget for shipbuilding in 1942-43, passed two revised laws, and adopted decisions to express hearty appreciation of the nation to the Imperial Army and Navy for what they had achieved in the Greater East Asia War. On May 27 the Diet listened to the Premier's address which is quoted here in its important parts.

"In a brief time, less than a half year, since the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, the Japanese forces have crushed enemy forces wherever they went, with the important areas in Greater East Asia having been occupied by our forces, and the naval forces of the United States and Britain have been virtually exterminated in the Pacific and Indian oceans. In the meantime, the Imperial Rescript has been granted as often as eight times in gracious appreciation of these victories. It is really unprecedented that we have been successively bestowed with this supreme honor and our national prestige has been greatly enhanced throughout the world. Furthermore, along with the continuous victories which are unparalleled in the world, new constructive undertakings are in progress in all areas on a grand scale and the object of the War of Greater East Asia is thus being steadily accomplished.

In conjunction with military operations in the South Sea region, the activities of the Japanese forces in China are steadily diminishing the power of the Chungking forces. In the north, the security of our defense is as solid as the rock. This indeed is due to the August Virtue of His Imperial Majesty under which the Japanese forces are carrying out splendid tactics and energetic operations. I together with our entire nation

wish to express our profound thanks and our sincere gratitude to all the officers and men, and, at the same time, to tender our profound homage to the spirits of many brave and loyal officers and men who have laid down their lives for the country.

It is a matter for our mutual congratulation that the peoples of Greater East Asia who have hitherto suffered under the shackles of the United States and Britain have now been embraced in the great spirit of "Hakko Ichiu" have reverted to their original and proper state and have made a step forward, sharing with us the task of establishing a new world order.

In perfect co-ordination with these signal accomplishments of our expeditionary forces, the various establishments for our home defense have been increasingly replenished and strengthened. At the same time the patriotic spirit of the one hundred million of our people has been enhanced day by day, their indomitable will and determination to fight through the War of Greater East Asia to a successful conclusion being concretely manifested in their simple and virile everyday life.

However, the present favorable situation both at home and abroad means but a prelude to an ultimate victory in the prosecution of the war. The fact that the decision of victory or defeat of our war against the United States and Britain lies in the outcome of total war to be waged hereafter requires no explanation. I firmly believe that, since the opening of the war when the Imperial Rescript declaring the war was granted, it has been and will remain the inflexible determination of our entire nation never to sheathe the sword of righteousness unless and until the influence of the Anglo-American Powers, with their dream of dominating the world, has been completely uprooted.

With the recent general election as a turning point, the surging tide of patriotic enthusiasm of the people developed into an all-engulfing trend directed toward the complete prosecution of the war as well as the firm establishment of a political structure for assisting the Imperial Rule. This trend pervaded all corners of the country. These spontaneous political desires and aspirations of the entire nation have ultimately found their concrete expression in the organization of the Yokusan Seiji-kai. Thus an organization embodying a new and

vigorous political influence has been consummated fulfilling many years aspirations of the whole nation.

In response to such enthusiasm of the people, the Government decided that all kinds of people's movements be brought as far as possible under the guidance of the Taisei Yokusan-kai, in order that they may attain healthy development through earnest and spontaneous efforts of the people themselves and that the Taisei Yokusan-kai may, in conformity with its increased missions, renovate its functions and reinvigorate its spirit and thus go forward as a central organ of all national movements for the assistance of the Imperial Rule and fulfilment of duties of the people to the Throne.

In consideration of this, the Government are endeavoring to simplify and intensify the affairs of various administrative organs so that surplus personnel may be diverted toward the replenishment of those who are actively engaged in various fields all over the region of Greater East Asia.

Now, I wish to take this occasion to speak briefly about the economic strength of our Empire. Japan's economy has hitherto strongly tended to depend upon the United States and Britain as the result of which we have constantly been restrained and menaced by those Powers. Early realizing this situation, the Government decided after the outbreak of the China Affair to devote their utmost efforts to remedy the defective points in our country's economy and to secure a self-sufficing position with regard to important defense materials. They have, therefore, endeavored to carry on the hostilities in China on the one hand, and to replenish essential defense materials by formulating a four-year plan on the other. As the result of these efforts our economic strength had grown to such an extent by the time immediately preceding the present war that the country was able not only to counteract the Anglo-American pressure, but to enter ultimately into the War of Greater East Asia. Such a development is certainly the result of the toil and moid of every one of our nation, for whose assiduous efforts I wish to take this opportunity to express the deep appreciation of the Government.

By virtue of the magnificent victories of the Imperial forces since the opening of War of Greater East Asia, all the important resources for national defense in the regions of the south, such as oil,

rubber, tin and others, have come into our hands, and the independent and self-sufficing position of our national economy has been further strengthened due, also, to our previous efforts. In other words, with the combined resources of Japan, Manchoukuo and China and those of the South Seas, the basis of self-supplying productive economy of our Empire has been perfectly consolidated and our wartime economy further strengthened so that we can completely replenish the supplies depleted by consumption accompanying the progress of the armed combat. At the same time, our plan of expanding fighting strength has been placed on an immutable foundation. The future of our Empire's economy is thus full of promise. Moreover, the situation has so developed as to cut off the supplies of essential national defense resources to the enemy countries and the blow being dealt to them thereby must be very heavy.

In conformity with the new situation described above the Government, with a view to augmenting speedily our power of prosecuting the war by giving full play to the comprehensive economic strength of all areas of Greater East Asia, have made definite plans for material mobilization as well as productive expansion for the current year and, with these plans as the nucleus, they have formulated various schemes concerning transportation, labor, exchange of goods and capital, etc., adopting meanwhile all necessary measures for the realization of these plans.

In view of the absolute importance to the prosecution of the total war of assuring the stability of our people's livelihood, especially food supplies, the Government expect to leave no stone unturned in utilizing the resources of the whole of Greater East Asia, taking into consideration at the same time the economic requirements of the various peoples inhabiting this region. Beginning with this year, therefore, they have established a new mobilization plan of goods concerning the necessities of life, for the realization of which they are receiving the whole-hearted cooperation of the fighting services. Due to the essential character of wartime economy the plan in part may entail for the time being some inconveniences and deficiencies which are really unavoidable. But I am very glad to be able to declare that, when it is considered from a broader

point of view, there is no cause whatever for any apprehension regarding the people's livelihood in the future however long the war may last.

Now, I wish to say a few words concerning our foreign relations. It is greatly encouraging that Japan, Manchoukuo, China and Thailand, sharing the same view of the purpose of the present war, are growing steadily more cordial in their mutual relations. On the tenth anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo, a short time ago, the Special Ambassador of Gratitude, His Excellency Chang Ching-hui, paid a visit to our country in obedience to the profound desires of the Emperor of Manchoukuo and having presented an Imperial Message to the Throne, conveyed to our Government and people the expression of sincere gratitude of Manchoukuo toward our country. His Imperial Majesty Highness Prince Nobuhito Takamatsu to Manchoukuo to felicitate the tenth anniversary of that country's founding. Furthermore, the President of the National Government of the Republic of China, Mr. Wang Ching-wei, in his capacity as the Chief Executive of that country, visited Manchoukuo contributing powerfully toward a closer friendship between Manchoukuo and China, and, in the meantime, he made a personal observation on the spot of the reality of the phenomenal progress which Manchoukuo has attained in ten years following its establishment. It has been decided that Mr. Chu Min-i will visit our shores as the Special Ambassador to Japan representing his Government. Meanwhile Thailand's Special Envoy for the Felicitation of the Japanese-Thailand Alliance Treaty, Lieutenant-General Phahol Pholphaynha Sena came to our country and presented to His Imperial Majesty a message from his Sovereign, after which he fully exchanged cordial amenities with various official and civilian circles of our country. The foregoing events are an eloquent expression of the ardent spirit of comradeship among Japan, Manchoukuo, China and Thailand, all of whom want to strengthen further their mutual cooperation and assistance in the political, financial, economic and military fields and to serve as propelling force for the establishment of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. Together with all of our people the Government wish to congratulate heartily on the situation of Greater East

Asia whose peoples are so firmly united.

I wish to avail myself of this opportunity of expressing the profound respect of the Japanese Government to our Allies, Germany and Italy, and other friendly Powers which are achieving great victories in unity continuing their indefatigable efforts and surmounting many difficulties in order to attain our common object of the war. Japan intends to continue her victorious campaigns, and, in conjunction with the magnificent fight of Germany and Italy against the United States and Britain, she expects to augment the comprehensive victories of these countries by putting forth her utmost efforts. In particular, she intends to carry on as a matter of course a close cooperation in the strategical sphere with her allies and thereby establish a new world order. The fact that the United States and Britain, irritated by their successive defeats and their gloomy future, are loudly clamoring that the present war is a racial war is nothing but a malicious intrigue to which they have always resorted in the past to deceive other peoples. It is a well-known fact throughout the world that the powerful unity of our Axis Powers, cooperating on the basis of justice, will never be shaken in the least by such mischievous scheme of the Anglo-American Powers.

The traditional crafty policy of the United States and Britain of securing their own expansion and comfortable life at the sacrifice of other peoples has now been universally exposed. It is greatly encouraging that in Burma, which has been cleansed by the gallant advance of the Imperial forces, the entire Burmese people, under the peaceful guidance of our forces, are accelerating the trend toward glorious independence. With all the advance bases of the British Empire for the defense of India having come into the possession of the Japanese forces, the golden opportunity is at hand for the Indian people to rise and attain their independence for which they have long aspired.

The fact that the British-Indian negotiations, with the British Lord Privy Seal, Sir Stafford Cripps, acting as the central figure, ended at last in rupture without accomplishing anything whatsoever, demonstrates that India has already become spiritually independent from Britain. Thus, the spiritual basis of British possession of India may be said to have disappeared already, and the

first historic step toward Indian independence has just been made.

There still remains in India a framework of British possession with various military establishments, and the military forces are being steadily increased. As long as there remain Anglo-American military forces in India Japan is determined inflexibly to crush them thoroughly. To our regret it is, indeed, unavoidable that in the progress of such campaign some misfortune may befall innocent Indians. What I expect at this juncture, however, is that the Indian people will rise with an intrepid spirit, expel the Anglo-American forces as well as their influence completely from India and thereby realize the independence of their Fatherland.

With the subjection of the enemy forces in Burma, the Chungking régime has finally become isolated: it is now plodding its way down to its inevitable fall. Due to the efforts of the Imperial forces in China, there has been an increasing number of Chungking officers and men who surrender and pledge allegiance to the National Government at Nanking, while the fighting spirit of the Chungking armies is fast waning day by day. Such is the pitiable fate of those who, knowing that they are in the wrong, refuse to make amends: Japan intends to deal the final crushing blow to the resistance of the Chungking régime.

Now that the southwestern Pacific has completely been brought under our control through the concerted operations of the invincible Japanese Army and Navy, Australia has become the so-called orphan of the Pacific. As the result of the Battle of the Coral Sea which recently took place in the vicinity of Australia, the naval forces in defense of that country have disappeared with nothing standing now to defend her before the onslaught of the Japanese forces. I wish, therefore, to remind the leaders of Australia at this juncture of my sincere desire that they will ponder what I had previously stated in this House, perceiving the international situation and considering Australia's geographical environ-

ments, and then courageously and speedily decide upon her most important step.

At this moment India is in commotion, Chungking on the verge of collapse, and Australia isolated!

Turning to Hongkong, Shōnan Island (Singapore), the Philippines and other areas, we find them in the process of becoming bases for the sphere of new construction as peace and order are being restored, and they are making great strides toward rehabilitation. Our control over the Pacific and Indian oceans is being extended day after day.

In contrast to this, Britain has lost her important overseas possessions together with the means of acquiring resources, while her internal system and structures have not yet been completed: she is now face to face with a very precarious situation. Suffering defeat after defeat, the United States, hiding the fatal losses from the public, is frantically resorting to false propaganda in order to allay the criticism arising within her borders to prevent estrangement of neutral countries. I cannot but pity the peoples of the United States and Britain who are fighting under such leaders as those who have given a position of trust to a commander who fled, deserting the helpless officers and men, or who are trying to cover up their defeat by loudly exaggerating the guerilla warfare on the sea, which are both futile and insignificant.

With a firm faith in the ultimate victory, Japan is now boldly pushing on her operations on a scale unparalleled in world history in its extent and precision. The Government expect, in perfect unison with the whole people, to replenish further the total strength of the nation to be ever more vigilant in victory, further enhance the traditional spirit of sacrifice and service to the State, and thereby attain speedily the object of the war and set the mind of His Imperial Majesty at rest."

(All data relating to the Greater East Asia War are compiled in Chapter VII, National Defense, Section II)

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CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN RELATIONS

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FOREIGN RELATIONS

(As regards Japan's foreign relations up to June 1940, see the Japan Year Books, 1937, 1940-41 and 1941-42)

FOREIGN RELATIONS DURING JUNE 1940-AUGUST 1941

Introduction Parallel with the development of the European War situation during June and July 1940, diplomatic reorientation was strongly urged in various circles concerned. As a result, the second Konoé Cabinet upholding the "New Structure" was organized to succeed the Yonai Cabinet on July 22. The second Konoé Cabinet announced four essentials of the basic national policy on August 1. The fundamental policy and the essentials of defense and diplomacy as put forth by the Government in the first and second provisions of the announcement read as follows:

(1) Fundamental Policy: The national policy of Japan shall be based upon the principle of "Hakko-ichiu" or the majestic concept of the eight corners of the world under one roof (implying universal brotherhood) conceived at the time of the founding of the Empire, and shall start with the construction of a new order in greater East Asia upon the foundation of a strong co-ordination among Japan, Manchoukuo and China with Japan as the pivot. For this purpose, Japan shall organize her national structure in a manner to cope with the new developments for the realization of this national policy through the unification of the forces of the Empire.

(2) National Defense and Diplomacy: In view of the new developments both at home and abroad, an adequate supply of armaments and war necessities shall be ensured to complete the defense structure of the Empire. Diplomacy for the present shall be directed toward the construction of a new order in the greater East Asia with the conclusion of the China Affair as its major objective. Constructive and elastic measures are to be adopted on the basis of a far-sighted view of the world transitions in order to promote the

prosperity of the nation.

Thus the diplomatic reorientation of Japan was completed in the summer of 1940. This was closely followed by the advance of Japanese forces into French Indo-China on September 23 and the conclusion of an alliance based upon economic and military cooperation among Japan, Germany and Italy on September 27. On November 30, the Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty was signed between Japan and the National Government of China at Nanking, and the Japan-Manchoukuo-China Joint Declaration was announced at the same time. Thus, the foundation for the settlement of the China Affair was laid and the ground for the construction of the greater East Asia co-prosperity sphere with the joint efforts of Japan, Manchoukuo and China was prepared.

Meanwhile, a border dispute between Thailand and French Indo-China became aggravated since the summer of 1940. In order to maintain peace and order within the greater East Asia co-prosperity sphere, the Japanese Government embarked upon a mediation between the two countries. As a result, the Thai-French Indo-China Peace Conference was opened in Tokyo from February 7, 1941, and a peace agreement was concluded on March 11. This was certainly an epochal diplomatic event in the greater East Asia co-prosperity sphere. Thus, through the conclusion of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance and the Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty, Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka laid the corner-stone for Japan's European policy and her policy for settling the China Affair.

Parallel with those developments, a drastic renovation of the personnel of the Foreign Office was carried out by Foreign Minister Matsuoka by a large-scale reshuffles involving more than thirty ambassadors and ministers. By

this unprecedented shake-up, Lieutenant-General Hiroshi Oshima, former Ambassador to Germany, was returned to his Berlin post and Lieutenant-General Yoshitsugu Tatekawa was appointed Ambassador to Moscow while Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura, former Foreign Minister, was named Ambassador to the United States and Mr. Zembel Horikiri was appointed Ambassador to Rome. On March 12, 1941, Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka left Tokyo on his historic trip to Germany and Italy. On his way to Europe, Matsuoka touched at Moscow and met Josef Stalin and other leaders of the Soviet Union. Arriving in Berlin on March 26 and staying there until March 30, Matsuoka had conversations with Reichsführer Adolf Hitler and other leaders of Germany. On March 31, he visited Rome and had talks with Premier Mussolini and other Fascist leaders. Leaving Rome on April 3 and making a stop-over at Berlin on the following day, Foreign Minister Matsuoka again visited Moscow on April 7. His conversations with Secretary-General Stalin and Foreign Commissar Molotov culminated in the signing of the Japan-Soviet Neutrality Pact on April 13. On the same day, Matsuoka left Moscow, returning to Tokyo on April 22. Since this trip abroad by Matsuoka was the first one to be undertaken by a Japanese Foreign Minister in office since 1905 when Marquis Jutaro Komura, then Foreign Minister, proceeded to Portsmouth for the Russo-Japanese Peace Conference, and especially as the visit was made in the midst of the European War, the European trip of Foreign Minister Matsuoka attracted a keen attention of the world. The conclusion of the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact, announced at a time when Soviet-German relations were reported to be tense, also created a great sensation throughout the world. Meanwhile, a war between Germany and the Soviet Union broke out on June 22. As a result, Japan's diplomatic relations became extremely delicate and complicated. On July 16, the second Konoe Cabinet resigned on the ground of "replenishing and strengthening the domestic structure," and the third Konoe Cabinet was organized on July 18 with Admiral Tetsujiro Toyoda, Minister of Commerce and Industry in the second Konoe Cabinet appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs succeeding

Yosuke Matsuoka. On July 29, the Franco-Japanese Agreement Regarding the Joint-Defense of French Indo-China was concluded and the additional dispatch of Japanese forces to French Indo-China was carried out. Britain, the United States and Holland immediately froze Japan's assets in opposition to the Franco-Japanese Agreement. To cope with the situation, Japan also resorted to a retaliatory measure by promulgating a Finance Ministry ordinance regarding the restrictions of transactions with foreigners on the basis of the Exchange Control Law and froze the assets of Britain, the United States and Holland in Japan.

In the course of these international developments, President Roosevelt of the United States and Premier Churchill of Britain met in conference on the Atlantic for three days from August 10 to 12. Thus, the United States' moves steadily came to assume a grave importance. On August 28, Premier Konoe sent a message to President Roosevelt, and opened the way for the start of diplomatic negotiations for the adjustment of the aggravated Japan-United States relations.

Developments Surrounding China Affair

The most noteworthy development concerning the China Affair in 1940-41 was the birth of the new National Government of China at Nanking with Wang Ching-wei as the leader. With the object of establishing diplomatic relations with the new National Government on the basis of the settlement of the China Affair and thereby stabilizing the foundation of the East Asia new order, the Japanese Government dispatched to Nanking, General Nobuyuki Abe, former Premier, as special envoy to Nanking on April 1 to hold conversations with Wang Ching-wei, Head of the Nanking Government.

Conclusion of Basic Treaty The negotiations between President Wang and General Abe lasted for about eight months, and on November 30 the Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty and the Japan-Manchoukuo-China Joint Declaration were concluded among General Abe, President Wang and Tsang Shih-i, Representative of the Manchoukuo Government. By virtue of this Basic Treaty, Japan formally recognized the National Government of China headed by Wang Ching-wei and through the Japan-Manchoukuo-China Joint Declara-

tion, China and Manchoukuo mutually exchanged formal recognition. Thus, a strong mutual cooperation was pledged among the three signatory countries.

The Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty consisted of nine articles, to which were annexed a protocol containing five articles and a supplementary protocol containing five items. The Japan-Manchoukuo-China Joint-Declaration consisted of three items. The texts of these documents are given in the Chapter on China. With the laying of the foundation of mutual political coordination among Japan, Manchoukuo and China, concrete plans were laid for the advancement of common interests. As a measure for stabilizing the economic bloc composed of Japan, Manchoukuo and China as a single unit which was approved by the Hiranuma Cabinet on August 1, 1939, the "Ten Year Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Construction Plan" was announced on November 5, 1940. Thus, the fundamental and concrete policy toward the completion of the reorganization of Japan's national economy, the strengthening of Japan-Manchoukuo-China economic bloc and expansion of the East Asia co-prosperity sphere was definitely fixed.

Wang Ching-wei, President of the National Government of China at Nanking, visited Japan, on a 14 day trip beginning June 14, 1941. On June 24, a joint statement of Premier Konoe and President Wang was made public, and on June 28 the extension of a ¥300,000,000 credit by Japan to the Nanking Government was announced, both these events being the first concrete results of the Sino-Japanese cooperation following the conclusion of the Sino-Japanese Basic Pact.

The Tientsin Issue, which attracted worldwide attention, pending settlement since July 1939, was brought to a solution after nearly a year when Foreign Minister Hachiro Arita reached an understanding with Sir Robert Craigie, British Ambassador to Japan, on June 19, 1940, and also with M. Charles Arsène-Henry, French Ambassador at Tokyo, on June 20. On June 19, 1940, Masayuki Tani, Foreign Vice-Minister, made strong representations to the Vichy Government through Ambassador Arsène-Henry regarding the ban on the transportation of Chungking-bound goods through French Indo-China. As a result, an agreement was reached to send a special commission, composed

of the representatives of the fighting services and the Foreign Office of Japan, to French Indo-China in order to watch the enforcement of the ban. Later, after the inauguration of the second Konoe Cabinet, negotiations were conducted between Foreign Minister Matsuoka and Ambassador Arsène-Henry regarding the promotion of friendly relations between Japan and France. The Matsuoka-Arsène-Henry talks resulted in an understanding between the Japanese and Vichy Governments on September 22, and the Japanese forces were stationed along the northern border of French Indo-China immediately. Almost at the same time, the Japanese Government also made strong representations to the British Government concerning the ban on the transportation of materials to Chungking through Burma and Hongkong. In response, the British Government, on July 17, declared that as in the past, no munitions materials would be transported through Hongkong and the ban on the transport of arms and munitions through Burma would be extended for three months starting July 18. However, upon the conclusion of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance on September 27, 1940, the British Government, in retaliation, notified to the Japanese Government on October 18 through Ambassador Craigie that the Burma route would be reopened as from October 18.

Japan's Diplomacy in South Seas Region

The advance of the Japanese forces to French Indo-China in September 1940, served to close an important supply route to Chungking and thereby contributed greatly to the settlement of the China Affair. It was also an epoch-making event in connection with the stabilization of Japan's policy toward the South Seas region, and a great stride forward toward the construction of the greater East Asia co-prosperity sphere. Close on the heels of the advance of the Japanese forces to French Indo-China, the mediation of the Thai-French Indo-China border dispute was consummated, resulting in the increasing promotion of friendly relations between Japan and French Indo-China. Simultaneously, negotiations were conducted between Japan and French Indo-China regarding a new economic agreement in order to strengthen economic relations between the two countries.

Beginning with October 21, a conference was opened for the purpose at Hanol with Hajimé Matsumiya, Japan's special envoy, participating. This was followed by a similar conference held in Tokyo from December 30 and the negotiations were conducted between Ambassador Matsumiya and Governor-General Robin of French Indo-China. The negotiations culminated in the conclusion of a new commercial treaty between the two countries on May 6.

Due to the Anglo-American maneuvers as well as disturbing operations by the de Gaulle elements later, however, peace of French Indo-China came to be threatened. In view of this situation, the Japanese Government negotiated with the Vichy Government and on July 29 an agreement regarding the joint-defense of French Indo-China was signed between Sotomatsu Kato, Japanese Ambassador to Vichy and M. Darlan, Vice-Premier of the Vichy Government. Simultaneously, an agreement concerning the details of the joint-defense was concluded between Major-General Sumita and Governor-General Jean De Coux at Saigon. As a result, additional Japanese forces were dispatched to Saigon and other parts of South Indo-China.

Japan's relations with Thailand became increasingly close and friendly as a result of a treaty concerning the continuance of friendly relations and the respect of mutual territorial integrity which was signed between Foreign Minister Arita and M. Phya Sri Sena, Thailand Minister to Japan, on June 12, 1940, and ratified in Bangkok on October 23, effective immediately.

In view of the aggravation of the Thai-French Indo-China border dispute since November 1940, the Japanese Government, through Ambassador Arsène-Henry, informally expressed to the Vichy Government its willingness to mediate in the dispute. On January 20, 1941, Foreign Minister Matsuoka formally proposed mediation to the Thai and French Governments and asked for the immediate suspension of hostilities. As a result, military action between Thailand and French Indo-China was suspended at 10 o'clock on the morning of January 28, and a truce agreement was signed between the two countries in the presence of Major-General Sumita, representing the Japanese Government, on board a Japanese warship at Saigon on January 29. On February 7, a peace

conference was opened in Tokyo under the chairmanship of Foreign Minister Matsuoka, attended by the Thailand delegation headed by Prince Varavaidyaka Varavarn and the French delegation led by Ambassador Arsène-Henry. Despite the secret maneuvers of Britain, the United States and other countries in an attempt to frustrate the conference, the negotiations progressed, although with many ups and downs, and resulted in the signing of a peace treaty on March 11. With the ratification of the treaty between the two countries on July 5, the Japanese Government named a special commission headed by Makoto Yano, former Minister to Spain, and dispatched it to the Thai-French Indo-China border for the purpose of enforcing the border demarkation on the basis of the provisions of the peace treaty.

Japan's relations with the Netherlands East Indies were becoming steadily aggravated as the Netherlands Indies goaded by Anglo-American support, maintained an outspoken anti-Japanese attitude concerning Japan's South Sea policy. On June 5, 1940, a navy plane of the Dutch East Indies fired at a fishing boat belonging to a Japanese fishing company in Batavia in the neighborhood of Gaspar Island. Regarding this case, the Japanese Government made strong representations to General J. C. Pabst, Dutch Minister to Japan. In response, the Dutch Government expressed regret through the Dutch Minister, and stated that those responsible for the case had been severely punished and guaranteed the non-repetition of such cases in the future on June 22. Meanwhile, the Japanese Government had been conducting negotiations with the Netherlands Indies Government with the object of improving relations with that country, and decided to dispatch Ichizo Kobayashi, Minister of Commerce and Industry, as special envoy to Batavia. Kobayashi had a series of conferences with van Mook, Director-General of Economics of the Netherlands Indies Government from September 12, but failed to reach any agreement. In succession to Kobayashi who left Batavia on October 22, Kenkichi Yoshizawa, former Foreign Minister, was sent to Batavia to resume the negotiations from January 2, 1941. After carrying negotiations for six months, Yoshizawa left Batavia for Japan on June 27 without success. Upon the organization of the

third Konoe Cabinet, Japan decided to temporarily suspend the negotiations. On December 24, 1940, a currency agreement was concluded between the Yokohama Specie Bank and the Java Bank for the purpose of smoothing exchange transactions between Japan and the Netherlands Indies. However, the currency agreement was invalidated when Holland froze Japanese assets on July 28 in retaliation of the conclusion of the Franco-Japanese Agreement concerning the Joint Defense of French Indo-China. The suspension of the Japan-Netherlands Indies Oil Agreement was also reported, and relations between the two countries became extremely worsened.

By the additional dispatch of the Japanese forces to French Indo-China on the basis of the joint-defense agreement, Japan's leadership in the South Seas region increased greatly. On the other hand, the Anglo-American maneuvers toward Thailand became extremely intensified, and the position of Thailand became tremendously delicate. However, friendly relations between Thailand and Japan became stronger, and Thailand formally recognized Manchoukuo on August 5, thus indicating her intention to cooperate with Japan for the stabilization of the East Asia common prosperity sphere. The Japanese Government on August 16 announced the elevation of the Japanese Legation in Thailand to the status of Embassy in order to further strengthen Japan-Thailand relations. Teiji Tsubokami was named Japan's first Ambassador to Thailand and left by plane for Bangkok early in September. The Japanese Government also decided to send a special envoy to French Indo-China for the purpose of cementing the relations with that country and appointed Kenkichi Yoshizawa as special envoy.

Relations with Axis Powers

The necessity of strengthening the Italo-German-Japanese Axis was closely examined by the Hiranuma Cabinet immediately before the outbreak of the European War. The sudden conclusion of the German-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact, however, caused the collapse of the Hiranuma Cabinet, and this problem was temporarily deadlocked. Upon the organization of the second Konoe Cabinet aiming at diplomatic reorientation and stabilization of the new structure, Heinrich Georg Stahmer, with instruc-

tions from Foreign Minister von Ribbentrop, visited Japan as special envoy on September 7, and with Ambassador Ott called on Foreign Minister Matsuoka.

Tripartite Alliance Negotiations regarding the tripartite alliance, thus started, made a speedy progress, and the alliance treaty was signed at Berlin by Ambassador Saburo Kurusu representing Japan, Foreign Minister von Ribbentrop representing Germany and Foreign Minister Count Ciano representing Italy. Together with the announcement of the Tripartite Alliance, an Imperial rescript was specially issued and a Cabinet statement was published.

Summary of the Three-Power Pact between Japan, Germany and Italy, signed on September 27, 1940, at Berlin is as follows:

The Governments of Japan, Germany and Italy, considering it as the condition precedent to any lasting peace that all nations of the world be given each its own proper place, have decided to stand by and cooperate with one another in regard to their efforts in Greater East Asia and the regions of Europe, respectively, wherein it is their prime purpose to establish and maintain a new order of things calculated to promote the mutual prosperity and welfare of the peoples concerned. Furthermore, it is the desire of the three Governments to extend cooperation to such nations in other spheres of the world as may be inclined to put forth endeavors along lines similar to their own, in order that their ultimate aspirations for world peace may thus be realized. Accordingly, the Governments of Japan, Germany and Italy have agreed as follows:

Article 1

Japan recognizes and respects the leadership of Germany and Italy in the establishment of a new order in Europe.

Article 2

Germany and Italy recognize and respect the leadership of Japan in the establishment of a new order in Greater East Asia.

Article 3

Japan, Germany and Italy agree to cooperate in their efforts on the aforesaid lines. They further

undertake to assist one another with all political, economic and military means when one of the three Contracting Parties is attacked by a Power at present not involved in the European War or in the Sino-Japanese Conflict.

Article 4

With a view to implementing the present Pact, Joint Technical Commissions, the members of which are to be appointed by the respective Governments of Japan, Germany and Italy, shall meet without delay.

Article 5

Japan, Germany and Italy affirm that the aforesaid terms do not in any way affect the political status which exists at present as between each of the three Contracting Parties and the Soviet Union.

Article 6

The present Pact shall come into effect immediately upon signature and shall remain in force for ten years from the date of its coming into force.

At a proper time before the expiration of the said term the High Contracting Parties shall, at the request of any one of them, enter into negotiations for its renewal.

As a result of the negotiations regarding the establishment of a mixed commission in Japan, Germany and Italy, in accordance with the provisions of Article 4 of the tripartite alliance, it was decided to create a general commission, a military commission and an economic commission in Tokyo, Berlin and Rome, and an announcement was made accordingly on December 20. The first session of the mixed commissions was opened in Berlin on April 10, 1941, in Rome on April 28 and in Tokyo on May 9. Hungary joined the tripartite alliance on November 20, followed by Rumania on November 23 and by Slovakia on November 24. On March 1, 1941, Bulgaria took part in the alliance and Yugoslavia followed suit on March 25. However, an anti-Axis coup d'état broke out in Yugoslavia by secret operations of the Anglo-American camp, and the Italo-German forces advanced to Yugoslavia. Croatia, which emerged as an independent kingdom by the collapse of Yugoslavia, joined the

alliance on June 15, and the influence of the Axis alliance became wider and stronger. Those participants in the tripartite alliance, including Germany, Italy, Slovakia, Rumania, Croatia and Spain, formally recognized the National Government at Nanking headed by Wang Ching-wei on July 1, 1941, while Denmark followed suit on August 13. Also, formal recognition was extended to Manchoukuo by Finland on July 1, Croatia on August 2 and Denmark on August 13. Thus, those Powers revealed their willingness to support and cooperate with Japan in the construction of a new order in East Asia. An economic mission led by Helmuth Wohlthat came to Japan from Germany on April 26, 1941. This enabled the opening in Tokyo of the Japan-Manchoukuo-Germany economic conference from April 30 to examine the adjustment of trade among Japan, Manchoukuo and Germany and the promotion of economic cooperation among those countries.

Relations with Britain and the United States

Relations between Japan and the United States had been worsening ever since the outbreak of the China Affair. In retaliation of the advance of Japanese forces into French Indo-China on September 23, 1940 and the conclusion of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance which closely followed, the United States immediately stiffened her attitude toward Japan by announcing the ban on the exports of scrap iron to Japan and the extension of a \$25,000,000 credit to the Chiang Kai-shek régime. With President Roosevelt re-elected for the third term by an overwhelming majority in the presidential election conducted on November 3, the United States further intensified her anti-Axis policy, adopting the lease-lend act in May 1941, with the object of aiding the Chiang régime in addition to strengthen the support to Britain. Close on the heels of her declaration of joint defense with Canada, the United States cooperated with Australia and New Zealand in similar joint-defense activities, and invited the Netherlands Indies into a common defense line-up promising her all necessary aid. Thus, it came to be clear that the United States was apparently propelling a policy of opposing Japan through the organization of the so-called ABCD encirclement camp. The

United States also enforced freezing restrictions against Japanese assets as from July 26 as a direct retaliation to Japan's joint-defense agreement with French Indo-China and the resultant dispatch of Japanese forces to Indo-China. Meanwhile, the United States embarked upon aid to the Soviet Union in concert with Britain upon the outbreak of the Soviet-German War. This gave rise to various complicated problems between Japan and the United States such as the transportation of gasoline to Vladivostok.

In view of the increasing tension in American-Japanese relations, Premier Konoé sent a message through Ambassador Nomura to President Roosevelt expressing the convictions of the Japanese Government regarding the Pacific situation, which is the source of so much misunderstanding between the two countries. This gave start to a fresh series of negotiations for adjusting American-Japanese diplomatic relations.

Japan's relations with Britain were subjected to as drastic complications as her relations with the United States. Soon after the organization of the second Konoé Cabinet following the enforcement of the ban on the transport of supplies to Chiang, British Ambassador Craigie on July 27, 1940 visited Foreign Minister Matsuoka and made inquiries regarding Japan's rapprochement with the Rome-Berlin Axis. With this as the start, Matsuoka-Craigie conversations were conducted on July 27, and an announcement was issued that similar conversations would be continued. While the general development thus indicated the possibility of renewed efforts for readjustment of Anglo-Japanese diplomatic relations, an espionage case involving the arrest of one Cox, Reuters reporter in Tokyo and other British residents in Japan, took place in Japan, and Britain, in retaliation, arrested Makiyama, chief of the London Branch of the Mitsubishi Shoji, and a few other Japanese, and Anglo-Japanese relations again came to assume a strained aspect.

Due to the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance coming close on the heels of the advance of the Japanese forces to French Indo-China, Britain, in concert with the United States, stiffened her attitude toward Japan, and attempted to intimidate Japan by reopening the Burma route to Chungking on October 18, adopting measures for

Anglo-Chiang joint-defense of Burma and reinforcing the British forces in Malay. Upon the announcement of the Franco-Japanese agreement concerning the joint-defense of French Indo-China and the consequent dispatch of the additional Japanese forces to the southern part of French Indo-China, Britain followed the United States in enforcing freezing restrictions against Japanese assets, and also notified the Japanese Government, through Ambassador Craigie, on July 26, the abrogation of three existing treaties with Japan, namely, the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of April 3, 1911, the Treaty concerning the Trade Relations between Japan and British India of July 12, 1934, and the Treaty regarding the Trade Relations between Japan and Burma. New Zealand also followed the example of Britain and notified the abrogation of the application of the most-favored-nation treatment provided by a provisional arrangement concerning trade, customs and navigation between Japan and that country reached on July 24, 1928. With Australia, Japan was conducting negotiations for adjusting diplomatic relations by dispatching Tatsuo Kawai, former spokesman of the Foreign Office, as first Minister and receiving Sir John Latham, former Premier of Australia, as Minister from the Commonwealth Government by virtue of an understanding regarding the exchange of ministers reached in August 1940. However, the Australian attitude toward Japan became also aggravated following the enforcement of freezing restrictions by Britain against Japanese assets. Thus, little progress was noted in the adjustment of diplomatic relations between Japan and Australia.

Soviet-Japanese Relations

In connection with the fishery problem, the most important issue between Japan and the Soviet Union in recent years, Japan reached an understanding with Soviet Government on December 31, 1939, to conclude a treaty proper during 1940. From December 13, 1940, negotiations regarding the fishery treaty problem were started between Ambassador Tatekawa and Foreign Commissar Molotov at Moscow. With the Tatekawa-Molotov conversations, held on seven occasions, failing to reach an understanding, the talks were continued into

1941, being resumed on January 17. The situation suddenly improved, and the treaty was signed at Kremlin on January 20. In this connection, an understanding was reached to establish a mixed commission to study a long-term basic treaty with Japan naming Minister Nishi as head of the Japanese members and the Soviet Government appointing Deputy Foreign Commissar Lozovsky as head of the Soviet members. On the occasion of Foreign Minister Matsuoka's visit to Moscow on his way from Germany and Italy, the adjustment of Soviet-Japanese diplomatic relations, being studied since the arrival of Ambassador Tatekawa in Moscow in 1940, speedily took a concrete form during the conversations between Matsuoka with Secretary-General Stalin and Foreign Commissar Molotov.

Neutrality Treaty The result was the signing of the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Treaty on April 13. As an annex to the treaty, the Soviet and Japanese Governments issued a joint statement mutually respecting territorial integrity and sovereignty of Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia by the two Contracting Powers.

A gist of the Neutrality Pact is as follows:

The Japanese Empire and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics prompted by their desire of strengthening the peaceful and friendly relations subsisting between the two countries have decided to conclude a Pact of Neutrality and have mutually agreed as follows:

Article 1. The two High Contracting Parties agree to maintain peaceful and friendly relations between them and to respect each other's territorial integrity and inviolability.

Article 2. In case either one of the High Contracting Parties becomes an object of military action by one or more third Powers, the other Party shall observe neutrality throughout the entire period of such a conflict.

Article 3. The present Pact shall be enforced from the day of the completion of its ratifications by both High Contracting Parties, and it shall be valid for the period of five years. In case either one of the High Contracting Parties does

not give notice of its abrogation a year before the expiration of the said period, the Pact shall be regarded as having automatically been prolonged for the next five years.

Article 4. The present Pact shall be ratified as soon as possible. An exchange of ratifications shall take place in Tokyo as soon as possible.

Simultaneously with the signature of the Pact the Governments of Japan and the Soviet Union issued a Joint Declaration to the following effect:

The Government of the Japanese Empire and the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, in order to assure the peaceful and friendly relations subsisting between them on the basis of the spirit of the Neutrality Pact concluded between the two countries, respect, on the part of the Japanese Empire the territorial integrity and inviolability of the People's Republic of Mongolia, and on the part of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the territorial integrity and inviolability of the Empire of Manchoukuo.

The sudden announcement of the Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact, while creating an acute reaction throughout the world, proved to be a heavy blow to the Chiang Kai-shek régime which depended greatly on Soviet aid through the medium of a non-aggression agreement. The neutrality pact, with ratifications exchanged on May 20, became effective immediately.

With the culmination of the reported aggravation of Soviet-German relations, a war broke out between Germany and Soviet Russia on June 22. In Japan, the second Konoe Cabinet resigned en bloc on July 16, and was followed by the organization of the third Konoe Cabinet with Admiral Toyoda as Foreign Minister in place of Yosuke Matsuoka. With an alliance concluded with Germany and Italy and a neutrality pact with the Soviet Union, Japan's position became extremely delicate, requiring an extremely careful and prudent attitude toward the German-Soviet War.

However, due to the transport of gasoline by the United States to the Soviet Union via the Northern Pacific and Vladivostok for strengthening aid to Moscow, the Japanese Government reportedly lodged a protest with the Soviet Government in August.

Trade negotiations conducted by Ambassador Tatekawa with Trade Commissioner Mikoyan since February 17 resulted in the conclusion of an agreement and an announcement was made on June 11 to the effect that a Soviet-Japanese Trade Agreement and an Agreement concerning Trade Payments were concluded. The trade agreement between the two countries had been a pending issue for sixteen years since the reopening of diplomatic relations between Japan and the Soviet Union. The Soviet-Japanese Trade Agreement was to be effective for five years while the payment agreement was to be in effect for one year. Under the provisions of those two agreements, Japan and the Soviet Union decided to trade with each other to an annual total of ¥30,000,000. Concrete arrangements regarding the exports were made between Japanese traders and the Soviet Trade Office while concrete details of payment settlements were decided upon between the Soviet Trade Office and the Yokohama Specie Bank. The Manchoukuo-Mongolia demarcation operation provided under the Nomonhan Truce Agreement of September 1939, which had been suspended since September 1940, were resumed when the third parley of Manchoukuo and Mongolian representatives took place at Chita from May 28, and spot activities were reopened from June 27. All demarcations including the erection of border marks were completed in August, and the border records were drafted at the Manchoukuo-Mongolia-Soviet Conference at Harbin from September 22, thus giving the final touches to the border agreement which had been pending for three years since the Nomonhan Incident.

Relations with Central and South American Countries

Because of the depression of Japan's trade with North America, Europe, Africa as well as the British dominions such as Australia, Canada, British India, etc. due to the aggravation of relations with the United States, Britain, Holland, etc. and the European War, Japan's economic relations with Central and South American countries have become increasingly important. In view of this situation, great efforts were made to advance trade relations with those countries, and keen attention was paid to the developments in

those countries.

With Peru The Peruvian Government, by a presidential decree dated May 18, banned the entry of foreign immigrants because of the national census which was to be conducted in June, and announced the strict enforcement of an ordinance requiring employment of 80 per cent Peruvian nationals and imposing strict immigration restrictions. In this connection, the Japanese Government made strong representations to the Peruvian Government to see that those Peruvian measures should not suppress and restrict Japanese immigration.

With Uruguay The Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, signed between Japan and Uruguay on May 10, 1934, for which the exchange of ratifications had been delayed due to domestic reasons in Uruguay, was finally ratified between Iwataro Uchiyama, Japanese Minister to Uruguay, and Foreign Minister Alberto Guani at Montevideo on May 4, 1940. The treaty, providing for the most-favored-nation treatment mutually, consisted of nine articles and is effective for a period of two years.

With Brazil On September 23, a cultural agreement was concluded with Brazil, an epoch-making event in diplomatic relations between Japan and that country. The contents of the agreement were similar to those of the German-Japanese and Italo-Japanese cultural agreements concluded in 1940. The elevation of the status of legation in Brazil to that of embassy was announced on December 1 in view of the closer diplomatic and economic relations with that country, and Shû Tomii left Japan for Brazil as the first Ambassador in April 1941.

With Argentina The Argentine-Japanese Trade Agreement, concluded in March 1940, limited the amount of annual trade to ¥30,000,000. In view of the increased activity of trade between the two countries, the revision of the agreement is reported to be under consideration by the two Governments.

Meanwhile, as a result of the Pan-American operations of the United States in an attempt to have South and Central American countries to join a common front for bringing economic pressure on Japan, the attitude of those South and Central American countries has become steadily anti-Japanese,

specially since the enforcement of freezing restrictions by the Washington Government.

On May 13, 1940, an anti-Japanese disturbance broke out at Lima, capital of Peru. On May 15, Foreign Minister Arita lodged a strong protest with the Peruvian Government through Mr. Polas, Peruvian Chargé d'Affaires. In response, the Peruvian Government immediately expressed regret, promised safety to Japanese residents, and consented to name a special commission to make a survey of damage in order to pay reparations.

With Equador On July 5, 1941, a sudden clash between the army forces of Peru and Equador, which had a long-standing dispute, took place in a border region, the situation becoming grave as the two countries sent reinforcements. In connection with this dispute, the Equador side made an anti-Japanese propaganda that Peru was aided by the Axis Powers and that there were 3,000 Japanese among the Peruvian forces. With this simple pretext, the Equador Government attempted to deport Japanese engineers employed by commercial houses throughout Equador on suspicion of espionage and illegally interned the Kiyokawa Maru, a Japanese steamer, then anchored at Guayaquil. The Japanese Government on May 7 made a rigorous protest about this case to the Equador Government. In response, the Equador Government on May 12 expressed regret and guaranteed safety of passage to Japanese ships navigating in Equadorian waters in future.

With Mexico An anti-Japanese trend was also reported from Mexico under the weight of the United States' pressure, and there was noted a strong tendency toward aggravation of Japanese-Mexican relations. In view of this situation, the Mexican Legation in Japan, in accordance with instructions from the Mexican Foreign Office, issued a statement to the effect that foreign residents in Mexico, so long as they were engaged in their legitimate work were entitled to all the proper privileges and guarantees and that the Mexican Government had no intention of freezing foreign assets and also that there existed nothing like an anti-Japanese sentiment within Mexico. The statement follows:

"In view of the circulation of various rumors and reports regarding the rela-

tions between Japan and Mexico, the Mexican Legation, in accordance with the opinion expressed by Foreign Minister Exel Badier, wishes to confirm that the foreigners residing in Mexico are entitled to various guarantees so long as they lead a legitimate life. The Mexican Government has never attempted to freeze the assets of foreigners, and there has been no instance of Japanese residents in Mexico having been persecuted by the Mexican authorities or political parties. The Legation also assures that there does not exist in Mexico any anti-Japanese sentiment. The Mexican Government believes that the foregoing statement will clarify the status quo of the Japanese residents in Mexico and the attitude of the Mexican Government."

Relations with Other Countries

In 1926, Japan proposed the revision of the Fur-Seal Treaty, which had been concluded among Japan, the United States, Britain and the Soviet Union in 1911, as the enforcement period of 15 years had elapsed. However, Japan's proposal failed to meet with a favorable response due to the opposition from the United States. With the passage of another 14 years, fur-seals in the North Pacific increased greatly, causing heavy direct and indirect damage to fishing operations and others. Considering that the further enforcement of a treaty guaranteeing the increase of fur-seals unnecessary, the Japanese Government, on October 23, 1940, notified the signatory countries concerned the abrogation of the treaty at one year notice in accordance with the provisions of Article 16 of the treaty and proposed to study a new agreement for the protection of fur-seals on more rational basis. With no reply forthcoming from the Governments of Britain, the United States and the Soviet Union within the period of notice, the treaty became invalidated as on October 22, 1940.

On October 28, 1940 a war broke out between Italy and Greece. Consequently, the Greek Government ordered all Greek ships in foreign waters to take refuge at ports of neutral countries. Under the circumstances, the continuance of the cruise of Greek ships bound for Japan with materials destined to Japan from the Balkan countries became a problem. The Japanese Government asked the Greek Government to permit the voyage of Greek ships

to Japan, in return for which Japan promised to provide all available conveniences to the visiting Greek vessels guaranteeing safe departure from Japan. This was a very noteworthy measure taken by Japan which stood in a very delicate position on account of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance and the Italo-Greek War.

On February 18, 1941, Koh Ishii, Chief of the Third Division of the Cabinet Information Board, in a press conference with foreign correspondents made a sensational remark that "the rumors that Japan desires war are entirely unfounded; on the contrary, Japan is rather willing to take the rôle of a mediator for the establishment of world peace." This statement created a great sensation in different countries as indicating Japan's intention to mediate in the European War. In this connection, Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka on February 20, in another press conference, denied the rumors of Japan's mediation by declaring "there is no fact that Japan has ever offered mediation for world peace to any country of the world." This was also a noteworthy remark as explaining Japan's position toward the European War.

On March 20, 1940, the Japanese Consulate was newly opened at Noumea,

Capital of New Caledonia. This step was taken with the object of maintaining close liaison with that island. The de Gaulle faction in that Island, by aid of Australia, carried out a coup d'état in opposition to the Vichy Government and it became impossible for Japan to maintain diplomatic contact with that country through the medium of the Vichy Government; hence the creation of a Consulate at Noumea.

On November 13, 1940, the Bureau of South Seas was created within the Foreign Office in view of the development of Japan's southern regions policy under the stimulus of various events such as the conclusion of the Treaty of Amity and Friendship with Thailand, the advance of Japanese forces to French Indo-China and the conclusion of the Japan-French Indo-China Economic Agreement. Otoji Saito, Consul-General at Batavia, was appointed the first chief of the new bureau. The Bureau consists of two sections, the 1st Section taking charge of matters concerning the Indies, the Philippines, Australia, New Zealand, and the British Islands in the Pacific, while the 2nd Section is in charge of matters concerning Thailand, French Indo-China, Burma, Malay, North Borneo and French Islands in Oceania.

FOREIGN RELATIONS DURING 1941

Diplomatic Situation Up to the Outbreak of the Greater East Asia War

From April to December, up to the very day of the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, Japan was faced with the most trying situation in her entire diplomatic history, the pivotal issue being the diplomatic negotiation between Japan and the United States of America.

The first conversation between the two countries took place at the time of the Second Konoé Cabinet, which, however, confronted with the present changing situation of the world, recognized the need of the speedy reorganization of the domestic structure in order to complete the national policy, and resigned en bloc on July 16 making way for its renovation. On the 17th of the same month Prince Konoé was thrice commanded to form the new cabinet, and on the following day the third Konoé Cabinet was formed. The appointment of Admiral Toyoda, the former Minister of Com-

merce and Industry as Foreign Minister drew attention from various quarters.

On July 17, the agreement between Japan and France in connection with the joint defense of French-Indo-China was made public, but the Governments of the United States of America, Great Britain and Netherlands took retaliatory actions against Japan by freezing Japanese assets in their respective countries and strengthening rigorous economic pressure to bear on Japan, thus apparently causing the sudden tension in the relation between Nippon and America.

On the 25th, (26th Japan time), the Government of the United States of America, under Presidential decree, ordered the freezing of Japan's assets in America, simultaneously freezing up the Chinese assets. In concert with this, the British Government on the 26th announced the freezing of Japanese assets throughout the British Empire and abrogated the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Com-

merce and Navigation. Canada, India, the Union of South Africa, Australia and New Zealand also followed the footsteps of the Home Government, freezing Japanese assets in their respective areas, and cancelled the most favored nation clause with Japan. The Government of Netherlands, on the 28th, announced the suspension of Japan-Netherlands Financial agreement and the freezing of Japanese assets in the whole of the Dutch East Indies.

The Japanese Government, on July 28, promulgated and enforced the regulation controlling transactions with foreigners as a counter-measure against the United States' freezing of Japanese assets in America. At the same time the United States of America and the Philippines were designated as countries to which the regulation was applied, and some thirty business concerns were also designated by order of Finance Minister as American corporations. The Government, as a retaliatory measure, added Great Britain, Canada, Hongkong, Netherlands and Dutch East Indies to the list of countries to which the above mentioned regulation was applied.

The negotiation between Japan and America had been carried on from April, 1941. Premier Prince Konoe with a view to allaying any misgivings in relation to the Japan-French-Indo-China joint defense pact sent a message to President Roosevelt on August 28.

The Government of the United States of America, however, not only showed no sincerity toward Japan's conciliatory attitude but also formed the so-called A.B.C.D. encirclement front and added the military menace to the economic pressure brought to bear on Japan, pushing the relations between the two countries to the worst crisis.

On October 16, the third Konoe Ministry resigned en bloc due to a disagreement in views regarding the future course of national policy. The Imperial Command was given to Lieut.-General Hideki Tojo, the War Minister in the preceding Cabinet, to form the New Cabinet which was completed on October 17. Shigenori Togo, ex-Ambassador to Soviet Russia, was appointed Foreign Minister.

Premier Tojo on October 18 issued a Cabinet declaration that the unchanging national policy of the Japanese Empire was to bring the China Emergency to a successful termination and to establish the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity

Sphere.

Although the Tojo Cabinet seemed to differ little from the third Konoe Cabinet in its practical policy in relation to foreign affairs, Premier Tojo on November 17 in his administrative speech to the extraordinary Diet Session opened on November 15, made it clear that the Government were even then devoting their utmost efforts to a diplomatic settlement. With this object in view the Premier enunciated the following three fundamental principles of Japan's foreign policy: (1) Third Powers will refrain from obstructing the successful conclusion of the China Affair which Japan has in view; (2) The countries surrounding the Empire will not only refrain from presenting a direct military menace to the Empire, but nullify such measures of a hostile character as the economic blockade and restore normal economic relations with Japan; (3) Utmost efforts will be exerted to prevent the extension of the European war and the spread of disturbances into East Asia. On the same occasion Foreign Minister Togo asserted that there was naturally "a limit to our conciliatory attitude."

With the increasing tension in the relations between Japan and America, the United States of America, Great Britain and Netherlands took a more rigorous attitude toward Japan. Japanese nationals who were residing in the United States, Britain, their dominions and colonies and Latin America began to evacuate for home, with the result a more serious situation developed in the relations between the two countries. On November 15 when Japan announced its intention to send Special Envoy Saburo Kurusu to assist Ambassador Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura world attention was focussed on this move as heralding the final stage of the negotiation between the two countries. However the persistent in sincerity and overbearing attitude on the part of the United States of America provoked the rupture of the negotiation and thus broke out the Greater East Asia War.

The Development of the Japan-America Negotiations

With a view to bringing about a fundamental re-adjustment in Japan-American relations, the Second Konoe Cabinet early in April began conversations with the Government of the United States of America sending Ambassador Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura to Wash-

ington. The Government of the United States of America about the middle of April informally announced the following issues of discussion.

- (1) National and international policies of the two countries.
- (2) Attitude of the two countries toward politics and war. Regarding the Japan-Germany-Italy Tripartite Alliance Treaty, Japan to give guarantee not to menace American Security in the event of the United States of America taking part in the European War for the sake of self defense.
- (3) American attitude toward China Affair (to mediate between Japan and China under the fundamental conditions approved by America).
- (4) Trade retentions between Japan and China.
- (5) Economic activity in the Pacific Area.
- (6) Neutrality of the Philippines.

On the above points the Imperial Government gave its opinion in May, as follows:

- (1) Our Military duties in Tripartite Alliance will be put into action as soon as the Treaty is decided.
 - (2) Concerning China Affair America to recognize Konoë's three principles, the Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between China and Japan, relying on our neighborly cordial policy, giving advice to Chungking Régime to make peace with Japan. If Chungking Régime does not listen to the United States' advice the latter must cease to aid Chungking Régime.
- Japan thus proceeded with her conversations, presenting her views in regard to American proposals, to which in the end of June America offered further amendments in addition to those offered in April.

But in July, after the Third Konoë Cabinet was formed and as soon as Japan-French Treaty of Joint Defense concerning French Indo-China was concluded, the United States took up a drastic policy and froze Japanese assets putting more economic pressure to bear on Japan. In August, Premier Konoë, with a renewed determination to bring about a peaceful solution sent a personal message to President Roosevelt explaining Japan's peaceful intentions and also stressing the urgency of holding a conference among representatives of the two countries to avert a possible catastrophe. Though the United States of America

agreed to this plan upon principle, she did not concede to holding a conference between the representatives of the two countries until a mutual understanding had been reached between the two countries concerning those pending questions relating to the Tripartite Alliance, the stationing of Japanese troops in China, and international commercial freedom.

Thereupon Japan on September 6 further clarified her position, and again on September 25 resumed conversations offering a compromise plan. The United States of America, however, demanded Japan to make clear her opinion on the question of application of the following four basic principles:

- (1) Preservation of territorial integrity and universal sovereignty of all countries.
- (2) Non-interference with one another's internal policy.
- (3) Non-discrimination in commerce and trade.
- (4) Present state of affairs in the Pacific to remain unchanged except by peaceful means.

At the same time America demanded Japan's view on the above mentioned four subjects, and the negotiations having come to a standstill, the Konoë Cabinet resigned without completing the conversations.

When the new Cabinet was formed by Lieut-General Hideki Tojo it was decided to continue the negotiations to bring about an adjustment in Japanese-American relations. As regards the important subjects in the past negotiations, the Government presented the following three proposals to be considered.

- (1) As to the ThreePower Parley Japan demands America to clarify her idea of self-defense, and to assure that she will not expand her definition of that term at will in future.
- (2) As to the non-discrimination principles in trade and commerce, Japan has no objection to their application to the Pacific area including China if they are to be applied to all the countries.
- (3) As to the troops stationed in China, some of them sent to China on account of the China Affair will stay there for a certain necessary period even after peace between Japan and China has been brought about. The rest of the forces will begin to withdraw as soon as peace has been established and withdraw entirely when public peace is secured. Japanese troops in French Indo-China will also be withdrawn as soon as the

China Affair has been settled successfully or the peace in East Asia will have been established indicating her hope that America would use her influence to make England as well as other countries to approve the connecting articles after the completion of the negotiations, and on November 6, made an announcement to send Special Envoy Saburo Kurusu to Washington to assist Ambassador Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura.

On November 15 Special Envoy Kurusu arrived in Washington and immediately Japan-U.S.A. conversations were begun among Japanese Ambassador Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura, Special Envoy Saburo Kurusu on Japanese side and President Roosevelt, and Secretary of State Cordell Hull on the American side in a final effort to bring about a solution of the problem.

At the very beginning of the parley President Roosevelt explained American willingness to act as a mediator concerning the China Affair while Secretary Hull insisted on removing the fundamental difficulties, for as long as Japan cooperates with Germany, he maintained, it would be difficult to continue the negotiations. Attempts were, however, made to overcome the difficulties concerning the above mentioned three subjects.

Japan thereupon made a new set of proposals as follows:

(1) Governments of Japan and the United States of America must have understanding that both countries do not make any new military advance in the South and East Asia (save French Indo-China and Southern Pacific area.)

(2) Governments of Japan and the United States of America are to cooperate with each other so that they may acquire the necessary materials in Netherlands East Indies.

(3) Japan and the U.S.A. to restore mutually their commercial relations to the state prior to the freezing of assets, the latter agreeing to supply necessary oil to Japan.

(4) Government of Japan promises to withdraw the Japanese troops which are dispatched to French Indo-China, if the relations between Japan and America are peaceful settled or if real peace is established in the Pacific area. Japanese Government expressed her readiness to withdraw the Imperial Army from the Southern French Indo-China to the north if both come to an understanding.

To these proposals Secretary of State Cordell Hull replied by emphasizing that the United States of America could not give up its aid to Chungking Régime unless Japan made clear her position in relation to Tripartite Alliance Treaty and assured her adaptation of peaceful policy. The Government of the United States held a parley with the representatives of Britain, Australian, China, and Netherlands and on November 22 Secretary of State Cordell Hull stressed that only the withdrawal of Japanese Army from the Southern French Indo-China could not alleviate the tension of the situation in the Southern Pacific area and the President withdrew his offer of mediating between Japan and China on the ground that the time did not come yet for the United States of America to undertake such a step.

On November 26, Secretary of State Hull rejected Japan's plan of the 20th on the plea that after careful investigation of the plan and upon deliberations with interested countries it was found difficult for the United States of America to accept it, and offered new proposals as included in (3), the attached documents relating to the Greater East Asia War.

In reply Japan pointed out the unreasonableness of certain of these proposals, but Cordell Hull however failed to show any signs of concession and on November 27, President Roosevelt stated that no effort will solve the difficulties after all. On December 2 Sumner Welles by presidential order made an inquiry into the real situation regarding the rumor about reinforcement of Japanese Army in French Indo-China. As no sincerity was shown on the Part of America to continue negotiations, Japan decided to close the negotiation and on December 7, (8, Japan time) issued the memorandum (2, the attached Documents relating to the Greater East Asia War) toward America and the negotiations were broken off.

On December 8, simultaneously with the rupture of the negotiations, the Imperial Rescript declaring war against the United States of America and the British Empire was issued together with the declaration announcing the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War.

Diplomatic Affairs After the Outbreak of the Greater East Asia War

Simultaneously with the declaration of war on the United States of America and

Great Britain on December 8, the Imperial Government compelled by the strategic necessity of launching offensive in the southern areas asked Thailand to permit the Imperial Army to pass through its territory and to give necessary facilities for their passage, and as Thai willingly accepted the proposals, on the night of December 8, the Imperial Army proceeded into the country, while the Japanese Government concluded the military alliance with French Indo-China in accordance with the Nippon-French Joint Defense Protocol.

To Germany and Italy, Japan's allies, Japan proposed the conclusion of a new agreement among the three powers concerning their cooperation to effectively prosecute their joint war against America and Britain not to conclude a separate peace, thus laying the foundations for a new world order giving supreme expression to their practical collaboration. On December 11, the treaty was signed by Japanese Ambassador Hiroshi Oshima, German Foreign Minister Joachim Ribbentrop and Italian Ambassador Alfieri in Berlin and at the same time Germany and Italy declared war on the United States and the British Empire.

On December 21, Japan-Thai Offensive and Defensive Pact was formally signed between Japanese Ambassador Teiji Tsubokami and Thai Premier Pibul Songgram at Bangkok.

Further, on January 4, an Exchange Pact was concluded between the two countries and on April 21, they reached the Yen-Baht Parity Agreement adding closer connection not only politically but also economically between Japan and Thailand.

German-Italy-Nippon Tripartite Alliance and Anti-Comintern Pact

The Imperial Government decided to recognize formally the newly formed state of Croatia in the Balkans, and on June 7, issued a notification to the Croatian Government through Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka. Accordingly the Japanese Legation was set up in Agram, the capital of Croatia.

As the Croatian Government decided to participate in the Tripartite Alliance the Protocol was signed on June 15, at Venice, among the four representatives, namely Japanese Ambassador Horikiri to Italy, Foreign Minister Ribbentrop of Germany, Foreign Minister Ciano of Italy and Croatian plenipotentiary,

President and Foreign Minister Haverlich. With Croatia's entry, the number of countries participating in the Tripartite pact became 6.

Japan-German Anti-Comintern Pact which was signed on November 25, 1936, and in which Italy participated in the following year extending the Pact to a three-Power Alliance, was to expire by November 1941, at the end of a five-year period, the Signatory Powers consulted among themselves and decided to extend its validity for another five-year period. A new Protocol concerning the extension of validity of the Agreement was signed on November 25, 1941, in Berlin between Japanese Ambassador Hiroshi Oshima to Germany and the plenipotentiaries of the other Axis Powers with the additional participation of National Government of China, Rumania, Bulgaria, Finland, Slovakia, Croatia and Denmark. As regards the agreement Foreign Office authorities issued the following verbal statement and the whole text of the Protocol was also made public.

President Wang Ching-Wei Visits Japan

President Wang Ching-Wei of the National Government of China visited Japan on June 17, 1941, to express his appreciation for the support extended by Japan since the New Government was established and to deepen the amity between the two nations. President Wang was received in audience by H.I.M. the Emperor and Empress of Japan and also was given an enthusiastic reception by the Government and people of Japan which marked an epoch-making event in the relations between Japan and China.

In place of Kumataro Honda Japanese Ambassador to China who together with the resignation en block of the Third Konoe Cabinet had sent in his resignation, ex-Ambassador to England, Shigemitsu, was appointed on December 19, soon after the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. Ambassador Shigemitsu proceeded to Nanking in January.

Recognition of Manchoukuo and Nanking Governments On July 1 of the 16th year of Showa (1941) the five Axis States Germany, Italy, Rumania, Slovakia and Croatia extended their recognition to the National Government at Nanking which had been recognized formally by Japan in accordance with the Japan-China Basic Treaty of November 30, 1940. On the same day Bulgaria and

Hungary also formally announced their recognition of Nanking Government, followed by Denmark on August 18.

The Thai Government with a view to contribute its share toward the establishment of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere extended its formal recognition to Manchoukuo, on July 1, thus inaugurating friendly relations between the two countries. Thus, including Thailand the number of countries which have extended recognition to Manchoukuo came to 12.

Special Envoys from Manchoukuo and Thailand

Manchoukuo, in appreciation of the support extended to it by Japan for the development of that country and with the object of enhancing the friendly relations between Japan and Manchoukuo, despatched Premier Chang Ching-hui as a special Envoy of gratitude to Japan on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of the founding of the Manchoukuo Empire.

The Manchoukuo mission headed by Premier Chang Ching-hui arrived in Tokyo on March 16. Received in audience by H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan Premier Chang presented the goodwill message from H.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo and conveyed the gratitude of his country to the Imperial family, the Government and people of Japan. H.I.H. Prince Takamatsu, was despatched in turn by H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan to felicitate the 10th anniversary of Manchoukuo's founding. Arriving in Hsinking on May 28, the Imperial envoy formally visited H.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo and conveyed the good wishes of H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan and exchanged greetings with the government and people of Manchoukuo.

To felicitate the Pact of alliance between Japan and Thailand signed at Bangkok on December 21, soon after the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War and to strengthen the ties of friendship between Japan and Thailand, the government of Thai sent a mission of felicitation headed by the Special Envoy Lieut.-General Phya Phaholphayuha Sena to Japan. The mission arrived in Tokyo on April 25. Received in audience the Special Envoy presented credentials to H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan. The mission was given warm welcome by the government and people of Japan.

Special Envoy to Vatican

On March 26, the Government an-

nounced the conclusion of a new agreement between Japan and Vatican and simultaneously with it announced the appointment of Japanese Counsellor Ken Harada to France as the first Japanese Minister to the Holy Sea.

Relation with U.S.S.R.

Japan-Soviet commercial negotiations which had been initiated in November of the 14th year of Showa (1939) between the People's Commissar for Trade Komiyan and Japanese Minister Matsushima to Sweden who stopped at Moscow on his way to his new appointment, were discontinued in January of the 16th year of Showa (1941) on the account of border disputes between Japan and the Soviets and for various other reasons.

As the relations in general were improved after the conclusion of the Provisional Treaty of Fishery on January 21, 1941, the negotiations concerning the commercial Treaty were reopened on February 17, between Japanese Ambassador Tatekawa and Foreign Commissioner Vyacheslav M. Molotov. A Pact of Non-Aggression was concluded when Japanese Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka visited Moscow again on his way back from Germany and Italy. On this new basis, a Commercial Treaty was concluded on June 11.

The Commercial Treaty covers three issues namely Commercial adjustment between Japan and the Soviets, Trade and payment, the treaty taking effect at once. The main features of the Treaty are as follows:

Within one year of the treaty Japan is to export silk, cocoon, machines and implements, liquid camphor, miscellaneous goods and others amounting to 30,000,000 yen in all, while she is to import petroleum, manganese, platinum, manure and miscellaneous articles amounting to 60,000,000 yen, payment to be made in yen. Detailed items of this treaty were discussed between the representatives of the Yokohama Specie Bank and Trade representatives of Soviet Russia. The term of validity of these two treaties is one year, but in the absence of a notification for its abolition before the expiry of a year, the term of validity is automatically extended by one year.

Although a commercial treaty was provided for in the end of protocol of the Basic Treaty between the two countries signed in the 14th year of Taisho, when Japan-Soviet diplomatic relations were inaugurated, 16 years had passed before

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the conclusion of the present treaty. Considerable attention was directed toward the successful conclusion of these treaties, following close on the heels of the Japan-Soviet Neutrality Pact.

As a consequence of the outbreak of the German-Soviet War the so-called Mid-Atlantic Parley was held between the United States and England to decide the ways and means of aiding Soviet Russia, and as a result the United States decided to supply Soviet Russia with high-octane aircraft gasoline by the Canadian and Soviet tankers via Vladivostok. The arrival of several tankers at the port of Vladivostok on August 16, caused uneasiness in Japan, and the Japanese Government promptly made a protest to the Government of U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. stressing that this action was a matter of keen concern for Japan. Furthermore, in regard to the mines laid by the Soviets along the coasts from Kamchatka to the Japan Sea, Japan pointed out to the danger which the Japanese boats were exposed to on account of them. On August 1, a Chosenese sail boat passing through the Japan Sea mines and another vessel was hit on the 10th, and on October 5 Kehl maru, a Japanese steamer belonging to the Nipponkai Shipping Co. was hit by a mine, whereupon the Japanese Government filed a protest with the Soviet Government calling for a clear explanation from them.

With the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War world attention was focused on the development of Japan-Soviet relations. The Soviet Government repeatedly expressed its intention of upholding the Japan-Soviet Treaty of Neutrality, and the knotty fishery issue on which was thought to depend the whole future of Japan-Soviet relations was satisfactorily settled with the signing of a *Modus Vivendi* on March 23, 1942. On March 28 it was announced that Ambassador Lieut.-General Yoshitsugu Tatekawa would be replaced by ex-Foreign Minister Naotake Sato as Ambassador to Soviet Russia, and the latter arrived in Kuibishev early in April to take his post.

Relations with Southern Regions

Ratifications of Japan-France Treaty of residence and navigation concerning F.I.C. and Japan-French Pact concerning the system of customs, trade and its

settlement signed on May 6 of the 16th Year of Showa (1941) were exchanged on July 5 following the exchange of ratifications of the Thai-French Peace agreement and Japan-France-Thai Protocol concerning security and political understanding.

As the accord of views was reached between Japan and France concerning the joint defense of F.I.C. which had been under negotiations at Tokyo and Vichy, Japanese Government on July 26 issued a statement clarifying to the world the real spirit of Joint Defense Treaty.

After the completion of the necessary procedure, Joint Defense Treaty came in force on July 29 simultaneously with its signature, while a detailed supplement to the treaty was drawn out by Vice-Admiral Jean Decoux, Governor-General of F.I.C. and Major-General Raishiro Sumita, Commander of Japan Special Service Corps in F.I.C. after an all day conference on July 23, on the actual spot. The official communique announcing the agreement was issued at Bangkok on July 27.

The Text of Protocol between Japan and France concerning F.I.C. signed at Vichy by Japanese Ambassador to France Sotomatsu Kato and Admiral Jean-Francois Darlan, French Vice-Minister, is given on pp. 204-25.

In accordance with the Treaty of Japan-French Joint Defense, Japan reinforced the Imperial army in the Southern areas, the reinforcements reaching Saigon on July 31, adding more close relations and strengthening the economic ties between Japan and F.I.C.

With the object of further strengthening the friendly relations between Thai and Japan, the Japanese Government held conversations with the Thai Government in the past as a result of which the two governments decided mutually to raise their respective Legations to the status of Embassy. This was announced on August 16 by the Board of Information and was put in force on August 18. The Government decided to appoint as its first Ambassador to Thai Mr. Teiji Tsubokami, ex-Vice-Minister of Overseas Affairs, while Thailand elevated her Minister to Japan to the status of Ambassador.

As no satisfactory settlement could be arrived at concerning the economic negotiations between Japan and the Netherlands which had been intermittently held since November 1939, suc-

cessively by Commerce Minister Kobayashi and special envoy Ken Yoshizawa, owing to the insincerity on the part of Dutch East the Imperial Government decided to discontinue negotiations and to call back the Special Envoy Yoshizawa, and issued an announcement to this effect on July 18. The Mission headed by Special Envoy Kenkichi Yoshizawa left Batavia for Japan on July 27.

Concerning Peace Agreement between Thai and France signed in Tokyo through the good offices of Japan and the Protocol between Japan and Thai, and that between Japan and France in relation to security and political understanding, ratifications were exchanged at the Foreign Minister's residence in Tokyo on July 5. Simultaneously, notifications were issued to the Governments of Thai and France to the effect that the Protocol concerning the organization and appointment of the committee for the demarcation of the Thai-F.I.C. border decided in the supplementary plan to the Peace Agreement and the protocol concerning the fulfilment of regulations in the unarmed area obtained the Imperial sanction.

Thus with the completion of the exchange of ratifications, the Imperial Government on the basis of the Peace agreement announced the following names of five delegates and five assistant delegates representing Japan in the Joint Border Demarcation Committee.

Imperial Delegates: Ex-Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary Makoto Yano, Secretary of Foreign Office Tsuyoshi Inoue, Colonel Takanobu Managi, Lieut.-Colonel Kazuo Iwahashi, Colonel Hito Ikeda.

Assistant-Delegates: Consul Koreyuki Takashima, Lieut.-Colonel Kaoru Takeuchi, Major Kimikazu Iino, Commander Takanobu Sasaki, Engineer Commander Taro Ishida.

The Japanese members of the Joint Border Demarcation Committee arrived in Saigon and commenced their work from August.

Japanese Relations with Latin America

The long-standing border disputes between Ecuador and Peru flared up in open hostilities in July 1941. In this connection Ecuador made false propaganda to the effect that Peru was supported by Axis Powers and 3,000 Japanese were in the ranks of the Peruvian Army. Because of such anti-Japanese

reports published by the Ecuadorean Newspaper the public sentiment toward the Japanese suddenly turned for the worse, bringing pressure to bear on Japanese in various quarters. The Government of Ecuador took such measures as expelling the Japanese engineer employed by an Ecuadorean Company on suspicion of his being a spy or to conduct illegal inspection of the Kiyokawamaru, a Japanese steamer.

Unable to pass over such a development the Japanese Government filed a protest with the Government of Ecuador urging it to take due consideration and strict control not to repeat the incident again. Concerning this, the Foreign Office authorities on August 4 issued a statement to clarify the real situation of the affairs to the world.

Replying to the Japanese protest the government of Ecuador on August 12 through Japanese Minister Yanai to Colombia officially expressed its apology promising that upon investigation of the matter it will take proper steps as regards the illegal actions brought against Japan.

While the conclusion of Japan-French Joint Defense Treaty lead the Japanese-American relations to become worse, some countries in south and central America followed the steps of the United States of America in taking anti-Japanese policy: On October 24, Colombia enforced a new set of regulations governing the coming in and going out of Foreign people which naturally restricted the Japanese entry into the country. Mexico was also planning to take similar steps to restrict the entry of Japanese nationals into their country. The Government of Panama which was taking more harsh attitude toward Japan since the coup d'état backed by the United States of America, finally perpetrated such outrageous acts as the cancellation of business licenses to all Japanese in Panama from October 29. The Imperial Government therefore submitted a rigorous protest to the Panama Government through the Panamanian Minister in Tokyo on November 1, and 7, and at the same time through Japanese Minister Akiyama to Panama urged due consideration over the matter, and again on November 19, filed a strong protest with the Panama Government as it had not shown any sign of reconsideration over the Japanese protest.

The treaty concerning the cultural co-operation between Japan and Brazil

signed at Rio de Janeiro on September 23, 1940, became effective on November 5, 1941, when the ratifications were exchanged at the same place. With regards to this the Foreign Office authorities on November 7, issued a statement explaining the development of the treaty, and published the contents.

Soon after the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, the United States under the pretext of a joint defense of Western Hemisphere, made a frantic effort to drive the Latin American States to join in an Anti-Axis line-up against Japan, Germany and Italy. Despite the United States manoeuvres the so-called A.B.C. countries, Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Peru upheld a policy of neutrality. Thereupon Foreign Minister Shigenori Togo sent a message on December 19, to the Governments of those four states extending profound respect for their heroic attitude and also clarifying the real objective of the Greater East Asia War.

Documents

JAPAN'S POLICY SETTLED vis-à-vis THE OUTBREAK OF HOSTILITIES BETWEEN GERMANY AND THE SOVIET UNION

(1) The Government's Announcement, July 2, 1941

An important national policy to meet the current trend of events was decided at an Imperial Conference held today.

(2) Statement by Kenji Tomita, Chief Secretary of the Cabinet, July 2, 1941

Today's Imperial Conference was held at the Imperial Palace from 10 a.m. It was attended by the Premier, Foreign, Home, Finance, War, and Navy Ministers, President of the Privy Council, Chief and Vice-Chief of Army Council, Staff, and Chief and Vice-Chief of Navy General Staff. The meeting ended at noon.

(3) Remarks of the Foreign Minister, July 2, 1941

As announced by the Government today, an important policy has been decided upon at the Imperial Conference. It goes without saying that the situation arising from German-Soviet war cannot be met with such a simple idea as to think it only an outbreak of war between Germany and the Soviet Union. We, therefore, intend to watch closely the development of the situation with the greatest care and preparations, in which we can place our confidence, as

well as with firm determination. We must, at the same time, pay constant attention not only to developments surrounding the war but to the situation all over the world as well as the trend of individual Powers and the state of affairs among them.

I feel that a really grave state of emergency is developing before our eyes throughout the world, particularly in East Asia, with direct concern to our country. The more serious the situation, the more calm and composed must our nation be, and with unity of all classes. They must, in response to the August Will of His Majesty, endeavor not to make even the slightest mistake in the direction of the path of our country.

EXCHANGE OF RATIFICATIONS OF THE TREATIES REGARDING THE THAI-FRENCH INDO-CHINA BORDER DISPUTE AND ECONOMIC AGREEMENT BETWEEN JAPAN AND FRENCH INDO-CHINA; ANNOUNCEMENT BY THE BOARD OF INFORMATION, JULY 5, 1941

Regarding the Treaty of Peace between France and Thailand and the Protocol concerning guarantee and political understanding between Japan and France, and between Japan and Thailand, which were signed at Tokyo on May 9 of this year, the countries concerned have since been, respectively, taking procedures for their ratification which have now been completed. Accordingly, exchanges of ratifications of these documents were held today at the official residence of the Foreign Minister between France and Thailand, between Japan and France, and between Japan and Thailand.

Of the annexed documents of the Treaty of Peace, the Protocol concerning the organization and working of the Commission for the Delimitation of Boundary, as well as the protocol concerning the enforcement of the provisions with reference to unfortified zones, which Japan also signed, required an approval by the Japanese Government. As the Imperial Sanction was given thereto yesterday, July 4, the Japanese Government notified the French and Thai Governments under today's date.

An exchange of ratifications of the Treaty of Establishment and Navigation between Japan and France concerning French Indo-China and the Japanese-French Agreement with reference to customs tariff, trade and method of pay-

ment between Japan and French Indo-China, which were signed at Tokyo on May 6, also took place at the same meeting following the above exchange of ratifications. As the above mentioned documents provide that they be effective from the date of the exchange of their ratifications, they are in effect from today, July 5.

The provisions of the protocol concerning the organization and working of the Commission for the Delimitation of Boundary are to the following effect:

- (1) Five commissioners and five assistant commissioners each are to be appointed by Japan, France and Thailand. The commissioners may take with them a number of experts and clerks whom they consider necessary.
- (2) The chairmanship of the commission is to be entrusted to one of the Japanese commissioners.
- (3) The commission is to define boundaries on land and on rivers on the spot and map out such boundaries. It is also to erect boundary marks on required spots.
- (4) Expenses to carry on the work of the commission to be borne equally by the French and Thai Governments, and these two Governments will afford all necessary facilities to the commission to carry out its duties.

JOINT DEFENSE AGREEMENT BETWEEN JAPAN AND FRENCH INDO-CHINA

- (1) Statement of Government; Issued by the Board of Information, July 26, 1941

The relations between Japan and French Indo-China have of late become rapidly closer as the result of the agreement reached in August of last year between the Foreign Minister, Yosuké Matsuoka, and the French Ambassador, Arsène-Henry, and other agreements made on various occasions subsequently. A complete agreement of views has now been reached through friendly conversations between the Governments of Japan and France regarding their joint defense with respect to French Indo-China.

Japan intends to observe strictly her obligations arising from the various existing arrangements between Japan and France, especially the solemn promise of respecting the territorial integrity and sovereignty of French Indo-China, and at the same time to endeavor

for the promotion of the amicable relations subsisting between Japan and France, thereby realizing common prosperity of the two countries.

- (2) Statement of the Foreign Office, July 26, 1941

Indo-China and Japan have from olden times been closely bound in cultural, historical and economic relations. Prior to the closing of Japan to foreign intercourse by the Tokugawa Shogunate, there were two Japanese towns each in Annam and Cambodia and very prosperous trade was carried on with Japan. However, these relations were interrupted when the Shogunate prohibited Japanese from going abroad. In recent times, Indo-China has reestablished the old relations with Japan in a new sense as a source of materials for the industries of Japan. The renewed relations have of late steadily become closer and more cordial with Indo-China constituting an important link in the sphere of common prosperity of greater East Asia which Japan is endeavoring to establish.

Fully appreciating such close relationship of Indo-China to Japan and its importance, France definitely recognized preeminent position of Japan in French Indo-China through the exchange of documents between the then Foreign Minister, Yosuké Matsuoka, and her Ambassador in Japan, Arsène-Henry, in August of last year. Then, in May of this year, she concluded with Japan the economic agreement and signed the protocol concerning political understanding, striving thereby to solidify the good neighborly and amicable relations and to promote the close political and economic relations between Japan and French Indo-China. France has thus consistently continued her friendly co-operation with Japan.

However, the internal and external conditions of French Indo-China have recently been greatly affected by the changes of situations in Europe and East Asia with increasing signs of even the security of French Indo-China being threatened if such developments were left alone. If by any chance the situation so developed that French Indo-China is thrown into a chaotic condition, it cannot, in self-defense, be overlooked by Japan, not to mention France herself. It has been keenly felt, therefore, by both Japan and France that they were bound by very close relationship as well as common interest with regard to the position of French Indo-China.

From such point of view, the Japanese Government, since a short time ago, carried on negotiations through the Japanese Ambassador in France, Sotomatsu Kato, with the Government at Vichy. These negotiations progressed smoothly in an extremely friendly atmosphere and, on July 21, a complete agreement of views was reached between the Governments of Japan and France concerning their joint defense of French Indo-China. Japan and France have thus been ushered into more intimate relations with each other with French Indo-China serving as their connecting link. Needless to say, it will powerfully contribute toward the stabilization, co-existence and co-prosperity of greater East Asia.

It scarcely need reiteration that the Japanese Government intends strictly to observe various existing agreements between Japan and France concerning territorial integrity and sovereignty of French Indo-China, and Japan will put forth increasing efforts for the promotion of the Japanese-French friendly relations, thereby realizing common prosperity of the two countries.

(3) The Protocol Signed, July 29, 1941
(Unofficial translation)

The Imperial Japanese Government and the Government of France,
Taking into consideration the present international situation,

And recognizing as the result, that there exist reasons for Japan to consider that, in case the security of French Indo-China should be threatened, general tranquility in East Asia and her own security would be exposed to danger,

And renewing at this opportunity the promise made by Japan, on the one hand, to respect the rights and interests of France in East Asia, especially the territorial integrity of French Indo-China and the French sovereignty over the whole of the Union of French Indo-China; and the promise made by France, on the other hand, not to conclude with any third Power or Powers any agreement or understanding regarding Indo-China envisaging political, economic or military cooperation which is directly or indirectly aimed against Japan.

Have agreed upon the following provisions:

- (1) The two Governments mutually promise military cooperation for joint defense of French Indo-China.
- (2) Measures to be taken for such co-

operation shall be the object of special arrangements.

(3) The above stipulations shall be valid only so long as the situation which has motivated their adoption exists.

Documents Relating to the Greater
East Asia War

(1) The Imperial Rescript, Released
December 8, 1941

We, by grace of Heaven, Emperor of Japan, seated on the Throne of a line unbroken for ages eternal, enjoin upon ye, Our loyal and brave subjects:

We hereby declare war on the United States of America and the British Empire. The men and officers of Our army and navy shall do their utmost in prosecuting the war, Our public servants of various departments shall perform faithfully and diligently their appointed tasks, and all other subjects of Ours shall pursue their respective duties; the entire nation with a united will shall mobilize their total strength so that nothing will miscarry in the attainment of our war aims.

To insure the stability of East Asia and to contribute to world peace is the far-sighted policy which was formulated by our Great Illustrious Imperial Grand-sire and Our Great Imperial Sire succeeding Him, and which We lay constantly to heart. To cultivate friendship among nations and to enjoy prosperity in common with all nations has always been the guiding principle of Our Empire's foreign policy. It has been truly unavoidable and far from Our wishes that Our Empire has now been brought to cross swords with America and Britain. More than four years have passed since China, falling to comprehend the true intentions of Our Empire, and recklessly courting trouble, disturbed the peace of East Asia and compelled Our Empire to take up arms. Although there has been re-established the National Government of China, with which Japan has effected neighborly intercourse and cooperation, the régime which has survived at Chungking, relying upon American and British protection, still continues its fratricidal opposition. Eager for the realization of their inordinate ambition to dominate the Orient, both America and Britain, giving support to the Chungking régime, have aggravated the disturbances in East Asia. Moreover, these two Powers, inducing other countries to follow suit, increased military preparations on all sides of Our Empire

to challenge us. They have obstructed by every means our peaceful commerce, and finally resorted to a direct severance of economic relations, menacing gravely the existence of Our Empire. Patiently have We waited and long have We endured, in the hope that Our Government might retrieve the situation in peace. But our adversaries, showing not the least spirit of conciliation, have unduly delayed a settlement; and in the meantime, they have intensified the economic and political pressure to compel thereby Our Empire to submission. This trend of affairs would, if left unchecked, not only nullify Our Empire's efforts of many years for the sake of the stabilization of East Asia, but also endanger the very existence of Our nation. The situation being such as it is, Our Empire for its existence and self-defense has no other recourse but to appeal to arms and to crush every obstacle in its path.

The hallowed spirits of Our Imperial Ancestors guarding Us from above, We rely upon the loyalty and courage of Our subjects in Our confident expectation that the task bequeathed by Our forefathers will be carried forward, and that the sources of evil will be speedily eradicated and an enduring peace immutably established in East Asia, preserving thereby the glory of Our Empire.

(2) Japanese Note to the United States,
Made Public December 8, 1941
(Unofficial Translation)

The Government of Japan, prompted by a genuine desire to come to an amicable understanding with the Government of the United States in order that the two countries by their joint efforts may secure the peace of the Pacific area and thereby contribute toward the realization of world peace, has continued negotiations with the utmost sincerity since April last with the Government of the United States regarding the adjustment and advancement of Japanese-American relations and the stabilization of the Pacific area.

The Japanese Government has the honor to state frankly its views concerning the claims the American Government has persistently maintained as well as the measures the United States and Great Britain have taken toward Japan during these eight months.

It is the immutable policy of the Japanese Government to insure the stability of East Asia and to promote world peace, and thereby to enable all nations

to find each its proper place in the world.

Ever since the China Affair broke out owing to the failure on the part of China to comprehend Japan's true intentions, the Japanese Government has striven for the restoration of peace and it has consistently exerted its best efforts to prevent the extension of warlike disturbances. It was also to that end that in September last year Japan concluded the Tripartite Pact with Germany and Italy.

However, both the United States and Great Britain have resorted to every possible measure to assist the Chungking régime so as to obstruct the establishment of a general peace between Japan and China, interfering with Japan's constructive endeavors toward the stabilization of East Asia. Exerting pressure on the Netherlands East Indies, or menacing French Indo-China, they have attempted to frustrate Japan's aspiration to realize the ideal of common prosperity in cooperation with these regions.

Furthermore, when Japan in accordance with its Protocol with France took measures of joint defense of French Indo-China, both American and British Governments, wilfully misinterpreted it as a threat to their own possessions and inducing the Netherlands Government to follow suit, they enforced the assets-freezing order, thus severing economic relations with Japan. While manifesting, thus, an obviously hostile attitude, these countries have strengthened their military preparations perfecting an encirclement of Japan, and have brought about a situation which endangers the very existence of the Empire.

Nevertheless, to facilitate a speedy settlement, the Premier of Japan proposed, in August last, to meet the President of the United States for a discussion of important problems between the two countries covering the entire Pacific area. However, the American Government, while accepting in principle the Japanese proposal, insisted that the meeting should take place after an agreement of view had been reached on fundamental and essential questions.

Subsequently, on September 25 the Japanese Government submitted a proposal based on the formula proposed by the American Government, taking fully into consideration past American claims and also incorporating Japanese views. Repeated discussions proved of no avail in producing readily an agreement of

view. The present Cabinet, therefore, submitted a revised proposal, moderating still further the Japanese claims regarding the principal points of difficulty in the negotiation and endeavored strenuously to reach a settlement. But the American Government, adhering steadfastly to its original assertions, failed to display in the slightest degree a spirit of conciliation. The negotiation made no progress. Thereupon, the Japanese Government, with a view to doing its utmost for averting a crisis in Japanese-American relations, submitted on November 20, still another proposal in order to arrive at an equitable solution of the more essential and urgent questions, which, simplifying its previous proposal, stipulated the following points:

(1) The Government of Japan and the United States undertake not to dispatch armed forces into any of the regions, excepting French Indo-China, in South Eastern Asia and the Southern Pacific area.

(2) Both Governments shall cooperate with a view to securing the acquisition in the Netherlands East Indies of those goods and commodities of which the two countries are in need.

(3) Both Governments mutually undertake to restore commercial relations to those prevailing prior to the freezing of assets.

The Government of the United States shall supply Japan the required quantity of oil.

(4) The Government of the United States undertakes not to resort to measures and actions prejudicial to the endeavors for the restoration of general peace between Japan and China.

(5) The Japanese Government undertakes to withdraw troops now stationed in French Indo-China upon either the restoration of peace between Japan and China or the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area; and it is prepared to remove the Japanese troops in the southern part of French Indo-China to the northern part upon the conclusion of the present agreement.

As regards China, the Japanese Government, while expressing its readiness to accept the offer of the President of the United States to act as "introducer" of peace between Japan and China as was previously suggested, asked for an undertaking on the part of the United States to do nothing prejudicial to the restoration of Sino-Japanese peace when the two parties have commenced direct

negotiations.

The American Government not only rejected the above-mentioned new proposal, but made known its intention to continue its aid to Chiang Kai-shek; and in spite of its suggestion mentioned above, withdrew the offer of the President to act as the so-called "introducer" of peace between Japan and China, pleading that time was not yet ripe for it. Finally on November 26, in an attitude to impose upon the Japanese Government those principles it has persistently maintained, the American Government made a proposal totally ignoring Japanese claims, which is a source of profound regret to the Japanese Government.

From the beginning of the present negotiation the Japanese Government has always maintained an attitude of fairness and moderation, and did its best to reach a settlement, for which it made all possible concessions often in spite of great difficulties. As for the China question which constituted an important subject of the negotiation, the Japanese Government showed a most conciliatory attitude. As for the principle of non-discrimination in international commerce, advocated by the American Government, the Japanese Government expressed its desire to see the said principle applied throughout the world, and declared that along with the actual practice of this principle in the world, the Japanese Government would endeavor to apply the same in the Pacific area, including China, and made it clear that Japan had no intention of excluding from China economic activities of third Powers pursued on an equitable basis. Furthermore, as regards the question of withdrawing troops from French Indo-China, the Japanese Government even volunteered, as mentioned above, to carry out an immediate evacuation of troops from Southern French Indo-China as a measure of easing the situation. It is presumed that the spirit of conciliation exhibited to the utmost degree by the Japanese Government in all these matters is fully appreciated by the American Government.

On the other hand, the American Government, always holding fast to theories in disregard of realities, and refusing to yield an inch on its impractical principles, caused undue delays in the negotiation. It is difficult to understand this attitude of the American Government and the Japanese Government desires to

call the attention of the American Government especially to the following points:

(1) The American Government advocates in the name of world peace those principles favorable to it and urges upon the Japanese Government the acceptance thereof. The peace of the world may be brought about only by discovering a mutually acceptable formula through recognition of the reality of the situation and mutual appreciation of one another's position. An attitude such as ignores realities and imposes one's selfish views upon others will scarcely serve the purpose of facilitating the consummation of negotiations.

Of the various principles put forward by the American Government as a basis of the Japanese-American agreement, there are some which the Japanese Government is ready to accept in principle, but in view of the world's actual conditions, it seems only a utopian ideal, on the part of the American Government, to attempt to force their immediate adoption.

Again, the proposal to conclude a multilateral non-aggression pact between Japan, the United States, Great Britain, China, the Soviet Union, the Netherlands, and Thailand, which is patterned after the old concept of collective security, is far removed from the realities of East Asia.

(2) The American proposal contains a stipulation which states: "Both Governments will agree that no agreement, which either has concluded with any third Powers, shall be interpreted by it in such a way as to conflict with the fundamental purpose of this agreement, the establishment and observation of peace throughout the Pacific area." It is presumed that the above provision has been proposed with a view to restrain Japan from fulfilling its obligations under the Tripartite Pact when the United States participates in the war in Europe, and, as such, it cannot be accepted by the Japanese Government.

The American Government, obsessed with its own view and opinions, may be said to be scheming for the extension of the War. While it seeks, on the one hand, to secure its rear by stabilizing the Pacific area, it is engaged, on the other hand, in aiding Great Britain and preparing to attack, in the name of self-defense, Germany and Italy—two Powers that are striving to establish a new order in Europe. Such a policy is totally at

variance with the many principles upon which the American Government proposes to found the stability of the Pacific area through peaceful means.

(3) Whereas the American Government under the principles it rigidly upholds, objects to settling international issues through military pressure, it is exercising in conjunction with Great Britain and other nations pressure by economic power. Recourse to such pressure as a means of dealing with international relations should be condemned as it is at times more inhumane than military pressure.

(4) It is impossible not to reach the conclusion that the American Government desires to maintain and strengthen, in collusion with Great Britain and other Powers, its dominant position it has hitherto occupied not only in China but in other areas of East Asia. It is a fact of history that the countries of East Asia for the past hundred years or more have been compelled to observe the status quo under the Anglo-American policy of imperialistic exploitation and to sacrifice themselves to the prosperity of the two nations. The Japanese Government cannot tolerate the perpetuation of such a situation since it directly runs counter to Japan's fundamental policy to enable all nations to enjoy each its proper place in the world.

The stipulation proposed by the American Government relative to French Indo-China is a good exemplification of the above-mentioned American policy. That the six countries—Japan, the United States, Great Britain, the Netherlands, China and Thailand—excepting France, should undertake among themselves to respect the territorial integrity and sovereignty of French Indo-China and equality of treatment in trade and commerce would be tantamount to placing that territory under the joint guarantee of the Governments of those six countries. Apart from the fact that such a proposal totally ignores the position of France, it is unacceptable to the Japanese Government in that such an arrangement cannot but be considered as an extension to French Indo-China of a system similar to the Nine Power Treaty structure which is the chief factor responsible for the present predicament of East Asia.

(5) All the items demanded of Japan by the American Government regarding China such as wholesale evacuation of troops or unconditional application of

the principle of nondiscrimination in international commerce ignore the actual conditions of China, and are calculated to destroy Japan's position as the stabilizing factor of East Asia. The attitude of the American Government in demanding Japan not to support militarily, politically or economically any régime other than the régime at Chungking, disregarding thereby the existence of the Nanking Government, shatters the very basis of the present negotiation. This demand of the American Government falling, as it does, in line with its above-mentioned refusal to cease from aiding the Chungking régime, demonstrates clearly the intention of the American Government to obstruct the restoration of normal relations between Japan and China and the return of peace to East Asia.

In brief, the American proposal contains certain acceptable items such as those concerning commerce, including the conclusion of a trade agreement, mutual removal of the freezing restrictions, and stabilization of the yen and dollar exchange, or the abolition of extraterritorial rights in China. On the other hand, however, the proposal in question ignores Japan's sacrifices in the four years of the China Affair, menaces the Empire's existence itself and disparages its honor and prestige. Therefore, viewed in its entirety, the Japanese Government regrets that it cannot accept the proposal as a basis of negotiation.

The Japanese Government, in its desire for an early conclusion of the negotiation, proposed that simultaneously with the conclusion of the Japanese-American negotiation, agreements be signed with Great Britain and other interested countries. The proposal was accepted by the American Government. However, since the American Government has made the proposal of November 26 as a result of frequent consultations with Great Britain, Australia, the Netherlands and Chungking, and presumably by catering to the wishes of the Chungking régime on the questions of China, it must be concluded that all these countries are at one with the United States in ignoring Japan's position.

Obviously it is the intention of the American Government to conspire with Great Britain and other countries to obstruct Japan's efforts toward the establishment of peace through the creation of a new order in East Asia, and espe-

cially to preserve Anglo-American rights and interests by keeping Japan and China at war. This intention has been revealed clearly during the course of the present negotiation. Thus, the earnest hope of the Japanese Government to adjust Japanese-American relations and to preserve and promote the peace of the Pacific through cooperation with the American Government has finally been lost.

The Japanese Government regrets to have to notify hereby the American Government that, in view of the attitude of the American Government, it cannot but consider that it is impossible to reach an agreement through further negotiations.

(3) Summary of Negotiations, Made
Public December 8, 1941
(Unofficial Translation)

Negotiations between the Governments of Japan and the United States of America were begun at Washington in spring of this year (1941). In the middle of April, the American Government submitted an informal draft proposal. It contained stipulations on the following items:

- (1) The concepts of the United States and of Japan respecting international relations and the character of nations.
- (2) The attitudes of both Governments toward the European war.
- (3) Action toward a peaceful settlement between China and Japan.
- (4) Commerce between both nations.
- (5) Economic activity of both nations in the Pacific area.
- (6) The policies of both nations affecting political stabilization in the Pacific area.
- (7) Neutralization of the Philippine Islands.

The proposal was intended to serve as a basis for peace in the entire Pacific area. But the proposal contained a number of points unacceptable to the Japanese Government. For instance, with reference to the Tripartite Pact between Japan, Germany and Italy, the American Government asked the Japanese Government to give an undertaking not to menace the security of the United States when the latter should participate in the European war on the plea of self-defense. Again, as regards the China Affair, the American Government would undertake to use its good offices for the initiation of peace negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Chungking régime on such terms as

were acceptable to the United States.

Accordingly, the Japanese Government sent a counter-proposal in the middle of May, modifying the American proposal. Concerning the Tripartite Pact it was explicitly stated that Japan's obligation to render military assistance would arise as stipulated under the said treaty, while with regard to the China Affair, it was provided that the American Government, accepting the premises of the three Konoe Principles, the Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty and the Joint Declaration of Japan, Manchoukuo and China, and relying upon Japan's policy of neighborly friendship, would urge upon the Chungking régime to enter into negotiations with the Japanese Government for the restoration of peace, and it was further stipulated that in case Chungking refused to accept the American advice, the United States was to cease from aiding the Chungking régime. Negotiations were continued further when in the latter part of June a new counter-proposal was submitted by the American Government, which, as compared with its proposal of April, set forth American claim in a more concrete manner. Discussions were continued to be held, revolving round this June proposal.

In July, soon after the formation of the third Konoyé Cabinet the Japanese Government took measures of joint defense of French Indo-China in accordance with the Protocol concluded between Japan and France, whereupon the American Government applied economic pressure by freezing Japanese assets. But the Japanese Government still hoped for a peaceful settlement, and in August Premier Prince Konoe sent a personal message to President Roosevelt, setting forth fully the peaceful intentions of Japan, and proposing a meeting without delay between the responsible heads of the two Governments with a view to averting the crisis in the relations of the two countries. While accepting in principle the Konoe proposal, the American Government stoutly maintained its stand that it could not see its way to putting it into practice unless an agreement of view had been first reached on the pending issues, especially on the questions of the Tripartite Pact, the stationing of Japanese troops in China, and the non-discriminatory treatment in international commerce, and moreover, it held fast to its June proposal, refusing to make any concession. Accordingly,

the Japanese Government submitted on September 6 a proposal, followed by yet another proposal submitted on September 25 which took into account the American proposal of June and incorporated Japanese claims. Negotiations were continued until October 2, when the American Government requested clarification of Japan's intentions regarding the application of the four principles long advocated by the United States as fundamental principles of international relations—namely:

(1) Respect for the territorial integrity and the sovereignty of each and all nations.

(2) Support of the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries.

(3) Support of the principle of equality, including equality of commercial opportunity.

(4) Non-disturbance of the status quo in the Pacific except as the status quo may be altered by peaceful means.

At the same time, it demanded upon the Japanese Government to clarify further its views concerning the three questions mentioned above. As a result, the negotiations struck an impasse. In the meantime the Konoe Cabinet resigned in the middle of October.

Such divergence of view as mentioned above between the two Governments was produced largely because the American Government obstinately adhered to utopian principles based on selfish views for dealing with international relations, and insisted upon the application thereof in China and elsewhere, regardless of the real conditions of East Asia. It was evident that so long as the American Government persisted in this attitude, there was little chance of bringing negotiations to a successful conclusion.

The present Cabinet in its solicitude for the peace of the Pacific decided to continue the negotiation. With a view to effecting a settlement on an equitable basis, the Japanese Government formulated the following proposal concerning the three principal issues in the negotiations—namely (1) the right of self-defense in connection with the Tripartite Pact, (2) non-discriminatory treatment in international commerce, and (3) evacuation of troops from China and French Indo-China.

(1) The American Government undertakes not to enlarge unduly the meaning of "self-defense."

(2) The Japanese Government recog-

nizes the principle of non-discrimination in international commercial relations to be applied to all the Pacific area, including China, on the understanding that the said principle is to be applied uniformly to the rest of the world.

(3) Following the restoration of peace between Japan and China, the Japanese troops despatched to China in connection with the China Affair will be stationed for the necessary duration in specified areas, and the rest of the troops will be withdrawn upon the conclusion of peace and in accordance with the agreement between Japan and China. The troops in French Indo-China will be withdrawn immediately either upon the settlement of the China Affair or the establishment of peace in East Asia on an equitable basis.

Negotiations were conducted on the basis of the above proposal. Meanwhile the Japanese Government requested the American Government to use its good offices, upon the conclusion of the Japanese-American negotiation, for the conclusion of a similar understanding with Great Britain and other countries concerning relevant subjects. Moreover, in order to do the utmost in the negotiation, it dispatched Ambassador Kurusu post-haste to Washington to assist Admiral Nomura.

On the other hand, the American Government repeatedly urged that there would be no need for Japan to maintain the Tripartite Pact after the consummation of a Japanese-American agreement, and expressed its hope that the said treaty would cease to exist or become a dead letter. As regards the principle of non-discrimination in international commerce, the American Government insisting on its unconditional application to China, proposed the economic development of China jointly by the Powers. To this proposal, the Japanese Government replied to the effect that with regard to the commercial non-discrimination principle, Japan hoped for its application throughout the world and that it would recognize its application to China in accordance with the realization of this principle throughout the world, and also that the American proposal for the joint international development of China was unacceptable to Japan as it would open the way for the joint international control of China. On these grounds, the Japanese Government requested the American Government to withdraw the proposal in question.

On November 17 and thereafter Admiral Nomura, together with Ambassador Kurusu, repeatedly met the American President and the Secretary of State and strongly urged upon the latter two the necessity of bringing about speedily an amicable conclusion of the negotiation. Discussions were extended over a few meetings at which the President stated that he was prepared to act as an "introducer" of peace between Japan and Chungking, and the Secretary of State emphasized, that Japanese-American negotiations would prove difficult as long as Japan cooperated with Germany, and it was necessary to remove this fundamental difficulty. Despite these discussions, it became clear that the difficulty lay as before in the questions of the Tripartite Pact, of the international commercial non-discriminatory treatment and of China. In order to avert the rupture of diplomatic relations between the two countries, the Japanese Government, presented on November 20, the following new proposal calculated to achieve an equitable solution of the more essential and urgent questions.

(1) Both the Governments of Japan and the United States undertake not to make any armed advancement into any of the regions, excepting French Indo-China, in South Eastern Asia and the Southern Pacific area.

(2) The Governments of Japan and the United States shall cooperate with a view to securing the acquisition of those goods and commodities which the two countries need in the Netherlands East Indies.

(3) The Governments of Japan and the United States mutually undertake to restore their commercial relations to those prevailing prior to the freezing of the assets.

The Government of the United States shall supply Japan a required quantity of oil.

(4) The Government of the United States undertakes not to indulge in measures and actions prejudicial to the endeavors for the restoration of general peace between Japan and China.

(5) The Japanese Government undertakes to withdraw troops now stationed in French Indo-China upon either the restoration of peace between Japan and China or the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area.

The Government of Japan declares that it is prepared to remove the Japanese troops now stationed in the south-

ern part of French Indo-China to the northern part of the said territory upon the conclusion of the present agreement.

Regarding the above proposal, the Secretary of State contended that it was impossible for the American Government to accept the item 4 of our proposal and cease aiding the Chiang Kai-shek régime unless Japan clarified its relations with the Tripartite Pact and gave assurances regarding its adoption of a peaceful policy, and that the President's offer to act as "introducer" of Sino-Japanese peace was predicated upon Japan's adoption of a peaceful policy. Thereupon, the Japanese Government instructed the two Ambassadors to request reconsideration by the American Government, pointing out to the Secretary of State that, in case direct negotiations were opened between Japan and Chungking through "introduction" by the President, the continuation of aid to the Chiang Kai-shek régime by the United States, the peace introducer, would constitute an interference with the realization of peace, and that the American contention was therefore inconsistent.

Meanwhile, the American Government consulted the representatives of Britain, Australia, the Netherlands and Chungking, and on November 22 the Secretary of State told our two Ambassadors that withdrawal of troops from southern French Indo-China alone would not be enough to ease the tense situation in the Southern Pacific and that he considered the time was not yet ripe for the so-called "introduction" of peace between Japan and Chungking by the President.

Subsequently, the American Government continued consultations with the representatives of the Powers aforementioned and on November 26 the Secretary of State presented to our Ambassadors, as a basis for future negotiations, a proposal to the following effect stating that, although the American Government had carefully studied the Japanese proposal of the 20th and consulted with the countries concerned, they could not unfortunately bring themselves to agree to our proposal.

(a) In the new proposal, the American Government reiterated, with reference to political relations, the above-mentioned four principles as the fundamental principles to be practically applied to mutual relations between Japan and the United States. However, it changed the item 4 to "the principle of reliance upon international cooperation

and conciliation for the prevention and pacific settlement of controversies and for improvement of international conditions by peaceful methods and processes." As regards economic relations, the American Government elaborated the third political principle concerning the equality of opportunity and equal treatment in commerce.

(b) As measures to be adopted by the Governments of Japan and the United States it proposed as follows:

(1) The Government of the United States and the Government of Japan will endeavor to conclude a multilateral non-aggression pact among the British Empire, China, Japan, the Netherlands, the Soviet Union, Thailand and the United States.

(2) Both Governments will endeavor to conclude among the American, British, Chinese, Japanese, the Netherlands and Thai Governments an agreement whereunder each of the Governments would pledge itself to respect the territorial integrity of French Indo-China and, in the event that there should develop a threat to the territorial integrity of Indo-China, to enter into immediate consultation with a view to taking such measures as may be deemed necessary and advisable to meet the threat in question.

Such agreement would provide also that each of the Government party to the agreement would not seek or accept preferential treatment in its trade or economic relations with Indo-China and would use its influence to obtain for each of the signatories equality of treatment in trade and commerce with French Indo-China.

(3) The Government of Japan will withdraw all military, naval, air and police forces from China and from Indo-China.

(4) The Government of the United States and the Government of Japan will not support—militarily, politically, economically—any Government or régime in China other than the National Government of the Republic of China with capital temporarily at Chungking.

(5) Both Governments will give up all extraterritorial rights in China, including rights and interests in and with regard to international settlements and concessions, and rights under the Boxer Protocol of 1901.

Both Governments will endeavor to obtain the agreement of the British and other Governments to give up extraterritorial rights in China, including rights

in international settlements and in concessions and under the Boxer Protocol of 1901.

(6) The Government of the United States and the Government of Japan will enter into negotiations for the conclusion between the United States and Japan of a trade agreement, based upon reciprocal most favored-nation treatment and removal of trade barriers by both countries, including an undertaking by the United States to bind raw silk on the free list.

(7) The Government of the United States and the Government of Japan will, respectively, remove the freezing restrictions on Japanese funds in the United States and on American funds in Japan.

(8) Both Governments will agree upon a plan for the stabilization of the dollar-yen rate, with the allocation of funds adequate for this purpose, half to be supplied by Japan and half by the United States.

(9) Both Governments will agree that no agreement which either has concluded with any third powers shall be interpreted by it in such a way as to conflict with the fundamental purpose of this agreement, the establishment and preservation of peace throughout the Pacific area.

(10) Both Governments will use their influence to cause other Governments to adhere to and to give practical application to the basic political and economic principles set forth in this agreement.

Regarding the above proposal, our Ambassadors refuted the American claims pointing out their unreasonableness. But the Secretary of State failed to show any sign of concession, and on November 27 the President told our two Ambassadors that, although he still hoped for an amicable conclusion of the Japanese-American negotiations, he considered that it would be futile to try to surmount the crisis by a *modus vivendi* so long as the fundamental policies of the two countries were not in accord.

The Japanese Government, therefore, requested reconsideration of the American Government, because, despite the fact that our proposal of November 20 was made after fully considering the claims of both sides on the most equitable basis, the American Government, maintaining that it could not agree to this proposal, made a new proposal which entirely ignored the realities in East Asia and in particular completely its attitude with respect to the China

question—a fact which led the Japanese Government to doubt the sincerity of the American Government. On December 2, however, the American Under-Secretary of State Welles, stating that he was acting under Presidential order, made an inquiry to our Government regarding our true intentions, saying that, according to their information, movements and reinforcement of Japanese troops were recently taking place in the region of French Indo-China. To this inquiry the Japanese Government replied that, in view of the recent marked activities of the Chungking forces in the neighborhood of the frontier between French Indo-China and China, Japan had made partial reinforcement of its troops in northern French Indo-China as a precautionary measure and that this naturally had resulted in a movement of the troops in the southern area. Meanwhile the American Government rapidly reinforced the encircling front against Japan and led public opinion to its own advantage and thus prepared the ground with a view to meeting the situation arising from the rupture of the negotiations.

The Japanese Government made clear its attitude regarding the abovementioned American proposal in its Memorandum to the American Government under date of December 7.

AGREEMENT BETWEEN JAPAN, GERMANY AND ITALY FOR JOINT PROSECUTION OF WAR

(1) The Agreement Announcement of the Board of Information, December 11, 1941

In the unflexible determination not to lay down arms until the common war against the United States and the British Empire is successfully concluded, the Imperial Japanese Government, the German Government and the Italian Government have agreed upon the following stipulations.

Article 1. Japan, Germany and Italy shall prosecute the war forced upon them by the United States of America and the British Empire with all forceful means at their command until it ends in their victory.

Article 2. Japan, Germany and Italy pledge that, without complete understanding between themselves, they will not conclude armistice or peace with either the United States of America or the British Empire.

Article 3. Japan, Germany and Italy shall, even after the termination of the

war in their victory, cooperate most closely for the purpose of realizing a righteous new order within the meaning of the Tripartite Pact which they concluded on September 27, 1940.

Article 4. The present Agreement shall come into effect on the date of its signature and shall remain in force as long as the Tripartite Pact of September 27, 1940, is in force. The High Contracting Parties shall, at an appropriate time before the expiration of the said period of validity, reach an understanding concerning the manner of subsequent cooperation provided in Article 3 of the present Agreement.

(2) Statement of Foreign Minister Togo, December 11, 1941

It is a matter for sincere congratulation that an agreement has been promptly signed among Japan, Germany and Italy in Berlin today, December 11, closely following Japan's declaration of war on the United States of America and the British Empire, solemnly pledging their cooperation in prosecuting their joint war with the United States of America and the British Empire to a complete conclusion, in abstaining from concluding a separate peace and in constructing the new order of the world.

Germany and Italy, who are closely bound with Japan by the Three-Power Pact, have today declared war upon the United States of America and joined the conflict on Japan's side. Further, by virtue of the present agreement, they have manifested their intentions to prosecute the joint war to a glorious victory. This, together with marvellous achievements attained by the Imperial armed forces, is unfolding a bright future before the Japanese Empire, which is resolutely proceeding with construction of the new order of the world. We are overwhelmed with emotion realizing that all this has been entirely due to the august virtue of H.I.M. the Emperor.

At this juncture, when the world stands at a great turning-point, unprecedented in history, it is a source of great pleasure that Japan, with her confidence strengthened in winning a glorious victory and with her determination renewed, is marching toward construction of an equitable, new order as well as of a moral world in close cooperation with her allies, Germany, Italy and others.

MILITARY PACT BETWEEN JAPAN AND FRENCH INDO-CHINA, AN-

NOUNCEMENT BY THE ARMY AND NAVY DEPARTMENTS OF THE IMPERIAL HEADQUARTERS, DECEMBER 12, 1941

A military agreement was concluded between Japan and French Indo-China. It was signed at 8:30 p.m. December 8, 1941, between the Highest Commanders of the Japanese Army and Navy Forces in French Indo-China and the Government of French Indo-China. This agreement was based on the Japanese-French Indo-Chinese Common Defense Agreement concluded in July.

PACT OF ALLIANCE BETWEEN JAPAN AND THAILAND

(1) The Pact. Announced by the Board of Information, December 21, 1941

Since the agreement of basic views concerning the conclusion of an alliance pact between Japan and Thailand was reached between our Ambassador, Teiji Tsubokami, and the Thai Prime Minister, Luang Pibul Songgram, on the 11th of this month (December 1941), discussions were held regarding the drafting of the pact, which resulted in a satisfactory conclusion. Following the completion of necessary procedure, therefore, the Pact of Alliance between Japan and Thailand was signed between Ambassador Tsubokami and Prime Minister and concurrently Foreign Minister Pibul Songgram in Bangkok at 10 a.m. (noon, Japan Time) December 21, 1941.

The Imperial Government of Japan and the Royal Government of Thailand, firmly convinced that the establishment of a new order in East Asia the only way of realizing prosperity of that region and the indispensable condition for the restoration and promotion of world peace, and animated by a firm and inflexible determination to eliminate all baneful influences which are obstacles to such purpose, have agreed as follows:

Article 1. An alliance is established between Japan and Thailand on the basis of mutual respect for their independence and sovereignty.

Article 2. In case either Japan or Thailand find herself in an armed conflict vis-à-vis one or more third Powers, Thailand or Japan shall immediately range herself on the side of the other country as her ally and shall aid the latter with all political, economic and military means.

Article 3. The details relative to the execution of Article 2 shall be determined, by common accord, between the com-

petent authorities of Japan and Thailand.
Article 4. Japan and Thailand, in case of war prosecuted in common, engage not to conclude an armistice or a peace without their complete mutual accord.

Article 5. The present Pact shall come into effect simultaneously with its signature and shall remain valid for the duration of ten years. The Contracting Parties shall consult between them regarding the renewal of the present Pact at a suitable time before the expiration of the said duration.

(2) Foreign Minister Togo's Statement, December 21, 1941

Japan and Thailand have for many years been bound to each other in bonds of traditional friendship as nations of the Oriental race. To strengthen further these bonds of close friendship, the Treaty of Amity and Friendship was concluded between the two countries in June of last year. Then at the beginning of this year, the border dispute between Thailand and French Indo-China was peacefully settled through the mediation by Japan, as the result of which Thailand succeeded in recovering her lost territories which had been her longstanding aspiration. At the same time the Protocol concerning political understanding between Japan and Thailand was concluded, resulting in further increase in the warmth of their mutual cordiality.

On the other hand, Thailand has for many years been made an object of political intrigue and economic exploitation by Great Britain, in whose fetters she groaned. The present Thai Prime Minister, Luang Pibul Songgram, has long advocated autonomy in dealing with state affairs of Thailand. In order to realize the purpose through cooperation with Japan, a friendly Power in East Asia, he has exerted his efforts to promote and solidify the amicable relations between Japan and Thailand.

When Japan commenced war against the United States and the British Empire on December 8, our Government, with a view to repelling British invasion of Thailand, instructed Ambassador Tsubokami to negotiate with Prime Minister Pibul Songgram to obtain Thailand's assent to the passage of Japanese forces through the latter's territory. The Prime Minister, perceiving the general trend of affairs, agreed to Japan's proposal and an understanding with regard thereto was reached on the same day. Since then, in order to adjust the Japanese-Thai relations to the new situation as well as to accelerate the promotion of the close friendship between the two countries, Ambassador Tsubokami proceeded with the negotiations with Prime Minister Pibul Songgram. Through the courageous decision of the Prime Minister, an agreement of views concerning the conclusion of an offensive alliance between Japan and Thailand was reached on December 11. Subsequently, a draft treaty was decided upon, and following the completion of internal procedures, the Pact of Alliance between Japan and Thailand was signed between Ambassador Tsubokami and Prime Minister and concurrently Foreign Minister Pibul Songgram at 10 a.m. (noon, Japan Time) on the 21st of this month in a grand chapel of the Royal Palace in Bangkok.

The Alliance Pact, which is epoch-making in the history of Greater East Asia, has thus come into being. Thailand has, at a time when the war against the United States and the British Empire, which will determine the destiny of East Asia for centuries to come is being prosecuted, expressed clearly and concretely her determination to prosecute the present war in cooperation with Japan until victory is won. This is indeed a matter for profound felicitation for the sake of the establishment of a new world order as well as the rise of East Asia.

CHRONOLOGICAL INDEX OF PRINCIPAL EVENTS

For the convenience of reference a chronological index of principal events in the country's foreign relations is appended:

OPENING OF THE COUNTRY

- 1853—Arrival of American fleet.
- 1854—First Japanese-American Treaty.
- 1856—Arrival of first American civil

envoy, Townsend Harris.

1857—Harris concluded convention with the Shogunate.

1858—Japanese-American Commercial Treaty signed.

OCCUPATION OF TSUSHIMA BY RUSSIA

1861—A Russian fleet seized the island

of Tsushima but abandoned it shortly afterwards through the intervention of Great Britain.

BOMBARDMENT OF KAGOSHIMA AND SHIMONOSEKI.

1863—A British fleet bombarded Kagoshima city.

1864—A combined fleet of Great Britain, the United States, France and the Netherlands bombarded Shimonoséki.

IMPERIAL SANCTION OF TREATIES

1865—Treaties with Britain, France, the Netherlands, Russia and the United States were sanctioned by the Emperor.

TREATY REVISION

1871—Prince Iwakura's mission left for the United States and Europe.

1882—Count Inoué's negotiations with Britain.

1888—Count Okuma's negotiations.

„ Viscount Aoki's negotiations.

1894—Revised Anglo-Japanese Treaty signed.

1897—Similar treaties concluded with other Powers.

THE PERUVIAN SLAVE SHIP INCIDENT

1872—Japanese Government seized Peruvian slaver "María Luz" in Yokohama.

EXPEDITION TO TAIWAN

1872—Japan sent a punitive expedition to the island.

EXCHANGE OF SAGHALIEN AND THE KURILE ISLANDS

1875—Japan ceded Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands.

BONIN ISLAND PROBLEM

1875—The United States recognized Japan's territorial sovereignty over the Bonin Islands.

CONVENTION OF TIENTSIN

1885—Count Ito and Li Hung-chang signed the convention defining Sino-Japanese relations in Korea.

NON-ALIENATION OF FUKIEN PROVINCE

1889—Japan guaranteed the non-alienation of Fukien province from China.

SINO-JAPANESE WAR

1894—Japan declared war.

1895—Treaty of Shimonoséki concluded.

ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

1902—Alliance signed in London.

RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

1904—Japan declared war.

1905—Treaty of Portsmouth signed.

JAPANESE-AMERICAN ARBITRATION TREATY

1905—Treaty signed in Washington, D. C. on Feb. 11.

PROTECTORATE OF KOREA

1905—Protectorate convention concluded.

PEKING TREATY

1905—Sino-Japanese convention embodying relevant terms of Portsmouth Treaty signed.

EXCLUSION OF JAPANESE SCHOOL CHILDREN IN CALIFORNIA

1906—Movement started in California for exclusion of Japanese children from public schools.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AND RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENTS

1907—Franco-Japanese Convention concluded.

1907—Russo-Japanese Agreement concluded.

NEW JAPAN-KOREAN AGREEMENT

1907—New Agreement concluded allowing Japan complete supervision of Korean domestic administration.

IMMIGRATION PROBLEM IN CANADA

1907—Japan exchanged on Dec. 3 a memorandum with Canada in connection with the immigration problem.

U.S.-JAPAN ARBITRATION TREATY

1908—Treaty concluded on Sep. 12.

JAPAN-AMERICAN ACCORD

1908—Official notes exchanged regarding the preservation of peace in the Far East.

ANTUNG-MUKDEN RAILWAY ISSUE

1909—Agreement signed on Aug. 15 between Japan and China regarding the Antung-Mukden Railway.

PROPOSAL TO NEUTRALIZE THE SOUTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY

1910—Japan refused on Jan. 21 to accept the proposal of Secretary of State Knox of the United States regarding neutralization of the South Manchuria Railway.

RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT

1910—New agreement concluded on July 4 between Japan and Russia regarding the maintenance

of the status quo in Manchuria.

FINAL TREATY REVISION

1910—Japan notified Great Britain and 10 European countries on July 17 that existing treaties would be revised a year later. On August 4, similar notices served to France and Austria-Hungary.

ANNEXATION OF KOREA

1910—Treaty of Annexation concluded.

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT TREATY

1910—Japan signed the International Copyright Treaty in Berlin on September 8.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT REGARDING PATENTS AND COPYRIGHT

1911—An agreement concluded on May 8, regarding patents and copyright in China.

NEW ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY

1911—Treaty concluded on the basis of the arbitration treaties between Great Britain and the United States.

PUBLICATION OF THE REVISED TREATIES

1911—The United States published revised treaty with Japan on April 5. Great Britain, Spain and Sweden did likewise on April 6, May 15 and July 13 respectively. Italy, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Canada published revised treaties with Japan simultaneously on July 15, followed by Germany, Austria-Hungary and France on July 16, August 3 and August 26 respectively.

RUSSO-JAPANESE EXTRADITION CONVENTION

1911—Convention concluded on September 13.

ANTI-JAPANESE ALIEN LAND LAW IN CALIFORNIA

1913—Passage of the so-called Webb Bill.

NANKING INCIDENT

1913—Negotiations regarding the Kunchow, Hankow and Nanking incidents concluded on October 7, the Chinese accepting all the Japanese demands.

MANCHURIA RAILWAY TREATY

1913—Treaty concluded between Japan and China regarding the railway building concessions.

RECOGNITION OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

1913—Japan recognized the Republic of China on October 6 simultaneously with the election of Yuan Shih-kai as president.

ABOLITION OF FOREIGN SETTLEMENTS IN CHOSSEN

1914—The protocol abrogating the foreign settlements in Chosen, signed on April 20 the preceding year, published.

THE GREAT WAR

1914—Japan declares war on Germany and Austria.

SINO-JAPANESE PARLEYS

1915—The Chinese Government requested Japan January 8 to delimit the war zone in Shantung and withdraw her troops from that zone. Accordingly, Minister Hioki in Peking held a conference with Yuan Shih-kai on January 18 to discuss Japan's counter proposals. Japan served an ultimatum on May 6, and the Chinese Government accepted all the Japanese proposals.

SPANISH-JAPANESE TREATY

1915—Ratifications of a commercial treaty exchanged on July 10.

ANTI-INDEPENDENT PEACE AGREEMENT

1915—Japan participated on Oct. 19 in the agreement of the Allied powers signed in London prohibiting the signatories from concluding a separate peace with Germany.

WARNING TO CHINA

1915—Anticipating disturbances in connection with the apparent designs of Yuan Shih-kai to revive the Imperial Government in China, Japan issued a warning to China on October 28.

RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT

1916—The third Russo-Japanese agreement for protection of Japanese and Russian interests in the Far East signed on July 3.

ISHII-LANSING AGREEMENT

1917—Japan and the United States exchanged notes declaring that territorial propinquity created special relation between countries. This exchange of opinion, published on November 7, is generally known as the Ishii-

- Lansing Agreement.
- SINO-JAPANESE MILITARY ENTENTE**
1918—Entente concluded on May 16, and its text published by the Japanese Foreign Office on May 30.
- SIBERIAN EXPEDITION**
1918—Japanese participation announced.
- DECLARATION OF THE RENDITION OF SHANTUNG**
1919—Count Uchida, the Foreign Minister, announced the restoration of complete Chinese sovereignty on May 17.
- SIGNING OF THE PEACE TREATIES**
1919—Prince Kimmochi Salonji signed the Versailles treaties at 3 o'clock in the afternoon of June 28.
- DEMAND FOR THE EVACUATION OF SIBERIA**
1920—The Soviet Government of Irkutsk sent an ultimatum to Japan on March 11.
- NIKOLAEVSK AFFAIR**
1920—Attack on Japanese consulate launched.
- DECLARATION OF SIBERIAN POLICY**
1920—Japanese Government issued statement re withdrawal of troops.
- ANTI-JAPANESE IMMIGRATION**
1920—Revision of regulations by the Immigration Bureau of the United States.
- RENEWAL OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE**
1920—The Japanese and British Governments notified the Secretariat of the League of Nations on July 14, that the duration of the Anglo-Japanese alliance will be extended for another year.
- REOPENING OF THE GERMAN EMBASSY IN TOKYO**
1920—Dr. Solf arrived in Japan as the first German ambassador after the Great War.
- WASHINGTON CONFERENCE**
1921—Conference opened with Japan participating.
- THE GENEVA TRI-PARTITE NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE**
1927—Conference opened with Japan participating.
- THE LONDON NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE**
1930—Conference opened with Japan participating.
- THE MANCHURIAN INCIDENT**
1931—Incident occurred at Mukden.
- THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL**
1932—Protocol signed whereby Japan extends de jure recognition to the new State.
- THE WORLD ECONOMIC CONFERENCE**
1933—Conference opened with Japan participating.
- THE JAPAN-INDIA TRADE CONFERENCE**
1933—Conference held at Simla and New Delhi, India.
1934—New treaty signed at London, on July 12.
- MANCHOUKUO ESTABLISHED**
1934—The New State was proclaimed "Empire" and Mr. Pu-yi endorsed as Emperor on March 1.
- THE JAPAN-BRITAIN TRADE CONFERENCE**
1934—Conference adjourned on March 14 in failure.
- THE JAPAN-DUTCH CONFERENCE**
1934—Conference opened at Batavia on June 8 which adjourned on December 21 indefinitely.
- TRANSFERENCE OF NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY**
1935—Transference of North Manchuria Railway by the U.S.S.R. to Manchoukuo formally signed at Tokyo on March 23.
- JAPAN'S WITHDRAWAL FROM THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS**
1935—Became completely effective on March 26.
- THE VISIT OF THE EMPEROR OF MANCHOUKUO**
1935—The Emperor of Manchoukuo visited Japan and made a formal call upon the Emperor of Japan on April 6.
- SETTLEMENT OF NORTH-CHINA INCIDENT**
1935—All demands of the Japanese garrison at Tientsin on various problems relating to North China accepted by the Nanking Government.
- WITHDRAWAL FROM THE WASHINGTON NAVAL TREATY**
1935—Japanese Government notified the U.S. Government of her intention to terminate the Wash-

ington Naval Treaty, December 29.

JAPAN-GERMAN AGREEMENT

1936—The Agreement guarding against the Communist International was entered into, between Japan and Germany on November 25, 1936.

SINO-JAPANESE CONFLICT

1937—Beginning of Sino-Japanese hostilities on July 7.

Beginning of the hostilities at Shanghai on August 13.

Occupation of Shanghai by Japanese forces on November 13.

Fall of Nanking on December 13.

1938—Defeat of the Chinese armies at Suchow on May 19.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ON THE CONFLICT

1937—The League of Nations declared Japanese violation of the Nine Power Treaty on October 6, and Japan refuted it promptly.

A conference was convened at Brussels on the Sino-Japanese Conflict, and Japan was invited to the conference. But Japan rejected the invitation on October 27.

THE TRIPARTITE AGREEMENT

1937—Italy entered the German-Japanese Agreement against the Comintern and the Tripartite Protocol was made public on Nov. 6.

THE CHANGKUFENG INCIDENT

1938—Soviet forces occupied Changkufeng of Manchoukuo on July 12. Hostilities between Japanese and Soviet forces ceased by the agreement concluded on August 10.

CAPTURE OF CANTON AND HANKOW

1938—Canton was occupied by Japanese forces on October 21, and Wuhan cities on October 27.

DEVELOPMENT OF ANTI-COMINTERN AGREEMENT

1939—Entrance of Manchoukuo and Hungary into the Agreement on February 24.

Spain's formal participation took place on March 27.

BLOCKADE OF TIENTSIN FOREIGN CONCESSION

1939—English and French Concessions blockaded by Japanese Army on June 14 and the blockade lifted on June 20, 1940.

THE SECOND EUROPEAN WAR

1939—The British Government declared war against Germany on September 3.

THE NOMONHAN INCIDENT

1939—Japanese and Soviet forces commenced hostilities at Nomonhan on the Haluha on May 11, which ended on September 15 by the conclusion of a truce agreement.

ABROGATION OF THE COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE U.S.A.

1940—The Commerce and Navigation Treaty between Japan and the United States of America was abrogated on January 26.

ESTABLISHMENT OF CENTRAL GOVERNMENT IN NANKING

1940—The new Central Government of China was established in Nanking on March 30.

TRIPLE ALLIANCE AMONG JAPAN, GERMANY AND ITALY

1940—The Treaty for mutual assistance among Japan, Germany and Italy, with all political, economic and military means for coming 10 years, was concluded in Berlin on September 27.

CONCLUSION OF TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND CHINA

1940—The Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China was concluded in Nanking on November 30.

NEUTRALITY PACT BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE U.S.S.R.

1941—The Neutrality Pact between Japan and the Soviet Russia was signed in Moscow on April 13.

WAR BETWEEN RUSSIA AND AXIS POWERS

1941—Germany and Italy declared war against the U.S.S.R. on June 22.

AMERICAN FREEZING OF JAPANESE ASSETS

1941—The U.S. Government issued order to freeze the Japanese

assets held in that country on July 25 and enforced it on the following day.

DEFENSE PROTOCOL BETWEEN JAPAN AND FRANCE

1941—The Joint Defense Protocol between Japan and France concerning the protection of French Indo-China was signed on July 26, and Japanese forces landed on Saigon, same day.

BEGINNING OF THE GREATER EAST ASIA WAR

1941—Japan declared war against the United States of America and Great Britain on December 8, the Imperial Military and Naval forces attacking Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Guam Island, and Malay

simultaneously at the dawn of the same day.

AGREEMENT BETWEEN JAPAN, GERMANY AND ITALY

1941—The agreement between Japan, Germany and Italy for joint prosecution of war against the United States of America and the British Empire was signed in Berlin and Germany and Italy declared war against the United States of America, on December 11.

ALLIANCE BETWEEN JAPAN AND THAILAND

1941—The alliance pact between Japan and Thailand for the establishment of a new order in East Asia was signed in Bangkok on December 21.

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CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL DEFENSE

(Section I)

CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL DEFENSE¹

The Imperial Precepts to The Soldiers and Sailors, of Emperor Meiji

The forces of Our Empire are in all ages under the command of the Emperor. It is more than twenty-five centuries since the Emperor Jimmu, leading in person the soldiers of the Otomo and Mononobé clans, subjected the unruly tribes of the land and ascended the Imperial Throne to rule over the whole country. During this period the military system has undergone frequent changes in accordance with those in the state of society. In ancient times the rule was that the Emperor should take personal command of the forces; and although the military authority was sometimes delegated to the Empress or to the Prince Imperial, it was scarcely ever entrusted to a subject. In the middle ages, when the civil and military institutions were framed after the Chinese model, the Six Guards were founded, the Right and Left Horse Bureaux established, and other organizations, such as that of the Coast Guards, created. The military system was thus completed, but, habituated to a prolonged state of peace, the Imperial Court gradually lost its administrative vigor: in course of time soldiers and farmers became distinct classes, and the early conscription system was replaced by an organization of volunteers, which finally produced the military class. The military power passed over entirely to the leaders of this class; through disturbances in the Empire the political power also fell into their hands; and for about seven centuries the military families held sway. Although these results followed from changes in the state of society and were beyond human control, they were deeply to be deplored, since they were contrary to the fundamental character of Our Empire and to

the law of Our Imperial Ancestors. Later on, in the eras of Kokwa and Kaéi, the decline of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the new aspect of foreign relations even threatened to impair our national dignity, causing no small anxiety to Our August Grandfather, the Emperor Ninko, and Our August Father, the Emperor Koméi, a fact which We recall with awe and gratitude. When in youth We succeeded to the Imperial Throne, the Shogun returned into Our hands the administrative power, and all the feudal lords their fiefs; thus, in a few years, Our entire realm was unified and the ancient régime restored. Due as this was to the meritorious services of Our loyal officers and wise councillors, civil and military, and to the abiding influence of Our Ancestors' benevolence towards the people, yet it must also be attributed to Our subjects' true sense of loyalty and their conviction of the importance of "Great Righteousness." In consideration of these things, being desirous of reconstructing Our military system and of enhancing the glory of Our Empire, We have in the course of the last fifteen years established the present system of the Army and Navy. The supreme command of Our forces is in Our hands, and although We may entrust subordinate commands to Our subjects, yet the ultimate authority We Ourselves shall hold and never delegate to any subject. It is Our will that this principle be carefully handed down to posterity and that the Emperor always retain the supreme civil and military power, so that the disgrace of the middle and succeeding ages may never be repeated. Soldiers and Sailors, We are your supreme Commander-in-Chief. Our relations with you will be most intimate when We rely upon you as Our limbs and you look up to Us as your head. Whether We are able to

¹ Note: Since July 1937, the Imperial Army and Navy have been fundamentally reorganized, and, as a matter of course, no information concerning such changes are available. Consequently, only what was known before the present wartime reorganization can here be given. The descriptions of "The Greater East Asia War" are given at the end of this book as the continuation of this chapter.

guard the Empire, and so prove Ourselves worthy of Heaven's blessings and repay the benevolence of Our Ancestors, depends upon the faithful discharge of your duties as soldiers and sailors. If the majesty and power of Our Empire be impaired, do you share with Us the sorrow; if the glory of Our arm shine resplendent, We will share with you the honor. If you all do your duty, and being one with Us in spirit do your utmost for the protection of the state, Our people will long enjoy the blessings of peace, and the might and dignity of our Empire will shine in the world. As We thus expect much of you, Soldiers and Sailors, We give you the following precepts:—

(1) The soldier and the sailor should consider loyalty their essential duty. Who that is born in this land can be wanting in the spirit of grateful service to it? No soldier or sailor, especially, can be considered efficient unless this spirit be strong within him. A soldier or a sailor in whom this spirit is not strong, however skilled in art or proficient in science, is a mere puppet; and a body of soldiers or sailors wanting in loyalty, however well ordered and disciplined it may be, is in an emergency no better than a rabble. Remember that, as the protection of the state and the maintenance of its power depend upon the strength of its arms, the growth or decline of this strength must affect the nation's destiny for good or for evil; therefore neither be led astray by current opinions nor meddle in politics, but with single heart fulfil your essential duty of loyalty, and bear in mind that duty is weightier than a mountain, while death is lighter than a feather. Never by failing in moral principle fall into disgrace and bring dishonor upon your name.

(2) The soldier and the sailor should be strict in observing propriety. Soldiers and sailors are organized in grades, from the Marshal and the Admiral of the Fleet down to the private soldier or ordinary seaman; and even within the same rank and grade there are differences in seniority of service according to which juniors should submit to their seniors. Inferiors should regard the orders of their superiors as issuing directly from Us. Always pay due respect not only to your superiors but also to your seniors, even though not serving under them. On the other

hand, superiors should never treat their inferiors with contempt or arrogance. Except when official duty requires them to be strict and severe, superiors should treat their inferiors with consideration, making kindness their chief aim, so that all grades may unite in their service to the Emperor. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, neglect to observe propriety, treating your superiors with disrespect and your inferiors with harshness, and thus cause harmonious cooperation to be lost, you will not only be a blight upon the forces but also be unpardonable offenders against the state.

(3) The soldier and the sailor should esteem valor. Ever since the ancient times valor has in our country been held in high esteem, and without it Our subjects would be unworthy of their name. How then may the soldier and the sailor, whose profession it is to confront the enemy in battle, forget even for one instant to be valiant? But there is true valor and false. To be incited by mere impetuosity to violent action cannot be called true valor. The soldier and the sailor should have sound discrimination of right and wrong, cultivate self-possession, and form their plans with deliberation. Never to despise an inferior enemy or fear a superior, but to do one's duty as soldier or sailor—this is true valor. Those who thus appreciate true valor should in their daily intercourse set gentleness first and aim to win the love and esteem of others. If you affect valor and act with violence, the world will in the end detest you and look upon you as wild beasts. Of this you should take heed.

(4) The soldier and the sailor should highly value faithfulness and righteousness. Faithfulness and righteousness are the ordinary duties of man, but the soldier and the sailor, in particular, cannot be without them and remain in the ranks even for a day. Faithfulness implies the keeping of one's word, and righteousness the fulfilment of one's duty. If then you wish to be faithful and righteous in any thing, you must carefully consider at the outset whether you can accomplish it or not. If you thoughtlessly agree to do something that is vague in its nature and bind yourself to unwise obligations, and then try to prove yourself faithful and righteous, you may find yourself in great straits from

which there is no escape. In such cases your regrets will be of no avail. Hence you must first make sure whether the thing is righteous and reasonable or not. If you are convinced that you cannot possibly keep your word and maintain righteousness, you had better abandon your engagement at once. Ever since the ancient times there have been repeated instances of great men and heroes who, overwhelmed by misfortune, have perished and left a tarnished name to posterity, simply because in their effort to be faithful in small matters they failed to discern right and wrong with reference to fundamental principles, or because, losing sight of the true path of public duty, they kept faith in private relations. You should, then, take serious warning by these examples.

(5) The soldier and the sailor should make simplicity their aim. If you do not make simplicity your aim, you will become effeminate and frivolous and acquire fondness for luxurious and extravagant ways; you will finally grow selfish and sordid and sink to the last degree of baseness, so that neither loyalty nor valor will avail to save you from the contempt of the world. It is not too much to say that you will thus fall into a life-long misfortune. If such an evil once makes its appearance among soldiers and sailors, it will certainly spread like an epidemic, and martial spirit and morale will instantly decline. Although, being greatly concerned on this point, We lately issued the Disciplinary Regulations and warned you against this evil, nevertheless, being harassed with anxiety lest it should break out, We hereby reiterate Our warning. Never do you, Soldiers and Sailors, make light of this injunction.

These five articles should not be disregarded even for a moment by soldiers and sailors. Now for putting them into practice, the all important is sincerity. These five articles are the soul of Our soldiers and sailors, and sincerity is the soul of these articles. If the heart be not sincere, words and deeds, however good, are all mere outward show and can avail nothing. If only the heart be sincere, anything can be accomplished. Moreover, these five articles are the Grand Way of Heaven and Earth and the universal law of humanity, easy to observe and to practise. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, in obedience to Our instruction, will observe and practise

these principles and fulfil your duty of grateful service to the country, it will be a source of joy, not to Ourselves alone, but to all people of Japan.

The 4th day of the 1st month of the 15th Year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)

General

Special Position of Army and Navy
The Japanese Army and Navy are under the direct command of the Emperor and neither the Government nor the Diet has any right to interfere in the strategic actions or the number of men or ships to be maintained. In making any decision on military and naval strength or the organization thereof, the Emperor consults the Chiefs of the respective General Staffs, who are thereupon required to submit their plans direct to His Majesty. The plans are then handed to the Prime Minister, who in turn consults the Diet as to the necessary appropriations. Thus the Diet, while powerless to interfere with the actual naval and military projects, is entitled to determine the amount to be appropriated for their execution. If, however, the Service estimates are reduced in such a way as to render the original projects impossible of execution, this is deemed to be an infringement of the Imperial Prerogative under Article XII of the Constitution.

The Board of Field Marshals and Fleet Admirals This Board was created in 1898 as the Emperor's highest advisory body on military and naval affairs. Its members are at present as follows:
Field Marshal H.I.H. Prince Kan-in;
Field Marshal H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto;
Fleet Admiral H.I.H. Prince Fushimi.

The High Military Council This is a larger advisory body which was created in 1887. Its membership includes, in addition to that of the above-mentioned Board, the Ministers of War and Navy, the Chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs and other generals and admirals specially nominated by the Emperor. Its functions are to advise the Emperor on all matters appertaining to war, especially on the correlation of the various departments of military administration, in the broader sense of the word. The Council may meet in sections to deliberate and tender advice on issues concerning the Army or the Navy separately.

The Military Service System¹ The system of compulsory military service in Japan is by no means a new one. It was established for the first time during the Taika Reformation (646 A.D.), thereafter undergoing many changes. It was greatly improved by the Taihoréi promulgated by Mommu Tenno in the year 701 A.D. According to this law the whole country was divided into several military districts to facilitate the operation of the law and one-third of the youth in each district was compulsorily enlisted for military discipline. The number of trained men in Japan in those days is said to have reached more than 100,000. A long period of peace then ensued, with the result that the law gradually dropped out of practice, giving room to the emergence of a division of people into two classes; namely, warriors on the one hand and farmers on the other.

The present law relating to military conscription was promulgated in 1872. By this law the conscription system of the country was brought back to what it was in former times. This is considered among the greatest achievements of the Meiji Tenno.

The fundamental aspects of the Japanese military service system are based upon the unique nature of the Japanese policy and the peculiar psychology of the Japanese people, who are not

only willing, but deem it the highest honor, to serve in the army and the navy. All Japanese men, between 17 and 40 (except those who are disabled or those who have been imprisoned for six years or more) are required to serve.

The service is divided as follows:

(1) Jobi héi-éki (standing service). This is of two kinds: (a) Gen-éki (active service), 2 years for the army and 3 years for the navy; (b) Yobi-éki (1st reserve service), 5 years and 4 months for the army and 4 years for the navy.

(3) Hoju héi-éki (replenishment reserve service). This is divided into two categories:—(a) First Supplementary Untrained Reservists, 2 years and 4 months for the army and 1 year for the navy, (b) Second Supplementary Untrained Reservists, 12 years and 4 months for the Navy.

(4) Kokumin héi-éki (national service or Militia), extending in principle for the necessary period in either arm for the man to reach the age of 40.

Men are subjected to medical examination for conscription at the age of 20, and are classed as follows:

Class I; Class II, A, Class II, B; Class III; Class IV, and Class V. They are then allocated to the various categories of service according to their medical class as follows:

Medical Class	Description	Service to which Allocated
I, II A and B	Fit for active service.	Active service or replenishment reserve.
III	Fit for national service, but not for active service.	National service
IV	Unfit for any service.	Exempt from all service.
V	Nature of fitness undecided (may be included in Class I or Class II, A or B, in the following year.)	Allocation Postponed

They are then drafted to different branches of service according to the districts to which they belong and their ability and occupation.

Those who are fit for active service (Class I, Class II, A and B) are enrolled by lottery, at each conscription district, for active service or 1st or 2nd replenishment reserve. (Volunteer enrolments for active service are accepted.) Those having finished the period of active service are placed on

the 1st reserve list for terms as stated above. At the end of such terms they are removed to the 2nd reserve, and then finally to the national service. Those who have gone through the period of replenishment reserve service are also transferred to the national service.

Sole supporters of families, and criminals sentenced to over 6 years' imprisonment or penal servitude are also exempt from service. Those studying

1. Note: In 1939 and 1941 some important revisions were made in the system by the promulgation of laws amending the Military Law, an explanation of which is given elsewhere in this chapter.

at certain schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of equivalent or superior status to that of middle schools are exempt from conscription examination until the completion of their studies or until they attain their 27th year. Those staying abroad enjoy postponement of service under similar conditions, the age limit being 37.

By virtue of a revision of the conscription law in 1927, the active service of conscripts who have finished the course of a Young Men's School is reduced by six months, while that of the graduates from normal schools by nineteen months. In other words, the former have to serve only eighteen months and the latter only five months, instead of full two years. A similar system of short term active service has also been adopted by the Navy.

The term of active service for graduates of middle schools and higher grade schools who have received full disciplinary training while at school and passed the final examination thereof is reduced to 12 months.

The conscription examination of such students is postponed till they reach the age of full 27 years.

After 3 months' active service they may be chosen as cadets and get special training for the remaining 9 months. They may be promoted, according to ability, to either corporals or second lieutenants in the first reserve service at or after the expiration of active service. From among the graduates of technical or scientific departments of universities cadets may be chosen to supply engineers and technical officers of artillery and air forces.

Conscripts and Leave of Absence
Conscripts may return home to attend to family business for periods varying with the necessity of the case, but in

no case exceeding 14 days. This departure from the general rule was proposed in 1919 to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts and was carried into effect at once.

Courts-Martial The Court Martial Law provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men shall be given public trial, (2) accused persons shall be given the benefit of counsel in their defense. Provision is also made for appeal.

The Army has eight courts-martial, namely, the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones; the Navy has seven, the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. Courts-martial are always composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officials (civil) and clerks. The number of these varies in accordance with the nature of the court in question.

Gendarmerie The gendarmerie is under the control of the War Minister and mainly takes charge of military police, although it may assist civil or judicial police. Orders may, therefore, come from Ministers of Home Affairs and Justice. As military police its function is to see military laws and order kept. Guarding of military secrets, policing of fortress districts and naval stations, enforcement of laws concerning conscription, active service, calling out of the reserve, enforcing levy and martial laws, general surveillance of military discipline, and keeping order in war districts; these things come under its administrative responsibility. The searching and detection of crimes among military men, the collection of evidences and the arrest of culprits come under its judicial responsibility. The number of gendarmes is: Japan proper 1,450. Chosen 490, Manchoukuo 190, and Taiwan 90.

The Army

Outline History The Army under the Imperial régime was organized for the first time in the fourth year of Meiji (1871), when the samurai of the Kago-shima, Kochi and Yamaguchi clans formed an Imperial Bodyguard consisting of a few battalions, and four regular army divisions were established in Tokyo, Osaka, Kumamoto and Sendai. In January 1873, the Government adopted a conscription system, by which mem-

bers of all social classes were held equally liable for military service. The divisions in Nagoya and Hiroshima, which were established that year, were the first fighting units in this country to contain members of the farmer, merchant and other non-samurai classes. The total strength of the Japanese Army at that time was seven divisions consisting of about 36,000 men on peace standing and 46,250 on a war footing.

The number of soldiers to be mobilized was steadily increased after the Saigo Rebellion of 1877, but it was with this "cadre" of seven divisions that Japan defeated China in 1894-5. In the ten years following the Japan-China War, six more divisions were established with the result that Japan was able to put nearly one million men in the field during the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5.

In 1922 Japan's Army strength reached twenty-one divisions consisting of 308,000 men on peace standing. The peaceful atmosphere in world affairs after the European War and the national financial condition made it necessary for Japan to reduce the army, and as the result of a readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924, a reduction of 1,800 officers, 56,000 men and 13,000 horses was made. This corresponds to a reduction of about five divisions on peace standing. In May 1925, four more divisions (the 13th, 15th, 17th and 18th) were abolished, and the present strength of the Japanese Army is 17 divisions and about 230,000 men on peace standing, inclusive of the Taiwan and Kwantung Armies.

Administrative Organization

Administration of the Army is conducted by the following three organs, the chiefs thereof working under direct orders from the Throne:

The Ministry of the Army The central organ for military administration. The Ministry contains eight departments, the names and functions of which are listed below:

(a) The Minister's secretariat takes charge of all secret affairs; papers and other records, and general office work.

(b) The Bureau of Personal Affairs is in charge of all affairs concerning the personnel of the army. It consists of two sections, the one dealing with appointments, promotion, etc., the other with decorations.

(c) The Bureau of Military Affairs is the real center of military administration, and is responsible for the establishment of the system and organization of the Army, for the proclamation and withdrawal of martial law, and for all the affairs concerning ceremonies to be observed by the soldiers, morals and discipline among the men, the drafting of men and horses to various units, the conscription system, etc., etc.

(d) The Replenishment Bureau is divided into two sections, one for

mobilization and the other for co-ordination, and is responsible for the establishment and improvement of the mobilization system, preparation and co-ordination of war supplies, improvement of military transportation, etc.

(e) The Arms and Ordnance Bureau consists of the section for rifles and guns and the section for various supplies. It is in charge of arms, ordnance, and various supplies of war.

(f) The Intendance Bureau has four sections, the Paymaster's, Audit, Clothing and Provisions, and Construction. This bureau is responsible for expenditure, the inspection of accounts, preparation of budgets, provisions, clothing, structures, etc.

(g) The Medical Bureau is responsible for all sanitary and medical arrangements among officers and men. It consists of the section of sanitary affairs and the section for medicine and surgery.

(h) The Judicial Bureau is responsible for the organization of courts-martial and all other affairs in connection with martial law.

The Ministry of the Army also supervises the following organizations situated in various parts of the country.

(a) The Military Aviation Bureau is the central organ for the study of military aviation, and is required to organize the education of pilots and mechanics, to supervise repairs, replenishment, and purchases of aeronautical supplies, etc.

(b) The Technical Investigation Bureau conducts researches on all technical developments likely to effect military efficiency. Inspection of ordnance and various war supplies is conducted by this bureau. Under its supervision is the Laboratory of Military Science which conducts research on methods of scientific warfare.

(c) The Military Technical Board. This is an organ for deliberation on all technical problems submitted by the Army Minister.

(d) The Military Arsenal is responsible for the establishment of designs and plans of arms and ordnance, as well as repairs and examination of various supplies of war inclusive of gunpowder. It has branches in Osaka, Nagoya, Oji, Kokura and Heijo.

(e) The Woolen Factory at Senju is engaged in the manufacture of woolen yarn and clothes for military supplies.

(f) The Remount Bureau has charge of horse replenishment, including breeding and purchase.

(g) The Military Arms Depot is responsible for the purchase, storage repairs, maintenance, supply, exchange, and scrapping of arms and ordnance. It also takes care of the guns installed in fortresses. The main office is in Tokyo and there are branches in Chiba, Osaka, Nagoya, Kokura, and Hiroshima.

(h) The Military Clothing Depot has its head office in Tokyo, and branches in Osaka and Hiroshima. It takes care of the manufacture, purchase, storage, and supply of all clothing supplies.

(i) The Military Hygienic Supplies Depot is responsible for the manufacture, purchase, storage, supply, and inspection of all hygienic supplies.

(j) The Military Depot of Provisions and Forage, with its head office in Tokyo and branches in Osaka and Ujina, is in charge of the preparation and supply of provisions and forage.

(k) The Fortifications Bureau is responsible for the construction, inspection, and maintenance of all defensive structures, besides being required to conduct researches on artillery and military engineering.

(l) The Military Transport Bureau is situated at Ujina and looks after all matters concerning the transportation of troops.

The General Staff It deliberates on national defense and strategy. It is also required to train and supervise all staff officers. The Staff College and the Land Survey Bureau are under the control of the Chief of the General Staff.

The Land Survey Bureau is responsible for the replenishment of military maps, production of maps for public use and the training of experts for the Bureau services.

The Department of Military Training It is in charge of all military schools and the training and education of officers and men, as well as the co-ordination and development of military education; aeronautical education of military aviation, however, is entrusted to the Aviation Bureau, and the training of staff officers comes under the General Staff.

The Department consists of the headquarters and sections for cavalry, artillery, engineers and commissariat.

Field Organization

The Division A division generally

consists of 2 infantry brigades, 1 cavalry regiment, 1 engineer battalion, and 1 commissariat battalion. To some larger divisions, a tank corps, or a mountain artillery regiment, or a heavy field artillery regiment, is attached. While a few others include a full cavalry brigade, a regiment of transport or an anti-aircraft regiment. Eight ammunition columns (4 infantry and 4 artillery), 6 field hospitals, and 1 remount depot accompany each division on service. The number is about 10,000 on peace standing. Divisional commanders hold the rank of Lieutenant-General, brigade commanders that of Major-General.

The Regiment An infantry regiment consists of 3 battalions and a machine-gun corps, and an infantry battalion of 3 companies of 150 men each, and a machine-gun section. A company is subdivided into three sections.

A cavalry regiment, of which Japan has 25 at present, consists of 2 or 3 squadrons. Eight of these regiments are organized into four independent cavalry brigades, while the remaining seventeen are attached one to each of the divisions.

Japan has 30 artillery regiments and 10 battalions, namely 15 regiments of field artillery, 1 battalion of horse artillery, 4 regiments and 1 battalion of mountain artillery, and 8 regiments of heavy field artillery. A field artillery regiment is divided into 3 battalions, and a battalion into 3 companies. On peace strength a field artillery regiment consists of only 6 batteries each equipped with four guns. In addition there are 3 regiments and 8 battalions of heavy artillery, which are responsible for the defense of fortified zones.

In peace time 1 regiment and 1 battery of anti-aircraft artillery are maintained.

Air Force Japan's air force is divided into units attached to the Army and Navy respectively. The Army air force consists at present of 11 reconnoitering squadrons, 11 fighting squadrons, 4 bombing companies, and 2 balloon companies, consisting of approximately 1,000 planes.

The Peace Strength

A full statistical classification of the peace strength of the Army, with the total number of soldiers nearly 250,000, in 1936, is given below. In addition to the units listed, a force of gendar-

merie 2,220 strong and a medical corps, about 1,500 strong are maintained.

Units	No. of Complete Regiments	No. of Additional Battalions
Infantry	70	6
Cavalry	25	—
Field Artillery	14	—
Mountain Artillery	5	1
Mounted Artillery	—	1
Heavy Field Artillery	8	—
Heavy Artillery	3	8
Engineers	—	17
Railway Corps	2	—
Telegraph Corps	2	—
Air Force	9	—

	(corps)
Balloon Corps	1
Commissariat	15
Tank Corps	2
	(corps)

Anti-Aircraft Artillery	1	1
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This force is divided into 17 divisions and 34 brigades.

Fortresses

The Army has 17 fortresses at places of strategic importance in different parts of Japan proper and its dependencies. At each of these fortresses, a heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed, and in some cases an air force detachment.

Name
Artillery and Engineers' School
Infantry School
Cavalry School
Field Artillery School
Heavy Field Artillery School
Engineers' School
Signallers' School
Mechanical Transport School
Narashino Military School
Toyama School
Military Academy
Military Preparatory School
5 Non-Commissioner Officers' Schools

Toyama School teaches fencing, gymnastics and military music to both officers and men.

(2) The Staff College (Tokyo City) under the direct control of the General Staff.

(3) Those under the control of various bureaus of the Ministry of the Army, of which a full list is given below:

Promotion and Age Limit

Army officers in service are promoted to higher ranks by selection in accordance with the following rules in time of peace, the time limit being reduced by one-half in war time:

One year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years to Colonel, 2 years to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. Promotion to full General and then to Marshal is subject only to the Emperor's will.

The age limit for officers on the active list varies according to rank as follows:

General	65
Lieutenant-General	62
Major-General	58
Colonel	55
Lieutenant-Colonel	53
Major	50
Captain	48
Lieutenant and Sub-Lieutenant	45

There is no age limit for Marshals.

Army Education

Schools providing instruction in military affairs are of three categories as follows:

(1) Those under authority of the Department of Military Education, of which a full list is given below:

Name	Place
Tokyo	
Chiba prefecture	
" "	
" "	
Kanagawa prefecture	
Chiba	"
Tokyo	"
" "	
Chiba prefecture	
Tokyo city	
" "	
" "	
Tokyo, Sendai, Toyohashi, Kumamoto	

Name	Place
Tokorozawa Flying School	Saitama prefecture
Akéo Flying School	Miyé prefecture
Hamamatsu Flying School	Shizuoka prefecture
Shimoshizu Flying School	Chiba prefecture

Name	Place
Engineering School	Tokyo City
Intendence School	Tokyo City
Army Medical School	Tokyo City

Army Veterinary School	Tokyo City
Gendarmerie Training School	Tokyo City

The Flying School at Tokorozawa gives the necessary training to military fliers as to how to handle and repair a plane and its engine, and meteorological observation, besides a knowledge of the materials of which planes and engines are constructed. This school is opened to civilian students. The Flying School at Shimoshizu gives instruction in aerial photography, aerial communications and reconnoitering. The Akéno Flying School gives courses to army pilots on aerial tactics, air navigation,

handling of machine-guns on a plane and also on the construction of aerial weapons.

To raise the level of educational capacity and general efficiency among officers, certain special courses and facilities are arranged. Graduates from universities in science or engineering are now entitled to the position of engineer of artillery lieutenants after six months' cadetship, while those from the medical and agricultural colleges are qualified to become surgeon and veterinary lieutenants respectively after three months' cadetship. Non-commissioned officers of ability may be promoted to the rank of lieutenant in virtue of a system adopted in 1930, after a short period of special training. Posts still higher, even to the supreme Marshalship, are open to non-commissioned officers of exceptional ability.

The Navy

Outline History As a result of the policy of seclusion strictly followed by the Shogunate Government of the Tokugawas, Japan was without anything worthy of the name of a navy, when Commodore Perry's fleet entered Uraga Bay in the 6th year of Kaéi (1853) with a view to inducing the Shogun's Government to open Japanese ports to the world. By the 4th year of Anséi (1857), however, Japan was in possession of a few warships given her by Holland and England. They formed the first squadron of the Western type that the nation ever had. By the efforts of the Meiji Government, this squadron developed into an efficient fleet of 28 fighting craft and 24 torpedo-boats, with a total tonnage of over 50,000 tons by 1894, when Japan declared war on China. After the Sino-Japanese War, Japan's navy grew very rapidly and in 1902, just before the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, was in possession of 78 ships with a total tonnage of 256,816 tons.

Administrative Organization

Warships and other vessels organized into fleets and squadrons actually represent what is called the Japanese Navy and organs under the jurisdiction of the Navy Ministry are intended for the construction, maintenance, control and successful utilization of these vessels. Each naval station and fleet is placed in charge of a Com-

mander-in-chief, who is responsible for the discipline and education of his men.

The Minister The Minister of Navy is in charge of the administration of the Navy, while the Chief of the Naval Staff is directly responsible to the Emperor for operation, mobilization and intelligence. The administrative departments under the supervision of the Minister of Navy are the following:

- (1) Ministerial Secretariat
- (2) Bureau of Military Affairs
- (3) Personnel Bureau
- (4) Education Bureau
- (5) Bureau of Stores
- (6) Medical Bureau
- (7) Bureau of Accounts and Supplies
- (8) Bureau of Civil Engineering
- (9) Bureau of Judicial Affairs
- (10) Library
- (11) Telegraphy Division

The schools under the supervision of the Minister are:

- (1) Naval War College (Tokyo). This school is intended for the training of advanced students selected from among naval officers.
- (2) Naval College (Etajima). This school is intended for the education of intending naval officers. Warrant officers are also educated here before they are promoted to the rank of special service officer.
- (3) Naval Engineering College (Mizuru). This school is intended for the education of intending engineering of-

ficers. Warrant engineering officers are received under the same conditions as at the Naval College.

(4) Naval Medical College. This school is to train surgeons and pharmacists and to conduct research in the field of surgery, medicine and naval sanitation. Warrant Ward masters are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Wardmaster Lieutenant.

(5) Naval Paymasters' College. This school is intended for the education of intending naval paymasters. Warrant Writers are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Accountant Lieutenants.

Under the Commander-in-Chief The following schools are under the direct supervision of the Commanders-in-Chief of the Naval Stations.

(1) Naval Gunnery School (Yokosuka). Officers, special service officers, warrant officers and seamen of special ratings are admitted.

(2) Torpedo School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(3) Naval Communication School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(4) Navigation School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(5) Submarine School (Kuré). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are trained here for submarine warfare. Researches on submarine construction and operation are also conducted.

(6) Naval Machinists' School (Yokosuka). This school is for the training of warrant officers and seamen aspiring to the rank of engineering officer, or special service engineering officer, or shipwright.

Active Service Organization

The Three Districts The coasts of Japan and the seas surrounding the country are divided into three Naval Districts, and these districts are placed in charge of naval stations as follows:

1st Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Aomori, Iwaté, Miyagi, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Chiba, Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Aichi, Miyé, Hokkaido and Karafuto, and the adjacent seas, is in charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station.

2nd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Wakayama, Osaka, Hyogo, Okayama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Shi-

mané, Tottori, Kyoto, Fukui, Ishikawa, Toyama, Niigata, Yamagata, Akita, Tokushima, Kochi, Ehime, Kagawa, Oita, Miyazaki, and the eastern part of Fukuoka prefecture, and the adjacent seas, is in charge of the Kuré Naval Station.

3rd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of the remainder of Fukuoka prefecture, Saga, Nagasaki, Kumamoto, Kagoshima, Okinawa, Taiwan and Chosen and the adjacent seas, is in charge of the Sasébo Naval Station.

The coasts and adjacent seas of the South Sea Islands, now under mandate to Japan, are in charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station. There are also minor naval Stations at Maizuru in Kyoto prefecture, Ohminato in Aomori prefecture, Chinkai in Chosen, Bako in the Boko Islands (Pescadores) and Ryojun (Port Arthur) in Kwantung.

The naval districts have each a naval barrack, which is responsible for the defence of the naval port where it is posted, besides being required to protect the neighboring district from attack. In addition to the naval barrack, each naval station or minor naval station has a defense corps, which is responsible for the defense of the neighboring seas. Where there is no naval barrack, the defense corps is required to take care of the port where it is stationed and to protect the neighboring district from attack. The naval ports and minor naval ports have respectively one or more air force detachments, which are required to protect the port and neighboring district from naval and aerial raids.

Naval Office in Manchoukuo

Japan's recognition of Manchoukuo and provisions of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol necessitated military and naval actions in that country on the part of Japan and to meet the emergency the Navy Ministry of Japan issued a law in March 1933, for the establishment of the Naval Department in Manchoukuo to be located in Hsinking.

The Office takes charge of the patrolling and protection of the rivers and the coast lines of Manchoukuo. The commander is directly under orders of the Emperor of Japan, and as to the administration he acts in accordance with the order of the Minister of the Navy of Japan. At present a provisional Naval Defense Brigade is quartered

at Harbin and is guarding the banks of the Sungari.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Naval Station
The Imperial Naval Station at Ryojun was abolished in November 1922, according to the Naval disarmament program. But the newly created situation in Manchuria necessitated its re-establishment in April 1933. The station is under a special regulation independent of the Naval stations in the home land. It has specific duties in the Kwantung Leased Territory and is engaged in the protection of the coasts of Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo and North China above the Yangtze.

The Standing Fleets

The standing fleets as reorganized on November 3, 1936, are as follows:

Combined Fleet

The Combined Fleet is organized with the 1st, 2nd fleets and the 12th Squadron, Mamiya and Naruto appended.

1st Fleet

1st Squadron—Nagato, Mutsu, Hyuga.
3rd Squadron—Haruna, Klrishima.
8th Squadron—Kinu, Natori, Yura.
1st Destroyer Squadron—Kawachi, 9th and 21st destroyer flotillas.
1st Submarine Squadron—Isuzu, 7th and 8th submarine flotillas.
1st Air Force Squadron—Hosho, Ryujo, and 30th destroyer flotilla.

2nd Fleet

4th Squadron—Takao, Maya.
5th Squadron—Nachi, Haguro, Ashikaga
2nd Destroyer Squadron—Jintsu, 7th, 8th and 19th destroyer flotillas.
2nd Submarine Squadron—Jingei, 12th, 29th and 30th submarine flotillas.
2nd Air Force Squadron—Kaga, 22nd destroyer flotilla.
12th Squadron—Okishima, Kamoi, 28th destroyer flotilla.

3rd Fleet

10th Squadron—Izumo, Tenryu, Tatsuta
11th Squadron—Ataka, Toba, Seta, Katada, Hira, Hotzu, Atami, Futami, Kuri, Tsuga and Hasu.
5th Destroyer Squadron—Yubari, 13th and 16th destroyer flotillas.
Saga is appended.

Training Squadron
Yakumo and Iwaté.

The Naval Air Force

The Naval Air Force consists of:
(1) 7½ aeroplane corps at Kasumi-gaura, 5 aeroplane corps at Yokosuka,

5½ aeroplane corps at Tatéyama, 1½ aeroplane corps at Sasébo, 2½ corps at Omura, 1½ corps at Kuré, 1½ Corps at Sahéki and 1½ Corps at Ominato, the number of planes belonging to these air corps are unavailable; and (2) the aircraft-carriers proper, Kaga, Akagi, Hosho, Noto, Ryujo, Kamoi and several other ships, the number of planes carried are unavailable. Flying officers and men number over 10,000.

The Personnel

Classified according to ranks, naval officers on the active list were as follows at the end of 1934:

Admirals to Rear-Admirals and non-executive officers	148
Captains to Lieut.-Commanders and non-executive officers	2,395
Lieutenants to 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, non-executive officers, midshipmen and special service officers	3,958
Warrant officers	1,953
Cadets at school	348
Total	8,802

Equipment Each naval station is equipped with a shipbuilding yard, and one or more dry docks for accommodating warships. The Yokosuka and Kuré arsenals are capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but those of Sasébo and Maizuru are only fit for building cruisers and smaller ships. There are a number of up-to-date private establishments, such as the Mitsubishi shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki shipyard at Kobé, Fujinagata shipyard at Osaka, and Ishikawajima shipyard at Tokyo. Of these the Mitsubishi and Kawasaki shipyards are capable of building superdreadnoughts.

Warship Building

The first warship built in Japan was the Séiki (870 tons) launched at Yokosuka in 1875. She played an important part in the civil war of 1877. The Hashidaté (4,228 tons), launched just before the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, remained the largest warship built at home until 1903. Soon after the Russo-Japanese War, Japan succeeded in building the battle-cruisers Tsukuba (13,800 tons), Ikoma, and Kurama (14,600 tons each), the battleships Satsuma (19,300 tons), Aki (19,250 tons), Kawachi and Settsu (20,800 tons each). The two last named were the first dreadnoughts planned and constructed at home and marked

a new stage in the progress of naval architecture in Japan.

The Tsukuba and Kawachi sank 18 and 17 years ago respectively as a result of an explosion of their magazines, the former at Yokosuka and the latter at Tokushima, while the Satsuma and Aki were removed from the list and sunk in target practice. The Settsu has been converted into a target ship of 16,130 tons and is still in service.

Independent of Foreign Material Up to recent years, Japan was dependent on foreign countries as regards war material, but is now almost independent in this connection. She has ample supplies of coal, iron, copper and zinc as long as she controls the mines in Manchuria. At present 95 per cent of warship building materials is of home production and in case of international competitive building of warships Japan will lose little out of the competition in international payments. The supply of crude oil is still insufficient, but the rapid progress in the oil-shale industry of Manchuria, and the remarkable development of the oil industry in North Saghalien, Taiwan, etc., show that the empire will shortly be self-sufficing in this respect also. The Imperial Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu) has an annual output of about 200,000 tons of armor plates, rails, etc., while the Muroran Steel Works of Hokkaido is turning out an ample quantity of steel for use by the Army and Navy. In the chemical industry also, Japan is now almost independent and prepared for any form of chemical warfare.

List of Ships

The Navy consisted on September 30, 1936 of the following ships, classified by types with the total tonnage in each:

Type	No.	Tonnage
Battleships	9	272,070
Training Battleship	1	19,500
1st Class Cruisers	12	107,800
2nd Class Cruisers	25	107,255
Aircraft Carriers	6	68,370
Seaplane Carriers	3	31,050
Submarine Tenders	5	31,015
Mine Layers	6	19,630
Coast Defense Vessels	7	55,450
Gun Boats	11	5,045
1st Class Destroyers	80	95,470
2nd Class Destroyers	30	23,390
1st Class Submarines	37	49,157
2nd Class "	25	20,927
Torpedo Boats	12	2,108

Type	No.	Tonnage
Mine Sweepers	12	6,642
Special Service Ships	21	219,935
Total	302	1,134,823

(Tonnage of ships under construction is not included. The full individual list of warships at the same date is given in the Japan Year Book, 1937.)

The Planes

The battle planes in use in the Naval Air Force are of type 3 and type 90. The bombers and torpedo planes in use are of type 13, type 89 and type 92. Some of these machines played an important part in the Sino-Japanese conflict in Shanghai, but some of them are not suitable for an aerial war in the future.

The reconnoitering planes in use are of type 14. They are equipped with a 450 h.p. motor and can cover nearly 200 kilometers an hour. They are armed with a machine-gun mounted behind the seat of the reconnoitering officer, so that he can defend the machine against enemy fire from behind. Their speed is considered too slow for satisfactory service in the future. Type 15 and type 90 are also in use.

There are also a few large patrol planes of type 90. No. 1 of these is of metallic material, 21 metres long, 30 metres wide, 12 tons in weight, and is equipped with a number of motors producing 2,100 h.p. in all. Its maximum speed is 220 kilometers an hour. The No. 2 of type 90 is 20 meters long, 30 meters wide, 13 tons in weight, and equipped with motors producing 2,400 h.p. in all. Both of them are superior in performance to the PN-12 of the American Navy, which has a speed of less than 200 kilometers.

Naval Promotion

Officers are promoted by selection, and candidates for special promotion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council.

The regular course of promotion for them is: Midshipmen, over one year's service on a training ship; 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over one year's service; 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over 18 months' service including 6 months' service in Torpedo or Gunnery School. Lieutenants of over 4 years' service are promoted to Lieutenant-Commander.

Special service 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over two years' service; Special service 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over three years'

service. Special service Lieutenants (combatants, engineers and pay-masters) may be promoted to Lieutenant-Com-

mander by special appointment. The qualifications for subsequent promotion are as follows:

Promotion
Commander—Lieutenant-Commanders
Captains—Commanders
Rear-Admirals—Captains
Vice-Admirals—Rear-Admirals
Admirals—Vice-Admirals

Minimum Service in Lower Rank
2 years
2 "
2 "
2 "

Period determined by Imperial order subject to special merit

N.B. 1st class warrant or ranking officer of over 6 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

Revisions of the Military Service Law

Revision in 1939

The Law Amending the Military Service Law was promulgated on March 8, 1939. The items of revision include: amendments to the regulations on the term of military service; conscription of ex-service men; postponement of conscription for students and the manner of this conscription; abrogation of the short-term service system; and recognition of the privilege of postponement of conscription for Japanese students in Manchoukuo Government schools.

Revision of the Term of Service
Under the new Law the term of the supplementary reserve service for the Army was lengthened from 12 years and four months, while that of the first reserve service for the Navy was prolonged from four years to five years and that of the second reserve service from five years to seven years.

Change in Method of Conscription of Young Men Changes were made in the method of selecting the young men at the physical examination for military service. (See p. 224, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Revised Method of Calling Ex-service Men for Training (See p. 225, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Abrogation of the Short-term Service System The short-term service system for teachers in elementary schools is peculiar to Japanese conscription. The reason for the survival of this system through all former revisions in the military service law may be found in the fact that the Government was anxious not to weaken the teaching force in elementary schools by the absence of teachers from their duties even for purposes of national defense. The short-term system allowed these teachers to remain

only five months in active service and this period was devoted to making them acquire a knowledge of military affairs so that they could accomplish their duty as educators of the people both in scientific and military subjects. The system worked well as a result of the complete understanding between the military and educational authorities.

But times have changed and the five-month service is now all too short to provide teachers with a comprehensive knowledge of military affairs to the extent that they may give proper instruction on military subjects in their schools. Simultaneously, their influence on pupils and communities will be greatly increased with a knowledge of military affairs acquired by entering the full service with other members of the nation or by going to the front when so destined. Under such considerations, the short-term service system is abrogated entirely, although investigations are being made by competent authorities not to cause any material harm to the education of the younger generation by this sudden change.

Revisions in Postponement of Student Conscription The medical examination and enrolment of students who reach the age of twenty has been postponed for as many years as they pursue their studies in schools and consequently many are much older than other young men at the time of their examination and enrolment, whereas their earlier enrolment is desirable since most of them may become important constituents of the army as reserve or non-commissioned officers.

The revised system, therefore, places a certain limit to the term of postponement, shortening it by an extent that will not deter their studies in schools,

yet that will amend the irrationality which formerly arose by the application of rules under which they were conscripted according to certain fixed ages, regardless of the month of their birth or the number of years they needed to complete their respective studies. (See the Japan-Year Book, 1940-41, p. 226.)

Furthermore, a new provision is added to the new system according to which all students in schools may be conscripted in time of emergency even before the expiration of the term of postponement so that they may take part in the defense of their country.

These new rules came into force as from December 1, 1939. Those who attended schools on that day remained under the old rules so as not to interfere with their studies.

Revision in 1941

Another revised Military Service Law which was passed by the Imperial Diet at its 76th session was enforced on April 1, 1941.

The main points of revision are (1) the enrolment of new conscripts in overseas districts into the garrisons nearest to their residences, (2) the abrogation of the second reserve service system, and (3) the prolongation of the days of call for the education of the supplementary reservists.

(1) According to the provisions of the existing Military Service Law, new conscripts are enrolled, as a rule, into the armies stationed in areas in Japan proper where they are registered as Japanese subjects, or, into the garrisons in such overseas districts as Chosen, Taiwan, Kwantung or China for convenience. There arise cases where the

ambitious young men who have gone out to overseas territories to open a future for themselves have to return to Japan proper for their examination and enrollment and are cut short of their ambition. The revision is therefore made in this respect to cause young men to be enrolled in the armies or garrisons stationed in the regions other than Japan proper without regard to their census registration. The new rule shall be applied first to those young men who are to receive the conscription examination in 1942.

(2) The old system divides those eligible for military service into three categories, namely, the active, the 1st reserve and the second reserve. In view of the increased demands made on armed services in wartime, the increase of different kinds of works and the intricacy of organization in the recent defense services, the demarcation between the first and second reserves has become meaningless, the State requiring all reserve soldiers to appear for active service at any time and in the same spirit of loyalty. And the new law provides that all those who have completed their active service shall be enlisted in the reserve list for the whole length of term formerly divided into the two reserve services. This rule governing the reserve servicemen came into force as from April 1, 1941.

(3) With the progress of military drill and education in many fields of military art, the duration of term for educating the supplementary reservists has been lengthened from the present 120 to 180 days, the rule coming into force from April 1, 1941.

THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION LAW

(Law No. 55, 1939, Promulgated on April 1, 1939, Effective as from May 5, 1939, by Imperial Ordinance No. 315, and Revised in 1941)

ARTICLE 1

National General Mobilization as mentioned in this Law means control and employment of man-power and material resources for the highest and most efficient development of the total power of the State in time of war (including, as hereinafter understood, an incident similar to a war), to the end of achievement of defense objectives.

ARTICLE 2

The material resources mentioned in

this Law mean the following:

(1) Arms, war vessels, ammunition, and other materials for military use;

(2) Clothing, foodstuffs, beverages, and feed supply necessary for national general mobilization;

(3) Medicines and pharmaceuticals, medical and surgical machinery and instruments, other hygienic materials, and materials for veterinary hygiene necessary for national general mobilization;

(4) Shipping, aircraft, vehicles, horses

and other transportation and conveyance materials necessary for national general mobilization;

(5) Communication materials necessary for national general mobilization;

(6) Civil engineering and lighting materials necessary for national general mobilization;

(7) Fuel and electric power necessary for national general mobilization;

(8) Raw materials, materials, machinery, apparatus, equipment, other materials necessary for production, repair, distribution and preservation of what are mentioned in the preceding numbers;

(9) Materials other than those mentioned in the preceding numbers and to be specified by Imperial Ordinance as necessary for national general mobilization.

ARTICLE 3

The general mobilization services mentioned in this Ordinance mean the following:

(1) Services concerning production, repair, distribution, export, import, or custody of materials for general mobilization;

(2) Services concerning transportation and communications necessary for national general mobilization;

(3) Services concerning finances necessary for national general mobilization;

(4) Services concerning sanitation, veterinary hygiene, or relief necessary for national general mobilization;

(5) Services concerning education and training necessary for national general mobilization;

(6) Services concerning experiments and research necessary for national general mobilization;

(7) Services concerning information, enlightenment and propaganda necessary for national general mobilization;

(8) Services concerning defense necessary for national general mobilization;

(9) Services other than those mentioned in the preceding numbers and to be specified by Imperial Ordinances as necessary for national general mobilization.

ARTICLE 4

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, press into service subjects of the Empire and cause them to engage in general mobilization services; provided, however, that this shall not interfere with the application of the conscription law.

ARTICLE 5

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause subjects of the Empire, juridical persons under the law of the Empire, or any other organization to cooperate with the general mobilization services to be conducted by the State or by local public bodies or by any person designated by the Government.

ARTICLE 6

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders, with respect to the use, employment or dismissal of workers, or the obtaining employment, engaging in work or retirement by workers; or with respect to wages, salaries and other conditions of work.

ARTICLE 7

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders with respect to prevention or settlement of labor disputes, or with respect to the closing of workshops, suspension of labor, or restriction or prohibition of other acts relating to labor disputes.

ARTICLE 8

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders with respect to production, repairing, distribution, transfer, other ways of disposal, use, consumption, possession, or removal of general mobilization materials and goods.

ARTICLE 9

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, restrict or prevent export or import, order export or import, impose export or import duties, or increase, reduce, or remit export or import duties.

ARTICLE 10

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial

Ordinance, use or expropriate, or cause those who are engaged in general mobilization undertakings to use or expropriate materials and goods for general mobilization.

ARTICLE 11

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, make restriction or prohibition, with respect to the establishment, increase of capital, merger, alteration of objects, issuance of debentures or making second and subsequent calls on shares of corporations, give necessary orders with respect to disposal of profits, depreciation, or other matters pertaining to corporation accounting, or give necessary orders to banks, trust companies, insurance companies or others to be designated by Imperial Ordinance, concerning the operation of capital, assumption or guarantee of obligations.

ARTICLE 12

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government, with respect to invitation of subscriptions for debentures or to an increase of capital with the object of applying to the expense of equipment for the operations of companies engaged in undertakings which are general mobilization services, may provide separate regulations, the provisions of Article 200 or Article 210 of the Commercial Code notwithstanding.

ARTICLE 13

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, control, use or expropriate the whole or part of the factories, workshops, ships, and other facilities, belonging to the general mobilization undertakings, or any facility which may be used therefor.

In case any object mentioned in the preceding paragraph is to be used or expropriated, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause the employers thereof to offer their worker's service, or use the patented inventions or registered utility models at present used for such facilities.

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, control, use or expropriate, or cause those who are engaged in gen-

eral mobilization undertakings to use or expropriate land or houses and other structures necessary for general mobilization undertakings.

ARTICLE 14

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, use or expropriate mining rights, placer mining rights, or rights concerning the use of water, or cause those who are engaged in general mobilization undertakings to use the patented inventions and registered utility models or to use mining rights, placer mining rights and rights concerning the use of water.

ARTICLE 15

In case a thing which was expropriated by the Government in accordance with the provisions of the preceding two Articles has fallen into desuetude and is to be disposed of by the Government within a period of 10 years from the time of expropriation, or in case a thing which was expropriated by persons who are in general mobilization undertakings in accordance with the provisions of Article 13, paragraph 3 has fallen into desuetude within 10 years from the time of expropriation, its former owner, the former holder of a right or his successor may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, have the priority right of purchasing the same.

ARTICLE 16

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, restrict or prohibit new installations, extensions or improvements of equipments belonging to enterprises, or may order new installations, extensions or improvements of equipments belonging to enterprises which are general mobilization services.

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders with respect to transfer and other ways of disposal of, investment in, use or removal of equipment or rights belonging to enterprises.

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders with respect to opening, trusting of manage-

ment, joint management, transfer, discontinuance or suspension of business, or alteration of objects, amalgamation or dissolution of juridical persons.

ARTICLE 17

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause applications to be made for the establishment, alteration or cancellation of control agreements between or among the owners of enterprises of the same kind or those of different kinds, or may order the establishment, alteration or cancellation of control agreements, or may order the owners of enterprises who are not parties to control agreements to conform therewith.

ARTICLE 18

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, order owners or their organizations of enterprises of the same kind or those of different kinds to establish organizations or companies with the object of controlling or managing for control said enterprises. An organization to be established by the order shall be a juridical person.

If any person who has been ordered to establish an organization or company as provided for in paragraph 1, fails to do so, the Government may take necessary procedures with respect to the drafting of articles of incorporation and otherwise concerning the establishment of the organization or company.

When the organization of paragraph 1 has been formed and established, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause those who are qualified to become constitutors thereof.

The Government may cause the organization mentioned in paragraph 1 to apply for permission for the establishment, alteration or abolition of control regulations concerning the enterprises of its constitutors (including, as hereinafter understood, constitutors of the constitutors of such organization), or may order the establishment or alteration of control regulations, or may order the constitutors or those who are qualified to conform with the control regulations of their organization.

Necessary matters relating to the organization or company mentioned in paragraph 1 shall be determined by

Imperial Ordinance.

When orders have been issued with regard to transfer and other ways of disposal of, or investment in equipment or rights according to the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 2, or transfer of enterprises according to the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 3, necessary matters relating to the continuance of obligations of the assignors or investors and the disposition of the security shall be determined by Imperial Ordinance.

With regard to transfer of, or investment in equipment or rights according to the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 2, transfer of enterprises or amalgamation of juridical persons according to the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 3, or the organizations or companies to be established according to the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 1 or paragraph 3, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give special regard to the culation of the basic amount for taxation, or may make deduction or abatement of taxes.

ARTICLE 19

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders with respect to prices, transportation charges, storage fees, insurance premiums, rentals, finishing charges and mending fees and other charges for earnings.

ARTICLE 20

If necessary for national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, restrict or prohibit what is printed in newspapers or other publications.

The Government may prohibit the sale or distribution, or make seizure, of newspapers or other publications that have contravened the restriction or prohibition of the preceding paragraph and interfere with the national general mobilization, in such cases the original type-forms being seizable.

ARTICLE 21

If necessary for national general mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause subjects of the Empire and those who employ or use subjects of the Empire to send in statements concerning occupational abilities of subjects of the Empire.

ARTICLE 22

If necessary for national general mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give to the administrators of schools, training institutes, factories, workshops and other establishments suitable for training of skilled workers, or employers of those who are to be so trained, necessary orders concerning the training of skilled workers necessary for national general mobilization.

ARTICLE 23

If necessary for national general mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause those who are engaged in production, sale or import of national general mobilization materials to store certain numbers or quantities of such materials or what is used as raw material or otherwise for their making.

ARTICLE 24

If necessary for national general mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause owners of businesses which are general mobilization services, or those who are in time of war to engage in general mobilization services, to set up plans concerning general mobilization services to be enforced in time of war or go through exercises according to said plans.

ARTICLE 25

If necessary for national general mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, order those who are engaged in production or repairing of general mobilization materials, or the administrators of experimental or research organs to conduct experiments or research.

ARTICLE 26

If necessary for national general mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, guarantee or grant subsidies within limits of the budget to those who engage in production or repairing of general mobilization materials; and in these cases the Government may cause such persons to produce or repair general mobilization materials or cause them to provide equipment necessary for national general mobilization.

ARTICLE 27

The Government, as prescribed by

Imperial Ordinance, will indemnify the losses incurred from disposals made in accordance with the provisions of Article 8, Article 10, Article 13, Article 14 or Article 16, paragraph 2; from orders of export or import in accordance with the provisions of Article 9; from orders of financial operations, subscription, underwriting or purchase of securities, assumption or guaranty of obligations in accordance with the provisions of Article 11; from orders for new installation, extension or improvement of equipment in accordance with the provisions of Article 16; or from orders with regard to trusting, transfer, discontinuance or suspension of enterprises, or alteration of purposes or dissolution of juridical persons in accordance with the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 3; excepting the cases mentioned in paragraph 2 of the present Article.

Those who are engaged in general mobilization undertakings shall indemnify, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, the losses incurred from their use, expropriation or utilization of things in accordance with the provisions of Article 10, Article 13, paragraph 3, or Article 14.

ARTICLE 28

In case orders are to be given in accordance with the provisions of Article 22, Article 23, or Article 25, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, indemnify the losses resulting therefrom or grant subsidies.

ARTICLE 29

The amounts of reparation according to the provisions of the preceding two Articles and the values at which purchases are to be made according to the provisions of Article 15, are to be determined by the Government after its consultation with the Commission on General Mobilization Reparation.

The rules governing the Commission on General Mobilization Reparation shall be determined by Imperial Ordinance.

ARTICLE 30

The Government may supervise the undertakings which, according to the provisions of Article 26 or Article 28, are guaranteed profits or granted subsidies, or may give orders or take procedure necessary thereanent.

ARTICLE 31

If necessary for national general

mobilization, the Government may, as prescribed by Ordinance, call for reports, or cause competent officials to visit and inspect necessary places and look into conditions of business or other matters thereof.

Persons coming within any of the following numbers shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding ten years or a fine of not more than fifty thousand (50,000) yen.

(1) Those who have contravened orders issued according to the provisions of Article 8.

(2) Those who have contravened orders issued according to the provisions of Article 19.

ARTICLE 32

Any person who, in contravention of the order provided in Article 9, has exported or imported, or intends to export or import, shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding three years or a fine of not more than 10,000 (ten thousand) yen.

In the cases mentioned in the preceding paragraph, that which has been exported or imported, or is intended for export or import, may be confiscated so far as it is owned or possessed by the offender and, when all or part of it has failed to be confiscated, the value thereof may be collected additionally.

ARTICLE 33

Any person who comes within any of the following numbers shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding three years or a fine of not more than 5,000 (five thousand) yen:

(1) Those who have contravened orders issued according to the provisions of Article 7;

(2) Those who, in contravention of the provisions of Article 9, fail to export or import;

(3) Those who have refused, impeded or evaded the use of, or the expropriation of, general mobilization materials, as provided for in Article 10;

(4) Those who have refused, impeded or evaded the administration, use or expropriation of equipment, land or establishments, or the use of employees thereof, provided for in Article 13;

ARTICLE 34

Persons coming within any of the following numbers shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 2 (two) years or a fine of not more than

3,000 (three thousand) yen:

(1) Those who have contravened the restriction, prohibition, or order enforced according to the provisions of Article 11;

(2) Those who have contravened the restriction, prohibition, or order enforced according to the provisions of Article 16;

(3) Those who have contravened orders issued according to the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 2;

(4) Those who have contravened orders issued according to the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 3;

(5) Those who, in contravention of the provisions of Article 17 or Article 18, have without permission established, altered or abolished control agreements or control regulations, or have contravened the order given according to the provisions of paragraph 4, Article 18;

(6) Those who have failed to lay in stores in contravention of the order given according to the provisions of Article 23;

(7) Those who, in contravention of the provisions of Article 26, have failed to produce, repair or provide equipment.

ARTICLE 35

Those who have committed any of the offences mentioned in the preceding four Articles may, according to circumstances, be punished with both penal servitude and fines.

ARTICLE 36

Persons coming within any of the following numbers shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 1 (one) year or a fine of not more than 1,000 (one thousand) yen:

(1) Those who refuse to comply with the expropriation made according to the provisions of Article 4 or fail to engage in the services provided in said Article;

(2) Those who have violated orders based on provisions of Article 6.

ARTICLE 37

Those who come within any of the following numbers shall be punished with a fine of not more than 3,000 (three thousand) yen:

(1) Those who have contravened orders given according to the provisions of Article 22;

(2) Those who, in contravention of

Article 24, fail to set up plans or go through exercises;

(3) Those who, in contravention of the provisions of Article 25, fail to conduct experiments or research.

ARTICLE 38

Those who come within any of the following numbers shall be punished with a fine of not more than 1,000 (one thousand) yen:

(1) Those who, in contravention of an order given according to the provisions of paragraph 1, Article 18, fail to establish organizations or companies;

(2) Those who have contravened orders given according to the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 6;

(3) Those who have contravened the order given, or the proceedings taken, according to the provisions of Article 32;

(4) Those who have failed to report as provided for in Article 32 or have made false reports.

ARTICLE 39

In case the restriction or prohibition made according to the provisions of paragraph 1, Article 20, has been contravened, the publisher or the registered editor, in the case of a newspaper, and the publisher and the author, in the cases of other publications, shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 2 (two) years or a fine of not more than 2,000 (two thousand) yen.

In the cases of newspapers, those who have been in charge of editing, or those who had their articles published with their signatures, shall also be punished as provided for in the preceding paragraph.

ARTICLE 40

Any person who has interfered with the seizure made according to the provisions of paragraph 2, Article 20, shall be punished with penal servitude or imprisonment not exceeding 6 (six) months or with a fine of not more than 500 (five hundred) yen.

ARTICLE 41

The provisions governing the concurrent offences of the Penal Code shall not apply to the offenses mentioned in the preceding two Articles.

ARTICLE 42

Those who have refused, impeded or evaded the inspection made by com-

petent officials according to the provisions of Article 31, shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 6 (six) months or a fine of not more than 500 (five hundred) yen.

ARTICLE 43

Any person who, in contravention of the provisions of Article 21, has failed to send in the statement, or refused, impeded, or evaded the inspection, shall be punished with a fine not exceeding 50 (fifty) yen, retention, or a nominal fine.

ARTICLE 44

If any person engaged in general mobilization service has disclosed, or made secret use of, any of the secrets designated by the Government office concerned, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 2 (two) years or a fine of not more than 2,000 (two thousand) yen.

If any one who is, or formerly was, in Government service, has committed the offenses mentioned in the preceding paragraph, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 5 (five) years.

ARTICLE 45

If a person who is, or formerly was, in public service, has disclosed, or made secret use of, secrets of the business of an individual or a juridical person that he learned through his performance of duties according to the provisions of this Law, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 2 (two) years or a fine of not more than 2,000 (two thousand) yen.

If a person who is, or formerly was, an officer or employee of an organization or company established with the purpose of controlling enterprises according to the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 1 or paragraph 3, or of a juridical person or any other organization controlling enterprises according to orders issued in accordance with the provisions of this Law, has disclosed, or made secret use of, secrets of the business of an individual or a juridical person that he learned through his performance of duties, he shall be similarly punished with the person mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

ARTICLE 46

If an officer or employee of an organization or company established with the purpose of controlling enterprises ac-

According to the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 1 or paragraph 3, or of a juridical person or any other organization controlling enterprises according to orders issued in accordance with the provisions of this Law, in connection with his duties for control, has accepted, demanded or promised [to receive] a bribe, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 2 (two) years, and if on the same account he has committed a dishonest act, or failed to perform a proper act, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 5 (five) years.

The bribe taken in the case mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be confiscated. If all or part of it is not possible to be confiscated the value thereof shall be collected additionally.

ARTICLE 47

Any person who has delivered, offered, or promised [to give] a bribe to a person mentioned in paragraph 1 of the preceding Article shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 2 (two) years or a fine of not more than 500 (five hundred) yen.

If a person who has committed an offense mentioned in the preceding paragraph denounces himself, the punishment may be mitigated or remitted.

ARTICLE 48

In case a representative of a juridical person, a juridical person, or its agent or employee, or any person otherwise employed, has, with regard to the business of the same juridical person or an individual, committed an offence mentioned in Article 31, paragraph 2 to Article 34 inclusive, number 2 of Article 36, Article 37, Article 38, or the first part of Article 43, not only the offender shall

be punished but the fines or the nominal fines mentioned under the respective articles shall be imposed on the juridical person or the individual concerned.

The provisions of the preceding paragraph shall be applied to an act committed by a representative, an agent, an employee of, or any person engaged by, a juridical person holding its head or main office in the area where this Law is in effect, the same likewise applying to an act committed outside the area in which this Law is in force, by a representative, an employee of, or any person otherwise engaged by, an individual whose residence is in the area in which this Law is in effect.

ARTICLE 49

The penal provisions of this Law shall be applied to a subject of the Empire who has committed an offense outside the area in which this Law is in effect.

ARTICLE 50

In order to respond to the consultation of the Government concerning important matters relating to this Law (excepting those relating to military secrets), a National General Mobilization Commission shall be provided.

The rules governing the National General Mobilization Commission shall be determined by Imperial Ordinance.

SUPPLEMENTARY PROVISIONS

The date of enforcement of this Law shall be determined by Imperial Ordinance. The Munitions Industry Mobilization Law and Law No. 88, 1936, are hereby repealed.

The order issued; or the proceedings taken, according to the Munitions Mobilization Law, prior to the enforcement of this Law shall be considered as those done in accordance with this Law.

NATIONAL DEFENSE SECURITY LAW

The National Defense Security Law is one of the most important legislations which was approved by the 76th session (December 1940-March 1941) of the Imperial Diet and enforced on May 10, 1941.

There is already in operation the Military Secret Protection Law designed to guard against the leakage of military secrets and the Defense Resources Secret Protection Law to safeguard the secrecy of the defense resources of the

country. But, no law specifically intended to protect the highest secrets of the State relating to diplomatic, financial and economic matters had yet been enacted.

The law is divided into two parts, the first dealing with penalties and the second with criminal procedure.

Penalties Part 1, Article 1 defines the scope or extent of matters in respect to which secrecy is to be observed, pre-

scribing that any diplomatic, financial, economic or other important State affairs provided in the Article, or documentary evidences thereof, fall within the purview of the Law.

Among the matters thus prescribed are State secrets concerning matters submitted for deliberation at the Cabinet Councils, Privy Councils, Councils in the presence of the Emperor or at similar councils and proceedings of such councils, matters discussed at the secret sessions of the Diet and proceedings thereof, matters prepared for submission to such conferences and other important confidential matters pertaining to various Government offices.

Article 3-7 provides for penalties to be meted out against searching, collecting, divulging or publishing such State secrets, and also for penalties in case anyone who, after acquiring knowledge or coming into possession of such secrets in the course of his employment, has either revealed or made them public intentionally or negligently. To make public such secrets means to place them within easy reach of common knowledge, thereby enabling foreign agents to obtain knowledge thereof with ease.

The law purports to prevent such matters designated as State secrets, made known only to high Government officials, from being divulged to a foreign country. As a matter of fact, therefore, nobody is informed of such secrets except those high officials who handle them, and the law requires those specific persons to use their best prudence and circumspection in the handling of the secrets in their possession.

Article 8 provides for penalties to be meted out to any person who has searched for or collected information on diplomatic, financial and economic matters which must be strictly guarded for ensuring national defense, which the purpose of utilizing such information against national defense or of giving it to a foreign country, knowing the

possibility of its being utilized by such country. This provision is intended to deal with a person who may be used as a medium of those who are seeking and collecting such information.

Furthermore, acts subversive to the social and economic order have also been made punishable under the provisions of Articles 9 and 10, including acts of circulating information prejudicial to the peace of the country by conspiring with or intending to benefit a foreign country and acts of obstructing the operation of national economy by creating disorders in the money market or disintegrating the productive and distributive mechanism of essential materials, for similar purposes.

Articles 11-13 provide for punishment against attempted offenses as well as against cases of preparation, instigation, inducement and agitation, in order to forestall the afore-mentioned acts of disturbances.

Criminal Procedure In case any attempt is made at systematic and deliberate espionage and intrigue by some nations hostile to this country, specific counter-measures must be devised to combat those attempts. Particular attention must therefore be given to the search for these offenses and the judicial procedures thereof. And the public prosecutors in charge of the search for the aforesaid offenses have been invested with an enlarged power, and judicial police, including prefectural police officers and gendarmerie officers and non-commissioned officers, have been made to act on specific instructions from the public prosecutors.

Court procedures subsequent to prosecution are to be so arranged as to speed up proceedings of trials, while care should be taken to ensure the prevention of the leakage of State, military and defense-resources secrets, or such official secrets related to national general mobilization as are officially designated, during the progress of the trial.

(This chapter is continued on the pages at the end of the volume.)

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CHAPTER VIII

PUBLIC FINANCE

YASUDA

HEAD OFFICE:

Otemachi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo

THROUGH THE YASUDA HOZENSHA, the Yasuda Family controls no fewer than 30 companies which stand in the forefront of Japanese finance and industry. Some of the most important of these are:

The Yasuda Bank, Ltd.
The Yasuda Savings Bank, Ltd.
The Japan Day and Night Bank, Ltd.
The Third Bank, Ltd.
The Yasuda Trust Co., Ltd.
The Yasuda Life Insurance Co., Ltd.
The Tokyo Fire Insurance Co., Ltd.
The Imperial Marine & Fire Insurance Co., Ltd.
The Oriental Fire Insurance Co., Ltd.
The First Fire & Marine Insurance Co., Ltd.
The Yasuda Trading Co., Ltd.
The Tokyo Real Estate Co., Ltd.
The Yasuda Warehouse Co., Ltd.
The Imperial Flax Manufacturing Co., Ltd.
The Japan Paper Industry Co., Ltd.
The Toyo Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.

CHAPTER VIII

PUBLIC FINANCE

Accounts System

In the second year of Meiji, 1869, Shigenobu Okuma (later Marquis Okuma) submitted to the Government a plan calling for the establishment of an accounts system to prevent a reckless disbursement of administrative expenses. In due course, and as a result of this plan, a Ministry of Finance and a fiscal year starting with October and ending with September were instituted. When Hirobumi Ito (later Prince Ito) came home from his inspection trip to America in 1873, he offered valuable advice to the Government on the financial system and this enabled the Government to announce its estimates of accounts. This marked an important point in the accounts system of Japan as it was the prototype of the Government budget, but because of the lack of system, the budget of each Ministry was subject to change by the administrative chief. The fiscal year was changed to from April to March in 1886, and has been so observed since. The opening of the Imperial Diet in 1890 brought about a great improvement in the accounts system of Japan, for each budget has since been subject to approval, and Government income and expenditure has thus come under supervision. The Board of Audit under direct control of the Emperor was also established and to it is assigned the duty of inspecting the Government accounts. These perfected the constitutional ac-

counts system of the Government and at the same time the Accounts Law was promulgated in 1889 and has been enforced since April 1, 1890. This law laid the foundation of the accounts system of Japan and in 1921 it was revised from the so-called "safe" system to the "deposit" system, i.e. the depositing of Government funds in the Bank of Japan.

Special Accounts

Special accounts for the Government's enterprises existed independently of general account, before the promulgation of the Accounts Law in 1889. Railway funds, readjustment loans, enterprise funds, hypothec funds and others were included among the special accounts, which were unified by a law issued in 1889. The number of special accounts for the 1890-91 fiscal year was 33, which increased to 61 in 1908. Yuko Hamaguchi, Finance Minister of the Kato (Takaaki) Cabinet, made a substantial readjustment of special accounts in 1925 and reduced the number to 31. Subsequently, the health insurance special accounts, the postal annuity special accounts and live-stock reinsurance special accounts were established. In 1934 government steel works was omitted and communication enterprises was put into the list instead. The number of special accounts increased to 40 by 1939, 53 in 1940 and 55 in 1941. Besides, there are 2 for military affairs.

ANNUAL STATE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Revenue

(In yen)

Year	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1930-31	1,422,059,549	174,912,618	1,596,972,168
1931-32	1,314,911,859	216,170,183	1,531,082,042
1932-33	1,287,038,893	758,236,675	2,045,275,568
1933-34	1,391,418,998	940,340,595	2,331,759,594
1934-35	1,342,930,935	904,050,670	2,246,981,605
1935-36	1,405,426,797	853,894,509	2,259,321,306

Year	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1936-37	1,561,649,514	810,449,098	2,372,098,612
1937-38	1,945,998,351	968,472,140	2,914,470,491
1938-39	2,331,954,153	1,263,023,992	3,594,978,145
1939-40*	2,629,963,036	2,339,894,557	4,969,857,593
1940-41§	3,382,292,516	2,734,535,309	6,116,827,825
1941-42§	3,790,520,529	4,204,590,104	7,995,110,633

Expenditure

Year	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Surplus	
				Gross	Net
1930-31	1,202,152,685	355,711,046	1,557,863,732	39,108,436	5,991,200
1931-32	1,111,824,193	365,051,071	1,476,875,265	54,206,777	19,193,075
1932-33	1,182,862,616	767,278,007	1,950,140,623	95,134,944	29,373,981
1933-34	1,313,017,990	941,644,246	2,254,662,236	77,097,358	13,653,358
1934-35	1,224,782,544	938,221,361	2,163,003,905	83,977,700	4,403,493
1935-36	1,268,992,250	937,485,683	2,206,477,933	52,843,373	1,950,750
1936-37	1,320,140,686	962,035,114	2,282,175,801	89,922,811	34,638,176
1937-38	1,409,250,592	1,299,906,890	2,709,157,483	205,313,008	84,160,507
1938-39	1,592,792,010	1,695,237,029	3,288,029,039	306,949,107	181,712,739 *
1939-40*	1,906,338,410	2,587,495,033	4,493,833,443	476,024,149	160,020,003
1940-41§	2,748,340,903	3,425,428,926	6,173,769,829	—	—
1941-42§	3,634,359,925	4,360,750,708	7,995,110,633	—	—

Notes:—(1) Figures are for the General Accounts only.

(2) Figures for the 1940-41 budget include those of the 2 supplementary budgets approved by the Diet in March 1941, and do not correspond with the figures given in the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.

(3) The financial year begins on April 1st and ends on March 31st.

(4) The figures for 1938-39 and the years preceding it represent the settled accounts.

(5) * Represent the actual account on July 31, 1940.

(6) § Represent the budget.

(7) The gross surplus indicates the balance of revenue over expenditure for each financial year. Under the Budget and Account Act the surplus actually created in each financial year is transferred to the Budget of the succeeding year, and this Gross Surplus includes not only the accumulation brought forward from preceding financial years, but the net surplus actually created in that year. Accordingly, the balance of the gross and the net surplus represents a part or a total of the surplus created in the preceding year. Part of the gross surplus is applied to disbursements and deferred expenditures during the succeeding year and the balance is carried forward as a surplus to be used in succeeding financial years.

The National Loan Redemption Act as amended in 1915 required redemption of the national debt up to 1.16% of the amount outstanding at the commencement of the preceding financial year. The same Act was further amended in 1927 to require an additional appropriation for the same purpose of not less than 25% of the surplus actually created in the year before the preceding one. The same Act as amended in 1932, however, provides that the amount to be applied to redemption of the national debt shall, for the time being, be over one-third of 1.16% of the total debts outstanding at the commencement of the preceding financial year, and that the additional appropriation for the same purpose of not less than 25% of the surplus actually created in the year before the preceding one may be suspended.

(8) As fractions not exceeding 1 yen are omitted, the totals of the figures and the grand total do not correspond. This explanation is applicable to the following tables.

STATE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

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Supplementary Budgets for 1941-42, Original Budget for 1942-43 and Supplementary Budgets for 1942-43 The Supplementary Budgets for 1941-42, Original Budget for 1942-43 and Supplementary Budgets for 1942-43 approved by the 77th, 78th, 79th and 80th Sessions of the Imperial Diet (1941-1942) are as follows:

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1941-42

(Published on November 21, 1941)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Ordinary Revenue

I	Taxes	172,113,196
II	Stamp receipts	996,945
III	Receipts from public undertakings and State property	41,482,760
	Total of ordinary revenue	214,592,901

Ordinary Expenditure

Ministry of Finance

V	House of Peers	
VI	House of Representatives	36,950
XI	Tax collection houses and brewery laboratory	46,889
XVI	State Reserve Fund	227,766
	Sum total	80,000,000
		80,311,605

Extraordinary Revenue

Ministry of Home Affairs

XXXIV	Relief expenses for the districts damaged by cool	1,580,750
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Ministry of Finance

XXXI	Transfer to the Special Account for Emergency Military Expenditure	214,592,901
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Ministry of Education

XII	Extraordinary expenses for common education	45,000
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Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

V	Temporary aid to farm-villages	
X	Aid for the rehabilitation in the areas affected by natural calamities	202,210,992
XVIII	Buildings and repairs	14,802,325
	Sum total	23,000
		217,036,414

Ministry of Commerce and Industry

X	Promotion of enterprises	27,797
XXXVIII	Aids to smaller merchants and industrialists	2,294,973
XXXIX	Preparation for the establishment of the Industrial Equipment Commission	18,000
	Sum total	2,340,770

Ministry of Welfare

I	Subsidies	30,000
	Total of extraordinary expenditure	435,625,835
	Grand total of expenditure	515,937,440

PUBLIC FINANCE

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1941-42

(Published on November 21, 1941)

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry Finance	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
	National Debt Adjustment Fund	2,047,412,373	2,047,412,373
	National Loans	3,570,030,513	3,570,030,513
	Kwantung Bureau	1,694,544	115,968
Army	Arsenals	499,020,440	499,020,440
Agriculture & Forestry	Rice Trade Control	100,362,417	308,148,991
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	41,734,590	41,734,590
	Taiwan Government-General	15,372,139	15,372,139
	Control of Taiwan rice exportation to Japan proper	65,663,549	75,741,202
	Karafuto Government	1,011,514	1,011,514
	South Seas Government	70,588	50,000

SUPPLEMENTARY EMERGENCY MILITARY EXPENDITURE

(Published on November 21, 1941)

(In yen)

	Revenue	
I War fund		3,800,000,000
	Expenditure	
I Extraordinary expenses	Total	3,800,000,000
Reserve fund		1,200,000,000
Extraordinary expenses		2,600,000,000

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1941-42

(Published on December 17, 1941)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

(In yen)

Extraordinary Expenditure

	Ministry of Home Affairs	
XXXV	Emergency facilities for anti-aircraft activities	4,572,437
XXXVI	Expenses of prize-courts	70,945
	Total of extraordinary expenditure	4,643,382

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1941-42

(Published on December 17, 1941)

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry Finance Overseas Affairs	Special Accounts	Revenue	Expenditure
	National Loans	2,800,000,000	2,800,000,000
	Taiwan Government	2,500,000	2,500,000
	South Seas Government	470,412	500,000

BUDGET FOR 1941-42

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SUPPLEMENTARY EMERGENCY MILITARY EXPENDITURE

(Published on December 17, 1941)

(In yen)

Revenue		
I War fund		2,800,000,000
Expenditure		
I Extraordinary expenses	Total	2,800,000,000
Reserve fund		800,000,000
Extraordinary expenses		2,000,000,000

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1941-42

(Published on February 19, 1942)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

(In yen)

Ordinary Revenue		
I Taxes		630,915
II Stamp receipts		48,650
VI Miscellaneous receipts		53,154
Total of ordinary revenue		732,719

Extraordinary Revenue		
III Sale of State property		75,369
IV Payments by public bodies for public works		60,000
V Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works		419,971
VI Receipts for encouragement of scholarly researches		12,000
XI Miscellaneous receipts		73,900
Total of extraordinary revenue		641,240
Grand total of revenue		1,373,959

Ordinary Expenditure

Ministry of Foreign Affairs		
I Ministry proper		7,001
II Offices abroad		138,402
Total		145,403

Ministry of Home Affairs		
III Ministry proper		1,938
IX Joint payment for police expenses		3,266,718
Total		3,268,656

Ministry of Finance		
I Ministry proper		24,745
II Cabinet expenses		5,535
V House of Peers		10,000
VI House of Representatives		10,000
VII Technical Board		119,722
Total		170,002

Ministry of Justice		
II Court expenses		38,000

Ministry of Education		
I Ministry proper		12,000

Ministry of Commerce and Industry		
II Trade Bureau		12,481

PUBLIC FINANCE

Ministry of Communications

XI	Annulty and Pension	25,073,625
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Ministry of Welfare

XIV	Military relief	7,000,000
	Total of ordinary expenditure	35,720,167

Extraordinary Expenditure

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

VIII	Extraordinary diplomatic work	353,433
XII	Extraordinary increase of salaries	7,486
XIV	Calamities expenses	300,000
	Total	660,919

Ministry of Home Affairs

I	Subsidies to local governments	7,168,986
XVII	Special police facilities	10,000
XXI	Temporary expenses for local governments	13,616
XXII	National General Mobilization	60,000
XXVI	Promotion of constitutional and local autonomous government	200,000
XXXII	Reconstruction in the districts damaged by natural calamities	15,089,100
XXXV	Temporary institute for anti-air raid	6,715,540
XXXVI	Isé Grand Shrine	115,158
XXXVII	Temporary construction of harbor	276,000
XXXVIII	General Election of members of the House of Representatives	344,638
	Total	29,992,948

Ministry of Finance

I	Buildings and repairs of ministerial offices, governmental schools, institutions and factories	150,000
III	Subsidies to private economical, cultural and scientific bodies	80,000
XV	Temporary expenses of the Cabinet	840,000
XVII	Replenishment of expenditure in the Kwantung Bureau	56,147
XXXII	Rebuildings and repairs of government offices damaged by fire	600,000
XXXVI	Inspection of captures	8,732
XXXVII	Administration of enemy property	16,015
XXXVIII	Temporary expenses for War Insurance	21,903
XXXIX	Preparation for the establishment of the South Seas Development Chest	17,000
XL	National Savings	974,494

Ministry of Justice

XIII	Temporary allowances	66,000
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Ministry of Education

VI	Subsidies to various educational and cultural bodies	24,820
XXVI	Temporary meteorological observation facilities	67,518
	Total	92,338

BUDGET FOR 1941-42

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Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry		
II	Inspection and control	78,194
V	Temporary aid to farm-villages	12,064,778
VIII	Aid to insurance business on agriculture, forestry and fisheries	129,810
X	Aid for the rehabilitation in the areas affected by calamities	2,061,439
XXVIII	Buildings and repairs	10,000
XXIII	Aid to special companies	8,000
XXVI	Temporary aid for increasing rice production	2,739,939
XXVII	Control of the distribution of fresh fish and vegetable	1,581
XXVIII	Promotion of charcoal production for making gass	201,150
XXIX	Reconstruction of agricultural oil-motors to use substitute fuel	348,600
XXX	Control of the lumber industry	6,814
XXXI	Inspection of raw silk for the use of the State	13,474
	Total	17,663,779
Ministry of Commerce and Industry		
IX	Promotion of the iron production	43,920,446
XL	Control of important material	7,750,900
XLI	Preparation for the establishment of the Important Material Administration Commission	15,000
XLII	Compensation for losses anent the maintenance of war material	2,739,015
	Total	54,425,361
Ministry of Communications		
I	Aid for the replenishment of losses in wartime sea transportations	400,000
XXIX	Expansion of marine administration	233,957
	Total	633,957
Ministry of Welfare		
XXXI	Aid for changing profession	138,180
	Total of extraordinary expenditure	106,437,773
	Grand total of expenditure	142,157,940

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1941-42

(Published on February 19, 1942)

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

	Revenue	Expenditure
Ministry		
Finance	Special Accounts	
	Deposits Bureau	3,031,000
	National Loans	30,000,000
Education	Kwantung Bureau	58,172
	Seven Imperial Universities	1,462,140
Agriculture & Forestry	Government Colleges	781,064
Railways	Farm Re-insurance	9,191,076
Overseas Affairs	State Railways, capital account	30,000,000
	State Railways, earnings account	—
	Chosen Government-General	462,150
	Taiwan Government-General	3,411,171
	Karafuto Government	1,350
Welfare	South Seas Government	2,025
	P.O. Annuity	90,351,348
		1,453,313

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

(In yen)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Ordinary Revenue		
I	Taxes	Total 3,775,071,442
	Income tax	1,374,388,653
	Juridical person tax	692,687,858
	Special tax on dividend and interest	7,833,576
	Foreign bond special tax	9,239,911
	Inheritance tax	74,154,412
	Tax on building	1,783,194
	Mining tax	9,616,401
	Tax on liquors	453,755,371
	Tax on soft drinks	15,701,866
	Sugar excise	184,454,178
	Textile consumption tax	130,697,955
	Gasoline tax	5,291,686
	Tax on commodities	250,992,491
	Tax on eating and drinking for pleasure	302,158,300
	Tax on bourses	22,701,771
	Negotiable papers transfer tax	2,347,621
	Transit-duty	83,877,954
	Entrance tax	48,856,781
	Customs duties	40,911,633
	Tonnage dues	1,173,721
	Bank-notes issue tax	2,446,109
		153,637,337
II	Stamp receipts	
III	Receipts from public undertakings and State property	Total 695,898,242
	Forests	181,852,660
	Monopoly Bureau	511,523,318
	Printing Bureau	10,386,092
	Senju Woolen Factory	5,826
	Capital profit of Naval Arsenal	4,240,000
	Navay Fuel Factory	1,536,871
	Navy Explosives Factory	450,000
	Prisons' receipts	23,926,274
	Rent of State property	961,910
	Value of Inheritance Tax in Thing	1,015,291
IV	From Special Account for Communications	82,000,000
V	From the Bank of Japan	92,541,069
VI	Miscellaneous receipts	Total 112,518,976
	Certificates and fees	1,040,083
	Penal fees and confiscated money	26,337,606
	Indemnification and forfeit	489,715
	Receipts anent pension	6,478,764
	Allotments anent pension	2,966,547
	Charges anent pension in Special Accounts	32,480,418
	Interests	111,707
	Receipts from Horse Race Association	33,021,169
	Other miscellaneous receipts	9,592,967
VII	Transferred from Special Account of funds for educational improvement and agrarian village development	6,995,152
	Total of ordinary revenue	4,918,662,218
Extraordinary Revenue		
I	Special profits tax	1,015,698,995
II	Special tax on juridical person	2,447,514

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

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III	Sale of State property		
	Goods	Total	6,674,429
	Live-stock		6,482,248
			192,181
IV	Payments by public bodies for public works	Total	6,691,391
	River improvement		2,675,675
	Harbor improvement		3,996,606
	Proceeds from the sale of land cultivated by State		19,100
V	Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	Total	15,569,314
	Improvement in the Grand Shrine of Isé		55,817
	River improvement		8,499,926
	Harbor equipment		2,416,897
	Coast improvement		197,100
	Road improvement		4,399,574
VI	Receipts for encouragement of scholarly researches		
	Imperial donation	Total	28,000
	Contributions		12,000
			16,000
VII	Transfers from Special Accounts	Total	252,207,218
	From		
	State property readjustment fund		556,182
	Capital section, Mint Bureau		1,020,000
	Printing Bureau		30,600
	Governmental universities		676,675
	School and library funds		560,000
	Communications operation		73,050
	Post Office Life Insurance		230,331
	Gold Fund		10,910,380
	Deposits Bureau, Ministry of Finance		6,000,000
	Governmental investment		230,000,000
	Special Fund for Cultural Work for China		1,150,000
	South Seas Government		1,000,000
VIII	Receipts anent the Loss Compensation Law	Total	2,663,376
	From		
	Special banks		271,376
	Exporters		1,182,000
	Banks which made loans to exporters		605,000
	Banks which made loans to manufacturers of export goods		605,000
		Total	13,266,430
IX	Miscellaneous receipts		
	Repayments of advances per the 1923 Earthquake		5,855,439
	Note Settlement Law		1,980
	Contribution to the national loan reimbursement fund		6,500
	Receipts from private forestry works in trust		
	Paid in by the 2,600th Anniversary Celebration Association		13,158
	Receipts from the Nippon Iron Foundry		2,260,819
	Payment by insurance companies		3,352,169
	Money paid back		605,033
	Receipts for investigations in trust		100,597
	Payments by inmates of public leper houses		1,070,744
X	Loans	Total	14,281,374
	Earthquake loans and conversions		1,229,275
	Road loans and conversions		13,052,099
	Total of extraordinary revenue		1,329,528,050
	Grand total of revenue		6,248,190,268

Ordinary Expenditure

I Imperial Household

4,500,000

PUBLIC FINANCE

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

I	Ministry proper	Total	4,221,377
	Salaries		933,624
	Office expenses		1,185,308
	Salaries of foreigners		35,400
	Telegrams		431,707
	Entertainments		1,800
	International allotments		8,603
	Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Cooperation Committee		20,700
	Students abroad		145,793
	Special services		1,458,442
II	Offices abroad	Total	17,029,000
	Shrine expenses		2,000
	Salaries		6,307,689
	Office expenses		5,155,513
	Travelling expenses		2,608,734
	Salaries of foreigners		24,540
	Law court and registering expenses		66,801
	Detention expenses		127,495
	Land and house rent		1,436,642
	Telegrams		1,087,452
	Entertainments		212,143
III	Protection of resident Japanese abroad	Total	607,007
	Salaries		115,959
	Office expenses		491,048
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		136,287
	Sum total		21,993,671

Ministry of Home Affairs

I	Isé Grand Shrine		230,000
II	Other State shrines		1,083,667
III	Ministry proper	Total	1,610,163
	Salaries		722,513
	Office expenses		856,368
	Special services		31,282
IV	Shrine Board		320,993
V	Shrine Building Office		24,802
VI	Police Training Institute		59,506
VII	Prefectural Office	Total	16,999,381
	Salaries		11,673,632
	Office expenses		5,059,723
	Imperial attendance		79,105
	Bonin Islands		87,094
	Police for the Seven Islands of Izu		17,778
	Special services		82,049
VIII	Conscription expenses		3,864,043
IX	Joint payment for police expenses		50,378,414
X	Transfer to the Special Account for Allowance to Prefectural Governments from Tax Income		444,597,030
XI	Subsidies to cities, towns and villages	Total	480,587
	For		
	Mutual relief works		458,642
	Relief for school teachers and library officials		21,945
XII	Miscellaneous expenses		443,564
	Sum total		520,092,150

Ministry of Finance

I	Ministry proper	Total	2,197,070
	Salaries		1,016,257
	Office expenses		1,152,559
	Tariff Investigation Committee		19,917
	Special services		8,337

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

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II Cabinet expenses			
Salaries	Total	5,627,046	
Office expenses		889,268	
Rewards		2,731,397	
Examination for high officials		150,493	
Punishment of officials		49,966	
Committee for the Control of Transportation Enterprises		1,789	
National General Mobilization Commission		14,580	
National Mobilization Compensation Committee		23,085	
National Land Planning Committee		14,580	
Selection Committee to be appointed by the Emperor		23,400	
Special services		2,520	
III Board of Planning		1,725,968	
IV Technical Board		946,455	
V Patent Bureau		1,109,610	
Salaries	Total	1,471,558	
Official expenses		792,414	
Shares of the Protection Corporation of possessing the International Aviation Institute		677,644	
VI Central Aviation Institute		1,500	
VII Privy Council		2,625,971	
VIII House of Peers		284,073	
Expenses for members	Total	1,991,626	
Salaries		1,224,473	
Office expenses		206,965	
IX House of Representatives		560,188	
Expenses for members	Total	2,590,094	
Salaries		1,639,608	
Office expenses		235,894	
X Board of Audit		714,592	
XI Court of Administrative Litigation		544,046	
XII Bureau of Repairing and Property Overseeing		154,926	
XIII Custom houses		683,186	
Salaries	Total	6,812,519	
Office expenses		2,162,276	
Dividends and allowances		2,178,941	
Travelling expenses		913,586	
Special services		1,556,775	
XIV Tax collection houses and brewery laboratory		941	
Salaries	Total	41,105,769	
Official expenses		12,618,880	
Committee meetings		8,501,549	
Disposing expenses		239,856	
XV Miscellaneous refunding and replenishment		19,745,484	
XVI Transfer to the Special Accounts		25,060,714	
Of	Total	1,475,142,729	
National Debt Adjustment Fund		1,473,833,611	
Deposits Bureau		1,199,181	
Communications Business Operation		109,937	
XVII Miscellaneous expenses		1,183,223	
XVIII State Reserve Fund		340,000,000	
The first	Total	40,000,000	
The second		300,000,000	
Sum total		1,909,530,615	
Ministry of the Army			
I Ministry proper			
Salaries	Total	686,411	
Office expenses		411,429	
II Military expenses		274,982	
Salaries	Total	15,636,637	
		4,173,322	

	Buildings and repairs	10,174,547
	Miscellaneous payments	1,223,137
	Clothes and provisions	7,365
	Ordnance and horses	6,120
	Imperial attendance	52,146
III	Contribution to the Yasukuni Shrine	12,000
IV	Miscellaneous expenses	2,706
	Sum total	16,337,754

Ministry of the Navy

I	Ministry proper	Total	1,277,543
	Salaries		906,391
	Office expenses		371,152
4I	Military expenses	Total	8,533,785
	Salaries		1,038,024
	Buildings and repairs		2,432,348
	Miscellaneous expenses		1,708,372
	Medical treatments		107,771
	Waterways		3,247,270
III	Miscellaneous expenses		5,376
	Sum total		9,816,604

Ministry of Justice

I	Ministry proper	Total	1,711,269
	Salaries		523,883
	Office expenses		554,661
	Aid to protection works for ex-convicts		580,000
	Aid to the Warder Training Institute		14,250
	Aid to the Lawyers' Association		38,475
II	Court expenses	Total	27,587,732
	Salaries		16,337,712
	Office expenses		7,485,061
	Judicial and registering expenses		2,729,526
	Adjudication expenses		640,486
	Detention		204,224
	Special services		190,723
III	Prison expenses	Total	27,993,022
	Salaries		878,791
	Office expenses		7,041,169
	Expenses for the prisoners		20,073,062
4V	Miscellaneous expenses		270,609
	Sum total		57,563,632

Ministry of Education

I	Ministry proper	Total	10,019,722
	Salaries		1,354,566
	Office expenses		2,189,222
	Educational investigation and encouragement		6,271,032
	Protection of national treasures		200,000
	Students abroad		4,200
II	Cultural Bureau		836,277
III	Meteorological observatories		8,689,590
IV	Latitude observatory		54,421
V	Common education	Total	97,772,728
	National share of National School teachers' salaries		97,065,758
	Salaries of the National School teachers called to defense services		706,970
VI	Aid and encouragement	Total	29,328,094
	Aid to National Schools		6,327,812
	Aid to Normal Schools		7,990,624
	Aid for deaf and dumb education		150,000
	Aid for business education		338,250

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	Aid for salaries of the Young Men's School teachers	8,258,960
	Aid for salaries of local Y.M. School teachers	199,045
	Aid for additional salaries of public school teachers for long service	1,213,320
	Encouragement of school attendance	510,000
	Encouragement of deaf and dumb school attendance	40,000
	Encouragement of the Y.M. School attendance	332,800
	Aid for training of the Y.M. School teachers	1,862,000
	Aid for the pension fund of private middle schools	93,600
	Aid for local thought guidance works	136,300
	Aid for sanitary facilities for the National School teachers	200,000
	Aid for the teachers' mutual aid facilities	1,579,243
	Encouragement of social education	96,140
VII	Miscellaneous expenses	Total 232,070
VIII	Universities and libraries	47,788,205
	Imperial universities	21,016,371
	Government universities	8,615,100
	School and public libraries	18,156,734
	Sum total	194,721,107

Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

I	Ministry proper	Total	1,497,678
	Salaries		623,037
	Office expenses		542,487
	Supervision of fisheries		317,838
	Qualification of the bull		14,316
II	Horses Bureau	Total	4,971,353
	Salaries		211,805
	Office expenses		288,230
	Gelding		187,314
	Qualification of the stallion		223,934
	Protection of horses for national defense		4,060,070
III	Provision Bureau		281,918
IV	Forestry expenses	Total	39,753,587
	Salaries		3,252,885
	Office expenses		929,476
	Working expenses		35,571,226
V	Experimental stations	Total	2,354,795
	Salaries		556,308
	Working expenses		1,798,487
VI	Raw silk conditioning houses	Total	1,829,636
	Salaries		295,081
	Working expenses		1,534,555
VII	Stallion offices and pastures	Total	5,928,025
	Salaries		242,418
	Working expenses		5,685,607
VIII	Fisheries institutes		539,754
IX	Subsidies	Total	1,301,840
	To prefectures where are State forests		585,021
	For salaries of official of Hokkaido, and other prefectures		573,411
	For salaries of officials of various agricultural and forestry associations		143,408
X	Miscellaneous expenses		424,349
	Sum total		58,882,935

Ministry of Commerce and Industry

I	Ministry proper	Total	1,657,844
	Salaries		624,813
	Office expenses		771,320

	Weights and measures		261,711
II	Trade Bureau		668,847
III	Fuel Bureau		418,541
IV	Mine Supervision Bureau		973,142
V	Experimental stations	Total	3,569,678
	Salaries		905,897
	Working expenses		2,663,781
VI	Inspection and directory stations	Total	1,641,382
	Salaries		600,175
	Working expenses		1,041,207
VII	Subsidies	Total	555,087
	For local expenses for taking statistics		526,128
	For the investigation of trade conditions		28,959
VIII	Transfer to the Special Account of Alcohol Depart- ment, Fuel Bureau		15,233,575
IX	Miscellaneous expenses		94,704
	Sum Total		24,812,800

Ministry of Communications

I	Ministry proper	Total	99,948
	Salaries		66,712
	Office expenses		33,236
II	Communication expenses		450,664
III	Board of Electricity		842,955
IV	Electro-technical Laboratory		998,532
V	Board of Marine Affairs	Total	2,513,419
	Salaries		1,203,031
	Office expenses		1,310,388
VI	Maritime Bureau	Total	2,306,342
	Salaries		1,083,942
	Office expenses		800,820
	Quarantine inspection		421,580
VII	Ship Experimental Stations		297,732
VIII	Mercantile Marine School and Training Institute for navigators	Total	2,427,279
	Salaries		587,524
	Office expenses		1,839,755
IX	Training of Mariners		374,181
X	Labor Exchange for Mariners		98,590
XI	Aeronautic Bureau		1,377,001
XII	Training of aviators		4,895,541
XIII	Annuity and Pension	Total	367,709,683
	Annuity		29,794,902
	Pension		337,914,781
XIV	Miscellaneous expenses		17,571
	Sum total		383,409,438

Ministry of Overseas Affairs

I	Ministry proper	Total	977,151
	Salaries		464,568
	Office expenses		413,360
	Special services		44,223
	International allotments		55,000
II	Cultivation Institute for immigrants	Total	75,148
	Salaries		14,683
	Office expenses		42,408
	Cultivation expenses		18,057
III	Transfer to the Special Account of Karafuto Govern- ment from the profits of tobacco monopoly		2,647,770
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		12,774
	Sum total		3,712,843

Ministry of Welfare

I	Ministry proper	Total	1,787,779
	Salaries		642,811
	Office expenses		754,294
	Promotion and investigation on physical training		202,407
	Eugenic work		151,000
	Aid to patients employed for practitioners		1,750
	Protection and relief of the Ainu		35,517
II	Board of Insurance		675,704
III	National Correction House		59,132
IV	Board of Wounded Soldiers	Total	74,461
	Salaries		10,345
	Office expenses		2,531
	For Wounded Soldiers		61,585
V	Hygienic Laboratory		157,471
VI	Scientific Research Institute on Health		681,583
VII	National Tuberculosis Sanatoriums	Total	1,694,416
	Salaries		225,083
	Working expenses		519,333
	For patients		590,000
VIII	National Leper Houses	Total	3,333,541
	Salaries		462,891
	Working expenses		947,271
	For patients		1,923,379
IX	National Institute for the Investigation of Population Problem		152,619
X	Labor Exchanges		3,072,376
XI	Military relief		62,194,025
XII	Subsidies	Total	23,233,305
	For local expenses		186,000
	To health consultation rooms		1,080,000
	To insane hospitals		692,805
	For prevention of epidemics		3,341,642
	For prevention of parasites		25,425
	For juvenile protection and correction		195,782
	For relief works		3,718,409
	For medical relief		2,975,360
	For prevention of ill-treatment of children		18,000
	For mother and child protection		2,206,132
	For social works		1,000,000
	To national health insurance associations		7,793,750
XIII	State share for insurance	Total	9,324,809
	Transfer to the Special Account of Life Insurance		1,696,670
	Transfer to the Special Account of Salaried Men's Health Insurance		500,000
	Transfer to the Special Account of Seamen's Insurance		132,895
	Transfer to the Special Account of Laborers' Annuity		2,585,453
	Aid to health insurance associations		4,120,310
	Aid to salaried men's health insurance associations		289,441
	Shares of allowances at the cancellation of Seamen's Insurance policy		40
XIV	Miscellaneous expenses		84,237
	Sum total		106,525,458
	Grand total of Ordinary Expenditure		3,312,898,107

Extraordinary Expenditure

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

I	New buildings and repairs	Total	2,328,116
	New buildings of legations abroad		2,247,241
	Other new buildings		41,626
	Repairs		39,249

II	Subsidies	Total	6,254,988
	For education of resident Japanese children abroad		5,491,838
	For facilities for the welfare of Japanese residents abroad		269,750
	To international cultural bodies		136,000
	To Chosenese Associations		68,400
	To the World Economic Investigation Society		200,000
	For the rehabilitation of the Japanese in China		89,000
III	Protection and overseeing of resident Japanese abroad		11,714,208
IV	Promotion of foreign trade		505,940
V	Extraordinary diplomatic measures	Total	25,401,089
	Extraordinary facilities		24,262,594
	Joint Technical Committee of Japan, Germany and Italy		1,051,532
	Dispatch of advisers to the National Economic Commission of the National Government of China		86,963
VI	Extraordinary allowances to the families		95,952
VII	Extraordinary increase of salaries		2,784,332
	Sum total		49,084,625
Ministry of Home Affairs			
I	Subsidies to local governments, public bodies and associations for their works and financial adjustment		51,204,635
II	River improvement work	Total	35,806,818
	Office expenses		1,680,713
	River improvement		21,967,869
	Sand banks		12,158,236
III	Harbor improvement work	Total	16,843,106
	Office expenses		1,041,200
	Working expenses		15,792,906
IV	Construction of coasting bands		2,000,000
V	State road improvement work	Total	14,644,378
	Office expenses		803,378
	Working expenses		13,841,000
VI	Subsidies to engineering work	Total	7,142,188
	Office expenses		181,468
	Improvement of smaller rivers		3,036,600
	Improvement of local harbors		1,074,120
	Road improvement		2,850,000
VII	Improvement in Hokkaido	Total	47,711,720
	Land cultivation		1,493,716
	Forestry		24,957,371
	Industry		5,893,775
	Land reclamation		2,610,058
	River improvement		759,120
	Water courses		3,000,000
	Harbor construction		3,682,200
	Roads and bridges		3,917,300
	Main roads improvement		600,000
	Railways in colonial districts		693,737
	Investigations		104,443
VIII	Promotion of public works in Loochoo Islands	Total	572,026
	Office expenses		259,234
	River improvement		45,000
	Road improvement		110,792
	Harbor construction		157,000
IX	Promotion of public works in Oshima county, Kagoshima	Total	166,351
	Road improvement		55,351
	Harbor reconstruction		111,000
X	Buildings and repairs		127,742

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XI	Miscellaneous investigations	Total	669,730
	Engineering work		271,191
	River control		226,522
	City planning		58,809
	Local planning		113,208
XII	Isé Grand Shrine Construction Office	Total	4,224,297
	Office expenses		85,541
	Construction expenses		4,138,756
XIII	Repair expenses of Isé Grand Shrine		181,946
XIV	Expenses for other shrines		333,600
XV	Extraordinary expenses for shrines	Total	865,307
	Office expenses		47,428
	Working expenses		817,879
XVI	Special police facilities		3,586,000
XVII	National General Mobilization		433,803
XVIII	Temporary expenses for local governments		16,674,362
XIX	Rewards anent the China Affair		136,703
XX	Promotion of constitutional and local autonomous government		80,000
XXI	General election of members of the House of Representatives		4,609,017
XXII	Promotion of social work in towns and villages		1,200,000
XXIII	Reconstruction in Kobé damaged by flood		4,309,616
XXIV	Reconstruction in the districts damaged by natural calamities		22,852,272
XXV	Temporary allowances to the families		1,653,196
	Sum total		238,019,813

Ministry of Finance

I	Buildings and repairs of ministerial offices, governmental schools, institutions and factories	14,327,377
II	Committees for investigations on various economical, educational and labor questions	1,681,618
III	Subsidies to private economic, cultural and scientific bodies	20,737,716
IV	Extraordinary financial and economic investigation and adjustment expenses	626,984
V	Control of the production of gold	339,831
VI	Compensation of principal and interest of the 4% Chinese loan	2,663,505
VII	Residues of bonds given to lords instead of their feuds	335
VIII	Issuance of petty notes	3,200,000
IX	Conversion of old convertible bank notes	800,000
X	Extraordinary control of foreign exchange	568,747
XI	Special increase of salaries	168,345
XII	Control of the account system of corporations	437,194
XIII	Temporary expenses of the Cabinet	Total 7,334,164
	Extraordinary clerical expenses anent pension	506,134
	Clerical expenses for the promotion of Tohoku districts	43,336
	Remaining business of the 2,600th Anniversary Celebration	16,148
	Urgent expenses for the control and utilization of natural resources	783,580
	Temporary expenses in the Manchurian Bureau	396,281
	Special facilities for diplomatic communications	4,663,058
	Enlightenment and information	200,000
	Temporary expenses for establishment of various standards	47,733
	Temporary expenses on the Patent Bureau	318,232
	Encouragement of invention	359,662
XIV	Aid to the Tohoku Industrial Company for paying dividends	1,800,000

XV	Rewards anent the China Affair		3,069,753
XVI	Central Aeronautical Institute		9,641,317
XVII	Cabinet expenses anent continental policy	Total	42,155,669
	Office expenses		18,155,669
	Subsidies		18,000,000
	Special services		6,000,000
XVIII	Celebration of the 50th anniversary of the promulgation of the Imperial Constitution		27,645
XIX	Extraordinary expenses for the Board of Audit		215,378
XX	Promotion of national savings		5,145,718
XXI	Adjustment of State property		332,380
XXII	Extraordinary expenses of Custom Houses		438,691
XXIII	Levy of Special Profits Tax		2,800,293
XXIV	Temporary expenses of the Finance Bureau		1,081,104
XXV	Temporary allowances		733,673
XXVI	Transfer to the Special Accounts	Total	1,568,338,942
	Of Emergency Military Expenditure		1,552,000,000
	Kwantung Bureau		16,336,942
	Sum total		1,688,664,379

Ministry of the Army

I	Buildings and repairs	Total	1,115,186
	Buildings		698,127
	Repairs		417,059
II	Land Survey		260,000
III	Use of land and buildings		159,357
IV	Map printing		444,750
V	Temporary grants		43,090
VI	Aid for automobile manufacturing		54,252
VII	Aid to the Ex-service Men's Association		1,500,000
VIII	Special increase of salaries		858,155
IX	Purchase of land for an Army Aerodrome		75,000
	Sum total		4,509,790

Ministry of the Navy

I	Buildings and repairs	Total	420,562
	New buildings		46,862
	Repairs		75,000
	New buildings of Hydrographical Department		290,000
	New buildings of local tide examination institutes, Hydrographical Department		8,700
II	Printing maps for sale		194,027
III	Temporary grants		40
IV	Special increase of salaries		205,860
V	Transfers to the special accounts as capital	Total	2,100,000
	To Naval Explosives Factory		500,000
	To Naval Fuel Factory		1,600,000
	Sum total		2,919,489

Ministry of Justice

I	Investigations		40,306
II	Buildings and repairs		499,458
III	Prevention of special crimes		1,267,299
IV	Extraordinary prison expenses		2,551,825
V	Officiating debt arbitration cases		1,171,703
VI	Improvement of judicial police		290,000
VII	Temporary allowances to the families		1,042,944
VIII	Temporary allowances		649,092
IX	Judicial business in connection with General Election of April 30, 1942		647,640
	Sum total		8,160,267

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Ministry of Education

I	Buildings and repairs	Total	4,717,839
	Meteorological observation facilities in the south		389,660
	Electric wave physics laboratory		250,000
	Repairs of school buildings damaged by 1923 earthquake		954,275
	Building of the veterinary department in forestry schools		296,432
	Establishment and expansion of a technological college	1,509,775	
	Establishment of a physical training college		20,000
	Buildings of Nagoya Technological College and others		745,212
	Equipment of a hospital attached to Tokyo Dental College		30,000
	Equipment of the National Training Institute		120,000
	Establishment of a veterinary college		102,400
	Other buildings		288,385
	Other repairs		11,700
II	Investigations	Total	442,338
	Compilation of the History of the Imperial Household Organization		9,215
	Investigations on various educational problems		69,983
	Improvement of school system		49,098
	Health examination of students		29,899
	Investigation on the training of young men		19,302
	Compilation of text books		149,385
	Compilation of historical materials of the Meiji Restoration		60,456
	Observation of total solar eclipse		55,000
III	Subsidies to various educational and cultural bodies	51,457,981	
IV	Extraordinary expenses for the preservation of national treasures		276,891
V	Temporary training of teachers		464,245
VI	Special lectures		463,140
VII	Temporary expenses for various institutes	Total	265,752
	Improvement of school education		88,680
	Establishment of the National History Hall		13,158
	Special training of meteorologists		79,194
	Extraordinary education of industrial technicists		7,120
	Extraordinary social education		77,600
VIII	Temporary allowances to the families		98,400
IX	Extraordinary disbursement of universities and libraries		9,784,783
	Imperial universities		5,018,296
	Government colleges		713,710
	Schools and libraries		4,052,777
	Sum total		67,971,369

Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

I	Promotion of agricultural, forestry, and fishery industries	Total	105,567,917
	Improvement of agriculture		9,865,471
	Cultivation of arable land		34,557,226
	Promotion of the forestry industry		14,070,746
	Promotion of the fishery industry		3,716,513
	Promotion of live-stock raising		5,015,583
	Improvement of sericulture and silk industry		2,746,583
	Promotion of horse raising		28,263,626
	Economic recovery of farm-villages		5,708,108
	Promotion of Okinawa (Loochoo) prefecture		1,261,569
	Promotion of Oshima county, Kagoshima		362,492
II	Cultivation of arable land by the State		1,033,680
III	Investigations and studies		1,819,787
IV	Prevention of live-stock plague and noxious insects		1,363,406
V	Inspection and control		3,694,108

VI	Insurance business	Total	3,032,138
	Guidance of Insurance business		1,659,524
	Aid to Agricultural Insurance Association and Federation		1,372,614
VII	Transfer or aid to insurance business on agriculture, forestry and fisheries		368,954
VIII	Forestry work on public forest lands		1,925,559
IX	Improvement of water-courses in forest land		5,776,756
X	Creation of protection forests against natural calamities		2,000,000
XI	Aid for the rehabilitation in the areas affected by natural calamities		18,077,761
XII	Temporary measures		229,181,020
XIII	Aid to the agricultural bodies of prefectures, cities, towns and villages		20,831,471
XIV	Buildings and repairs		798,891
XV	Temporary allowances to the families of officials		624,888
	Sum total		396,096,314

Ministry of Commerce and Industry

I	Promotion of foreign trade		5,232,962
II	For self-supply of liquid fuel		15,356,860
III	Promotion of the production of coal		172,576,968
IV	Promotion of industries	Total	55,655,443
	Promotion of industries		6,224,856
	Promotion of mining		16,245,413
	Encouragement of iron manufacturing		32,580,469
	Promotion of mining and manufacturing industries to their full capacity		39,913
	Land planning for mining and manufacturing industries		25,894
	Industrial equipment, establishments and operation		115,572
	Improvement of the fabric manufactures		243,514
	Promotion of Okinawa prefecture		24,740
	Promotion of Oshima county, Kagoshima		30,072
	Aid to the central organ for increasing efficiency		100,000
	For the manufacture of artificial arms and legs		25,000
V	Subsidies for the manufacture of the substitute articles		4,795,334
VI	Promotion of smaller commerce and industries		2,241,979
VII	Temporary aids for changing profession		3,416,660
VIII	Temporary expenses for economic control	Total	4,929,538
	Adjustment of funds		77,718
	Adjustment of prices		774,465
	Adjustment of goods and material		3,355,113
	Control of wages		34,250
	Control of the accounts of corporations		95,671
	Economic control and guidance		149,188
	Inspection and control of the fabric goods		392,571
	Adjustment of fabric industries		50,562
IX	Investigations and experiments		1,081,662
X	Buildings and repairs	Total	1,174,801
	Installation of apparatus and machines		963,235
	New buildings		160,505
	Repairs		51,061
XI	Subsidies to the special companies	Total	11,203,000
	To		
	The Imperial Fuel Manufacturing Company for the payment of dividend		4,816,000
	The Imperial Mining Development Company for the payment of dividend		2,437,000
	For maintenance of rights of mining petroleum in North Karafuto		3,205,000
	For maintenance of rights of mining coal in North Karafuto		745,000

XII Compensation of loss of the Nippon Gold Production Promotion Company	6,472,000
XIII Temporary allowances to the families of officials	136,428
Sum total	284,273,635

Ministry of Communications

I Subsidies and encouragements for the sea and air transportation	22,179,127
Aid for electric facilities	2,250
Aid for the training and mutual aid of seamen	54,320
Aid for the relief of sea disasters	27,000
Aid to the Japan Patriotic Sea Transportation Association	124,000
Aid to the shipbuilding industry	8,766,480
Aid for advancing funds for shipbuilding	3,105,544
Subsidies for air services	8,889,000
Encouragement of aviation	830,353
Subsidies for airports	249,386
Aid for making loans to persons for their rehabilitation in China	130,794
II Temporary expenses for electric power administration	Total 875,832
Temporary investigations on hydraulic power generation	404,189
Temporary regulation of the supply of electric power	212,193
Secretarial expenses for the investment in electric establishments and for transmission	238,953
Improvement in the use of electric power in farm-villages	20,497
III Special studies at the Electro-technical Laboratory	180,160
IV Temporary expenses for marine administration	Total 2,154,470
Temporary control of sea transportation	1,425,432
Control of the employment of seamen	105,752
Temporary training of high mariners	623,286
V Construction of beacons	265,385
VI Equipment for training aviators	14,073,582
VII Airway facilities	Total 1,392,511
Establishment and equipment of airports	737,718
Facilities for safety in aviation	654,793
VIII Examination of aeroplanes	215,000
IX Compensation of loss in aviation	4,644,115
X Preparation for the opening of international airways	10,480
XI Buildings and repairs	Total 324,838
Installation of apparatus and machines	15,600
New buildings	4,919
Repairs	304,319
XII Temporary allowances to the families of officials	145,704
Sum total	46,461,204

Ministry of Overseas Affairs

I Investigation expenses	Total 182,915
Temporary investigation on emigration and colonization	170,765
The Colonization Investigation Council	12,150
II Enterprises for emigration and colonization	Total 1,454,735
Protection of emigrants	36,891
Guidance and encouragement of the enterprises for emigration and colonization	73,030
Subsidies and encouragement expenses	1,294,814
Special services	50,000

III	Emigrants to Manchoukuo	Total	34,101,543
	Guidance expenses		378,931
	Investigation on arable land		356,995
	Information of conditions in colonies		52,000
	Training of leaders		191,597
	For collective emigration of farmers		15,079,861
	Temporary despatch of young volunteers		17,174,605
	Guidance of women in their works		63,700
	Subsidies		803,854
IV	Subsidies to the Cotton Growers' and Sheep Raisers' Association	Total	824,502
	Salaries		5,187
	Office expenses		17,536
	Subsidies		801,779
V	Temporary economic control	Total	97,407
	Salaries		55,062
	Office expenses		42,345
VI	Replenishment of expenses in the overseas governments	Total	17,129,584
	Chosen Government-General		12,948,792
	Taiwan Government-General		231,482
	Karafuto Government		3,949,310
VII	Temporary allowances to the families		47,224
	Sum total		53,837,910

Ministry of Welfare

I	Subsidies to welfare enterprises, institutions and societies		4,693,753
II	Buildings and repairs	Total	1,064,785
	Construction of the National Tuberculosis Sanatorium		1,000,000
	Other new buildings		57,280
	Repairs		7,505
III	Investigation on medical system, adaptability, land and house rents and labor conditions		219,242
IV	Expenses for the National Athletic Meeting at the Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine		235,000
V	Expenses for population problem	Total	4,387,860
	National physical strength standardization facilities		3,204,922
	Improvement of the physical conditions of infants		845,988
	Aid for improvement of the physical conditions of the young		200,450
	Institution and spread of new gymnastic styles		13,500
	Promotion of eugenic ideas		28,000
	Cultivation of thought for the protection of children		95,000
VI	Health preservation and sanitary enterprises		7,682,198
VII	Temporary expenses of Labor Guidance Bureau		15,376,454
VIII	Mobilization of labor		5,976,253
IX	Industrial Patriotic Movement		2,515,107
X	Military relief	Total	38,122,737
	Board of Military Protection		511,637
	Protection of wounded soldiers and sailors		19,503,040
	Protection of the bereaved families		1,146,800
	Subsidies for military relief works		16,886,260
	Building of the Wounded Soldiers' Sanatorium and others		75,000
XI	Expenses for harmony business		348,503
XII	Local improvements		1,474,310
XIII	Rewards anent the China Affair		8,785
XIV	Preparation of establishment of Laborers' Annuity Insurance		221,181

XV Temporary allowances to the families of officials	353,712
Sum total	82,679,880
Total of Extraordinary Expenditure	2,922,678,675
Grand total of Expenditure	6,235,576,782

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry	Special Accounts	Income	Outgo
Home Affairs	Transfer to Local Governments of Revenue from Taxes	614,138,584	600,974,934
Finance	Mint Bureau	105,368,191	17,410,663
	Mint Bureau, Fund Section	18,986,727	101,750,093
	Printing Bureau	55,354,073	44,967,981
	Monopoly Bureau	869,426,252	372,501,612
	Deposits Bureau	506,095,283	391,006,115
	Educational Fund	23,721	—
	National Debt Adjustment Fund	12,507,521,823	12,507,521,823
	National Loans	482,338,881	482,338,881
	State Property Readjustment Fund	3,128,646	556,182
	Educational Improvement & Farm Villages Economic Development Fund	6,676,568	6,995,152
	Gold Fund	34,450,198	57,130,896
	Investment in special companies	271,584,103	271,584,103
	Cultural Work for China	4,959,079	1,345,318
	State Re-insurance for Accident Insurance	194,060,073	194,060,073
Army	Kwantung Bureau	100,189,775	100,189,775
	Arsenals	270,029,937	270,029,937
	Senju Woolen Factory	10,001,471	9,995,645
	Aeronautical Arsenal Fund	15,000,000	15,000,000
Navy	Naval Dockyards Fund	229,284,602	225,044,602
	Naval Explosives Factory	19,574,301	19,124,301
	Naval Fuel Depot	82,919,540	81,382,669
Education	Seven Imperial Universities	48,434,223	48,434,223
	Imperial Universities, Endowment Funds	4,854,496	5,504,200
	Government Colleges	16,246,792	16,246,792
	Government Colleges, Endowment Funds	915,970	599,067
	Schools and Libraries	29,445,528	29,445,528
	Schools and Libraries, Endowment Funds	1,054,019	2,481,864
Agriculture & Forestry	Rice Trade Control	3,228,550,061	3,226,550,061
	Charcoal Trade Control	214,298,114	214,298,114
	Silk Price Control	102,398,163	102,398,163
	Farm Re-insurance	4,436,162	4,436,162
	Live-stock Re-insurance	1,741,466	1,741,466
	Forests Fire Insurance	483,022	483,022
	Fishing Boats Re-insurance	882,442	882,442
Commerce & Industry	Fuel Bureau, Alcohol Section	219,294,063	226,967,062
Communications	Communications business, capital account	69,714,066	78,038,255
	Communications business, necessities account	63,037,854	63,037,854
	Communications business, operation	586,665,092	586,899,399

PUBLIC FINANCE

Railways	State Railways, capital account	374,405,956	374,405,956
	State Railways, necessities account	517,487,814	517,487,814
	State Railways, earnings account	2,026,902,744	1,699,496,788
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	1,014,942,507	1,014,942,507
	Chosen Railways, necessities fund	126,256,253	126,256,253
	Chosen P.O. Life Insurance	51,511,881	28,206,336
	Taiwan Government-General	358,079,121	358,079,121
	Control of Taiwan rice exportation to Japan proper	385,820,407	385,820,407
	Taiwan Government Railways, necessities fund	16,949,384	16,949,384
	Karafuto Government	103,404,646	101,889,274
Welfare	South Seas Government	18,178,320	14,779,342
	Health Insurance	83,327,542	83,327,542
	Health Insurance for Salaried Men	8,051,835	8,051,835
	Seamen's Insurance	9,564,793	1,960,195
	Laborers' Annuity Insurance	126,479,025	2,996,813
	Labor Accident Legal Insurance	8,518,162	8,518,162
	P.O. Life Insurance	740,433,837	357,821,496
	P.O. Annuity	123,059,035	19,833,579

SUPPLEMENTARY EMERGENCY EXPENDITURE

Revenue		
I War fund		18,000,000,000
Expenditure		
I Extraordinary expenses	Total	18,000,000,000
Reserve fund		3,000,000,000
Extraordinary expenses		15,000,000,000

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1942-43

(Published on February 10, 1942)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

(In yen)

Extraordinary revenue	Total	139,304,161
Receipt from Special Account for Extraordinary Military material fund		10,000,000
Loans		129,304,161
Ordinary expenditure		
Ministry of Finance		139,304,161

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1942-43

(Published on February 10, 1942)

SPECIAL ACCOUNT

(In yen)

Ministry of Finance	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
	National Debt Adjustment Fund	139,304,161	139,304,161
	National Loans	14,129,803,313	14,129,803,313

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1942-43

(Published on February 20, 1942)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

(In yen)

Ordinary Revenue

I Taxes	775,629,438
II Stamp receipts	6,778,043
III Receipts from public undertakings and State property	21,449,481
V From the Bank of Japan	10,824,604
VI Miscellaneous receipts	594,449
Total of ordinary revenue	815,276,015

Extraordinary Revenue

I Special profits tax	189,936,139
II Special tax on juridical person	1,991,416
III Sale of State property	263,600
IV Payments by public bodies for public works	1,350,000
V Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	2,909,660
VII Transfers from Special Accounts	1,535,281
IX Miscellaneous receipts	290,000
X Public loans	1,382,691,723
XI Other loans	54,000,000
Total of extraordinary revenue	1,634,967,819
Grand total of revenue	2,450,243,834

Ordinary Expenditure

Ministry of	
Foreign Affairs	1,435,436
Home Affairs	11,058,469
Finance	700,045,502
Justice	1,693,715
Education	12,783,496
Agriculture and Forestry	10,506,478
Commerce and Industry	667,802
Communications	26,478,872
Overseas Affairs	30,000
Welfare	16,584,725
Total of ordinary expenditure	781,284,495

Extraordinary Expenditure

Ministry of	
Foreign Affairs	8,570,062
Home Affairs	71,587,841
Finance	1,051,336,414
Army	35,000,000
Navy	10,000,000
Justice	1,790,043
Education	24,207,512
Agriculture and Forestry	117,997,415
Commerce and Industry	246,374,008
Communications	56,681,082
Overseas Affairs	20,946,919
Welfare	37,081,529
Total of extraordinary expenditure	1,681,572,825
Grand total of expenditure	2,462,857,320

PUBLIC FINANCE

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1942-43

(Published on February 20, 1942)

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
Home Affairs & Finance	Transfer to Local Governments		
	of Revenue from Taxes	8,043,143	8,043,143
Finance	Mint Bureau	3,929,526	3,773,706
	Mint Bureau, Fund Section	—	612,000
	Printing Bureau	6,426,908	4,274,800
	Deposits Bureau	8,630,925	24,895,075
	Loans Adjustment Fund	197,692,202	197,692,202
	Loans	1,746,620,195	1,746,620,195
	Investment in special companies	354,771,339	354,771,339
	Kwantung Bureau	27,922,978	27,922,978
Army	Arsenals	1,402,745,698	1,402,745,698
	Senju Woolen Factory	20,400,821	20,400,821
	Aeronautical Arsenal Fund	135,000,000	135,000,000
Navy	Naval Dockyards Fund	444,375,427	444,375,427
	Naval Explosives Factory	105,425,481	105,425,481
	Naval Fuel Depot	149,255,201	149,255,201
Education	Seven Imperial Universities	11,993,557	11,993,557
	Imperial Universities, Endowment Funds	17,214	1,067,214
	Government Colleges	2,245,149	2,245,149
	Schools and libraries	2,942,275	2,763,043
	Schools and libraries, Endowment Fund	—	360,000
Agriculture & Forestry	Rice Trade Control	18,974,255	18,974,255
	Farm Re-insurance	2,140	765,636
	Vessels Re-insurance	182,078	182,078
Communications	Communications business, capital account	58,399,267	58,399,267
	Communications business, necessities account	10,057,293	10,057,293
	Communications business, operation	100,828,755	44,995,410
Railways	State Railways, capital account	161,534,000	161,534,000
	State Railways, earnings account	269,034,000	107,500,000
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	109,774,994	109,774,994
	Taiwan Government-General	57,871,257	57,871,257
	Taiwan Government Railways, necessities fund	50,616	50,616
	Karafuto Government	22,015,992	23,531,364
	South Seas Government	756,058	2,337,492
Welfare	Health Insurance	733,269	733,269
	P.O. Life Insurance	—	2,132,687

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGET FOR 1942-43

(Published on May 27, 1942)

GENERAL ACCOUNT

(In yen)

Expenditure

Ministry of Finance

I Expansion of facilities for training mariners

Total 10,061,000

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

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New buildings of the Higher Mercantile Marine School and others	7,000,000
New buildings of the Short-Term Training Institutes for Higher Mariners and Mariners	3,061,000
II Expenses anent the Greater East Asia Construction Council	148,000
Sum total	10,209,000
Ministry of Communications	
I Expansion of facilities for training mariners	Total 2,622,000
Preparation for the establishment of new higher mercantile marine schools	
Establishment of new short-term training institutes for higher mariners	1,070,000
Establishment of new training institutes for mariners	190,000
II Execution of shipbuilding plans	1,631,000
Sum total	15,000
Grand total of expenditure	2,637,000
These expenditure shall be met with the surplus of revenue for 1942-43.	12,846,000

An Explanation of the 1942 State Budget

On July 8, 1941, precisely five months prior to the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, the second Konoe Cabinet decided upon a policy of compiling the 1942 budget. This policy was succeeded by the third Konoe Cabinet which succeeded the second Konoe Cabinet at a Cabinet meeting held on July 25. The original budget compilation policy was as follows:

"In order to cope with the existing situation, the Government has decided to adopt the following budget compilation policy:

1. Expenditures to be newly appropriated shall be restricted only to the items which are absolutely and urgently necessary for the execution of the national policy.

2. From the foregoing standpoint, expenditures which have been already appropriated shall be re-examined and thoroughly curtailed.

3. In view of the existing circumstances attending the supply and demand of industrial funds, materials as well as labor, the compilation of the budget shall be made in perfect conformity with the various mobilization plans regarding industrial funds, materials and labor.

4. Of expenditures other than military expenditures, those regarding the execution of important policies shall be previously examined by the Government at Cabinet conferences from the standpoint of executing the national policies on a unified basis."

The Tojo Cabinet, which succeeded the third Konoe Cabinet in October, 1941, closely studied the original budget com-

pilation plan for 1942 in full consideration of the increasing strains of the international situation, and decided to appropriate expenditures which are truly essential and necessary regardless of any change in the surrounding circumstances and to postpone the inclusion of other appropriations in the budget. The Government formally decided upon the ordinary accounts in the budget at a Cabinet meeting held on December 9, 1941 and other principal special accounts including the colonial accounts on January 7, 1942.

Regarding the supplementary budgets the Government on December 18, 1941, studied and decided upon a compilation policy in order to cope with a new situation arising from the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War by taking up expenditures truly indispensable for the execution of the war as direct objective. The compilation policy of the supplementary budgets as decided upon by the Government on December 18, 1941, for presentation to the 79th Imperial Diet placed its stress on obligatory expenditures and other specially-designated expenditures which are truly urgent in nature and which are certain of realization. For this purpose, the Government restricted the supplementary expenditures in the budgets to the following categories:

(a) Expenditures for facilities indispensably connected with military activities.

(b) Expenditures for speedy and effective air-defense operations.

(c) Expenditures indispensable for the execution of the National General Mobilization.

(d) Expenditures for stabilizing the

minimum living standard of the people including foodstuffs.

The 1942 budget, compiled on the basis of the foregoing policy, was marked with the following special features befitting a wartime budget:

1. An increase was estimated for the revenue by means of the revision of the taxation system, the elevation of prices of tobacco and alcohol, the revision of railway fares and postal fees, etc. in order to cope with the expansion of the wartime national financial demand and to absorb the floating purchasing power as well as to restrict consumption.

2. Special expenditures were appropriated for activities which are urgently necessary for the wartime activities of the country such as the expansion of productivity, maintenance of the lower prices, reorganization of industry, promotion of the national health, stabilization of the public living, solution of the population problem, storage of staple commodities and materials, protection of soldiers, promotion of science and technique, perfection of air-defense, etc.

3. Efforts were made to curtail and postpone already appropriated expenditures as much as possible. At the same time, the amount corresponding to various appropriations of the War and Navy Ministries which were transferred to the special accounts of military expenditures was deducted from the ordinary accounts.

4. Part of the increased revenue by means of the revision of the taxation system since 1938, the increased income of the Monopoly Bureau due to the elevation of tobacco prices since Jan-

uary, 1938 as well as the revision of railway fares and postal fees was transferred to the special accounts of military expenditures to directly replenish war expenditures.

5. A large amount of reserves of the National Treasury was appropriated in order to prepare for expenditures in excesses of the budget as well as to smoothly execute urgent wartime undertakings.

This epochal wartime budget was speedily examined and approved by the House of Representatives and the House of Peers within an extremely short period of time at the 79th session of the Diet.

The revenue and expenditures in the ordinary account of the 1942 budget, inclusive of the supplementary budget, respectively amounted to ¥8,837,738,263, as follows (in yen):

Revenue:	
Ordinary Department	5,733,938,233
Extraordinary Department	3,103,800,030
Ordinary Revenue	1,523,522,772
Revenue from Bonds	1,526,277,258
Debts	54,000,000
Total	8,837,738,263
Expenditures:	
Ordinary Department	4,233,486,763
Extraordinary Department	4,604,251,500
Total	8,837,738,263

The 1942 Budget is compared with the 1941 Budget as follows:

Items	1942 Budget	1941 Budget	1942 Compared with 1941
Revenue:			
Ordinary Dept.	5,733,938,233	4,005,846,149	Inc. 1,728,092,084
Extraordinary Dept.	3,103,800,030	4,205,231,344	Dec. 1,101,431,314
Ordinary Revenue	1,523,522,772	1,120,781,458	Inc. 402,741,314
Revenue from Bonds	1,526,277,258	3,003,950,971	Dec. 1,477,673,713
Surplus from Previous Year	—	80,498,915	Dec. 80,498,915
Total	8,837,738,263	8,211,077,493	Inc. 626,660,770
Expenditures:			
Ordinary Dept.	4,233,486,763	3,749,354,287	Inc. 484,132,476
Extraordinary Dept.	4,604,251,500	4,908,495,109	Dec. 304,243,608
Total	8,837,783,263	8,657,849,395	Inc. 179,888,868

Details of the revenue in the 1942 budget are compared with those in the 1941 budget as follows:

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

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Items	1942 Budget	1941 Budget	1942 Compared with 1941
Ordinary Department:			
Taxes			
Income Tax	4,550,700,880	3,078,031,594	Inc. 1,472,669,286
Juridical Person Tax	1,909,981,677	1,194,064,749	Inc. 715,916,928
Special Tax on Dividend Interest	806,961,992	660,463,697	Inc. 146,498,295
Special Tax on Foreign Bonds	7,833,576	11,015,851	Dec. 3,182,275
Inheritance Tax	9,239,911	9,750,006	Dec. 510,095
Building Tax	75,309,752	77,553,151	Dec. 2,243,399
Mining Lot Tax	1,783,194	761,938	Inc. 1,021,256
Saké Tax	9,616,401	8,129,451	Inc. 1,486,950
Soft Drink Tax	453,755,371	355,573,233	Inc. 98,182,138
Sugar Consumption Tax	15,701,866	9,567,638	Inc. 6,134,228
Textile Consumption Tax	184,454,178	144,686,801	Inc. 39,767,377
Gasoline Tax	182,140,045	75,328,110	Inc. 106,811,935
Commodity Tax	5,291,686	16,080,883	Dec. 10,789,197
Entertainment Tax	260,496,674	121,442,027	Inc. 139,054,647
Stock Exchange Tax	362,153,300	164,586,942	Inc. 197,571,358
Admission Tax	22,701,771	35,217,979	Dec. 12,516,208
Customs Duties	48,856,781	30,663,820	Inc. 18,192,961
Tonnage Dues	40,911,633	118,818,807	Dec. 77,407,174
Note Issue Tax	1,173,721	1,788,020	Dec. 614,299
Electricity and Gas Tax	2,446,109	8,619,727	Dec. 6,173,618
Advertising Tax	15,883,458	—	Inc. 15,883,458
Parimutuel Tax	8,514,943	—	Inc. 8,514,943
Stamp Revenue	39,262,266	—	Inc. 39,262,266
Revenue from Government Enterprises and State Assets	160,415,380	143,397,813	Inc. 17,017,567
Forestry Revenue	717,347,723	557,154,108	Inc. 160,193,615
Profits of Monopoly Bureau	161,150,033	140,246,862	Inc. 20,903,171
Profits of Government Printing Office	511,523,318	376,897,776	Inc. 134,625,542
Revenue from Prisons	12,538,200	10,386,092	Inc. 2,152,108
Others	23,926,274	22,987,780	Inc. 938,494
Payments from Communications	8,209,898	6,635,398	Inc. 1,574,300
Special Accounts	82,000,000	82,000,000	—
Payments from Bank of Japan	103,356,673	51,876,375	Inc. 51,489,298
Miscellaneous Revenue	113,113,425	86,370,326	Inc. 26,743,099
Receipts from Special Accounts of Educational Improvement and Agricultural Village Promotion Funds	—	—	—
Total	6,995,152	7,015,933	Inc. 20,781
Extraordinary Department:	5,733,938,233	4,005,846,149	Inc. 1,728,092,084
Extraordinary Profit Tax	—	—	—
Juridical Person Tax	1,205,635,134	784,159,227	Inc. 421,475,907
Payments for Sales of Government Property	4,438,930	1,153,339	Inc. 3,285,591
Payments of Construction Expenses from Public Bodies	6,938,029	7,158,392	Dec. 220,363
Payments of Construction Expenses born by Public Bodies	8,041,391	8,675,057	Dec. 633,666
Receipt of Scientific Research Encouragement Funds	18,478,974	15,699,494	Inc. 2,779,480
Receipt from Special Accounts	28,000	39,000	Dec. 11,000
Compensation Revenue	263,742,499	276,742,888	Dec. 13,000,389
Miscellaneous Revenue	2,663,376	9,448,928	Dec. 6,785,552
Revenue from Govt. Bonds	13,556,439	17,705,133	Dec. 4,148,694
Surplus from Previous Year	1,526,277,258	3,003,950,971	Dec. 1,477,673,713
Total	—	80,498,915	Dec. 80,498,915
Grand Total	3,103,800,030	4,205,231,344	Dec. 1,101,431,314
	8,837,738,263	8,211,077,493	Inc. 626,660,770

As the preceding table shows, the incomes from taxes, which form a cardinal part of the ordinary revenue, in the 1942 budget, total ¥5,760,774,944 in ordinary and extraordinary departments, representing an increase of ¥1,897,430,784 as compared with the 1941 budget.

In addition to the taxes in the ordinary revenue, a sharp increase of ¥134,625,542 was noted in the profits of the Monopoly Bureau in the 1942 budget as compared with the same source in the 1941 budget. This increase includes a ¥115,192,233 increase based on the raising of the prices of tobacco products, which took effect as from November 1, 1941, and the elevation of the prices of alcohol for general consumption. An increase of

¥51,489,298 in the payment of the Bank of Japan, of ¥26,743,099 in miscellaneous revenue as well as of ¥20,903,171 in the revenue from forestry was based on an estimated natural gain attributable to general economic developments.

Particularly noteworthy is the revenue from Government bonds which stands at ¥1,526,277,258, inclusive of ¥1,229,275 earthquake reconstruction bonds, ¥17,232,098 highway construction bonds and ¥1,526,277,258 deficit-covering bonds, thus representing a decline of ¥1,477,673,713 as compared with the same revenue in the 1941 budget.

Cardinal changes in the 1942 budget as compared with the 1941 budget are as follows:

1. Natural Increase Due to Economic Developments	¥536,979,923
2. Increase Due to New Increase in Expenditures	¥50,780,634
3. Decrease Due to Economization of Expenditures	¥22,938,833
4. Increase Due to Tax Increase Approved at 77th Session of Diet	¥463,491,042
5. Increase Due to Tax Increase Approved at 79th Session of Diet	¥973,588,386
6. Increase Due to Raising of Prices of Tobacco and Alcohol Taking Effect in November and December, 1941	¥115,192,233
7. Decrease in Already-Scheduled Enterprises	¥103,880,059
8. Other Changes in Ordinary Revenue	¥117,620,072
9. Decline in Revenue from Bonds	¥1,477,673,713
10. Increase in Loans	¥54,000,000
11. Decrease of Surplus Brought Over from Preceding Fiscal Year	¥80,498,915
Balance (Increase Over 1941 Budget)	¥626,660,770

The revenue in the 1942 budget, classified by principal items is compared with that in the 1941 budget as follows:

CLASSIFIED REVENUE ITEMS IN 1942 BUDGET

(In ¥1,000)

	In 1942 Budget		In 1941 Budget		Increase	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Revenue from Taxes	5,760,774	0.652%	3,863,344	0.471%	1,897,430	0.181%
Stamps	160,415	0.018%	143,397	0.017%	17,017	0.001%
Govt. Enterprises & Govt. Property	717,347	0.081%	557,154	0.068%	160,193	0.013%
Payment or Receipts from Special Acc.	385,218	0.044%	397,189	0.048%	*11,971	*0.004%
Other Miscellaneous Revenue	233,704	0.026%	165,541	0.020%	68,163	0.006%
Total	7,257,461	0.821%	5,126,627	0.624%	2,130,833	0.197%
Bonds	1,526,277	0.173%	3,003,950	0.366%	*1,477,673	*0.193%
Loans	54,000	0.006%	—	—	54,000	0.006%
Surplus from Preceding Year	—	—	80,498	0.010%	*80,498	0.010%
Grand Total	8,837,738	1.000%	8,211,077	1.000%	626,660	—

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease.

Details of the expenditures in the 1942 budget, classified by competent Ministries, are as follows:

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EXPENDITURES IN 1942 BUDGET BY MINISTRIES

(In ₹1,000)

Ministries	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Civil List	4,500	—	4,500
Foreign Office	23,429	—	23,429
Home Office	531,150	57,654	588,804
Ministry of Finance	2,748,880	309,607	3,058,487
Ministry of Army	16,337	2,740,000	2,756,337
Ministry of Navy	9,816	2,740,000	2,749,816
Ministry of Justice	59,256	12,919	72,175
Ministry of Education	207,504	9,950	217,454
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	69,389	92,178	161,567
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	25,480	514,093	539,573
Ministry of Communications	410,888	530,647	941,535
Ministry of Overseas Affairs	3,742	103,142	106,884
Ministry of Welfare	123,110	74,784	197,894
Total	4,233,486	119,761	4,353,247

The expenditures in the 1942 budget, classified by competent Ministries, are compared with those in the 1941 budget as follows:

MINISTERIAL EXPENDITURES IN 1942 COMPARED WITH 1941

(In ₹1,000)

	1942	1941	Increase
Civil List	4,500	4,500	—
Foreign Office	81,083	78,271	2,812
Home Office	840,758	650,888	189,869
Ministry of Finance	5,488,881	2,719,118	2,769,763
Ministry of Army	55,847	1,700,394	*1,644,547
Ministry of Navy	22,736	1,549,985	*1,527,249
Ministry of Justice	69,206	62,937	6,269
Ministry of Education	299,683	268,800	32,883
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	583,483	540,133	43,349
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	556,128	304,008	252,119
Ministry of Communications	514,030	500,966	13,063
Ministry of Overseas Affairs	78,527	85,458	*6,931
Ministry of Welfare	242,871	194,385	48,486
Total	8,837,738	8,657,849	179,888

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease.

The expenditures in the 1942 budget, classified by uses, are compared with those in the 1941 budget as follows:

1942 EXPENDITURES CLASSIFIED BY USES

(In ₹1,000)

Expense Items	1942	Percentage in Total	1941	Percentage in Total	Increase	Rate of Increase
Civil List	4,500	0.0005%	4,500	0.0005%	—	—
Government Bonds	1,793,343	0.2029%	1,238,368	0.1430%	554,974	0.0599%
Annuities & Pensions	391,835	0.0443%	373,973	0.0432%	17,861	0.0011%
Administration	4,601,906	0.5207%	2,418,374	0.2794%	2,183,532	0.2413%
Subsidies	1,120,525	0.1268%	1,034,741	0.1195%	85,784	0.0073%
Military	75,627	0.0086%	3,247,891	0.3751%	*3,172,263	*0.3665%
Army	54,303	0.0062%	1,699,567	0.1963%	*1,645,263	*0.1901%

Expense Items	1942	Percentage in Total	1941	Percentage in Total	Increase	Rate of Increase
Navy	21,323	0.0024%	1,548,323	0.1788%	*1,526,999	*0.1764%
Treasury Reserve	850,000	0.0962%	340,000	0.0393%	510,000	0.0569%
Total	8,837,738	1.0000%	8,657,849	1.0000%	179,888	—

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease.

As shown by the preceding table, military expenses have made a sharp decrease in the 1942 budget for the reason that the majority of the important items in the military expenditures were transferred to the special accounts of the extraordinary military expenditures.

The 1942 expenditures show the following comparison with the 1941 expenditures when viewed from a different angle:

IMPORTANT EXPENDITURES IN 1942 BUDGET

(In ¥1,000)

Expense Items	1942	1941	Increase
Civil List	4,500	4,500	—
Government Bonds	1,793,343	1,238,368	554,974
†Annuities and Pensions	392,827	374,944	17,882
Transferred to Special Accounts of Extraordinary Military Expenditures	2,525,945	884,592	1,641,352
Transferred to Local Tax Special Accounts	452,640	320,062	132,577
Subsidy to Colonial Special Accounts	37,571	34,512	3,059
Payment to Joint-Police Expenses	50,378	41,845	8,532
Partial Payment to Teachers of National Schools	97,065	94,314	2,751
§Military Expenses	78,583	3,250,380	*3,171,797
Military Allowances	74,194	68,820	5,373
Various Payments and Compensations	27,747	35,472	*7,724
Payments re Tax Collection	23,102	18,427	4,674
Treasury Reserves	850,000	340,000	510,000
Others	2,429,838	1,951,606	478,232
Total	8,837,738	8,657,849	179,888

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease. (†) Inclusive of payments by Clause 3 of Art. 18 of Pensions Law. (§) Expenses of War and Navy Ministries provisionally given.

The reasons leading to the changes in the amount of expenditures in the 1942 budget from those in the 1941 budget are shown as follows:

CHANGES IN 1942 EXPENDITURES

(In ¥1,000)

	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1941 Budget	3,749,354	4,908,495	8,657,849
Natural Decrease	55,448	2,622,173	3,177,621
Natural Increase	1,043,886	496,903	1,540,790
Balance (Standard 1942 Budget)	4,237,792	2,783,225	7,021,018
Economized Expenses	86,664	135,088	221,752
Postponed	—	132,320	132,320
Demand reduced	1,599,576	2,023,178	3,622,755
New Increase	1,681,935	4,111,613	5,793,548
Balance (1942 Budget)	4,233,486	4,604,251	8,837,738
Increase Compared with 1941 Budget	484,132	*304,243	179,888

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease.

The new increase in the expenditures of the 1942 budget is classified by competent Ministries as follows:

NEW INCREASE IN EXPENDITURES IN 1942 BUDGET BY MINISTRIES

(In ₹1,000)

Ministries	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Foreign Office	6,988	43,177	50,166
Home Office	149,623	185,350	334,973
Ministry of Finance	1,314,911	2,688,438	4,003,350
Ministry of Army	228	37,749	37,977
Ministry of Navy	1,288	12,319	13,608
Ministry of Justice	7,376	7,406	14,782
Ministry of Education	20,704	80,819	101,524
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	11,430	382,815	394,246
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	16,936	452,662	469,599
Ministry of Communications	71,379	64,122	135,501
Ministry of Overseas Affairs	383	47,245	47,628
Ministry of Welfare	80,683	109,505	190,189
Total	1,681,935	4,111,613	5,793,548

Cardinal expenditures involved in the new increase are as follows:

- Expenses for Relief of Soldiers:** ₹135,012,306 Involve the increase of the military allowances, expenditures for protection of injured soldiers as well as expenditures regarding various enterprises for protection of soldiers, all under the competency of the Ministry of Welfare.
- Expenses for Storage of Major Materials:** ₹50,819,480 Involve the expenditures for establishing facilities for provisionally storing important materials and commodities under the competency of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the expenditures regarding the control of major commodities under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.
- Expenses for Air-Defense Measures:** ₹36,972,092 Involve the expenditures for subsidizing expenses for completing air-defense materials and those for air-defense activities under the competency of the Home Office as well as expenses for various air-defense activities by different Ministries.
- Expenses for the Productivity Expansion and the Maintenance of Lower Prices:** ₹383,468,736 Involve the expenditures for the production increase of coal, compensation for purchasing pig iron, production increase of major mineral products, etc. under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the expenditures for the production increase and control of forestry products and production increase of staple foodstuffs under the competency of the Ministry of Agriculture and

Forestry, the expenditures for facilities for training industrial experts under the competency of the Ministry of Education, the expenditures for the production increase of coal under the competency of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs, the expenditures for assisting the construction of ships under the competency of the Ministry of Communications, the expenditures for adjusting prices of commodities, surveying labor conditions and mobilizing labor, controlling wages, etc. under the competency of the Home Office, and expenditures for adjusting general mobilization activities under the competency of the Ministry of Finance.

- Expenses regarding the National Health, National Living as well as population problems:** ₹432,601,740 Involve the expenditures for the production encouragement of rice, production increase of staple foodstuffs, establishing facilities for the maintenance of supply of major fertilizers, and control of the distribution of foodstuffs under the competency of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, expenditures for extraordinary allowances of city, town and village officials and operation of the ticket system for daily necessities under the competency of the Home Office, expenditures for extraordinary allowances for teachers and their families under the competency of the Ministry of Education, expenditures for the operation of the Physical Strength Law and increased expenditures regarding the national health insurance under the competency of the Ministry of Welfare, and the expenditures for the restrictions over consumption of daily necessities under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and

Industry.

6. Expenses for Reorganizing Industry: ¥102,132,428 Involve expenditures for the National Welfare Bank and the Industrial Equipment Corporation under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, expenditures for the reorganization of smaller and medium-sized commerce and industry under the joint competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, expenditures for reorganizing the sake retail trade under the competency of the Ministry of Finance, and expenditures for the vocational shift-over under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Ministry of Welfare and the Home Office.

7. Expenses for Economic Control: ¥59,956,709 Involve expenditures for the completion of the police system for coping with economic control and expenditures for control over the production and distribution of iron and steel manufactures under the control of the Home Office, expenditures for encouragement of the national savings under the competency of the Ministry of Finance, expenditures for facilities for prevention of economic crimes under the competency of the Ministry of Justice, expenditures for subsidizing the establishment of facilities for using substitute fuel under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, expenditures for national requisition under the competency of the Ministry of Welfare and expenditures for temporary treatment of the activities of the National Vocational Guidance Station under the competency of the Ministry of Welfare.

8. Expenses for Promotion of Science and Technique: ¥56,881,984 Involve expenditures for the establishment of the Board of Technology, expenses for establishing the Central Aeronautical Research Institute and expenditures for renovation and elevation of scientific technique, etc. under the competency of the Ministry of Finance, expenditures for subsidizing the Japan Scientific Promotion Society, expenditures for expanding the activities of the Aeronautical Research Institute of the Imperial University of Tokyo under the competency of the Ministry of Education, expenditures for manufacturing high-class and large-sized optical glass for military purpose under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, and expenditures for promotion of civil aviation

under the competency of the Ministry of Communications.

9. Expenses for various Trade Measures: ¥54,855,537 Involve expenditures for the increase of the export compensations, compensations for losses due to financing export funds, and compensations for losses due to financing funds for manufacturing export articles under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

10. Expenses for Shipping Measures: ¥16,123,405 Involve expenditures for subsidizing shipping routes, expenditures for establishing the Board of Marine Affairs and Bureau of Marine Affairs, expenditures for assisting the Mercantile Marine School and the Navigation Training Institute, and expenditures for compensations of losses from wartime navigation risks under the competency of the Ministry of Communications.

11. Expenses for Emigration to Manchoukuo: ¥35,042,402 Involve expenses for assisting the Volunteer Youth Training Camp and expenditures for assisting emigration farmers under the competency of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs.

12. Expenses for Coping With Storm or Flood Calamities: ¥33,222,094 Involve expenditures for increased subsidy for calamity engineering expenses, increased expenses for water-work enterprises, etc. under the competency of the Home Office, and increased expenses for forestry facilities for prevention of natural calamities and expenses for reconstruction of damages by storm or flood in Kyushu and other districts under the competency of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

13. Transferred to the Special Accounts of the Extraordinary Military Expenses: ¥2,525,945,234 Part of the combined total of the tax increase since the 1938 fiscal year and the increase of the revenue of the Monopoly Bureau due to the elevation of prices of tobacco and alcohol since January, 1938 was included in the competency of the Ministry of Finance to be transferred to the Special Accounts of the Extraordinary Military Expenses.

14. Increase of the Treasury Reserves: ¥827,000,000

Other principal new increases included the increase of the Government Bond expenditures amounting to ¥460,946,452, the increase in the pensions totalling ¥64,533,183 and the increase of the local

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tax revenue transferred to the Local Revenue Special Accounts amounting to ¥124,534,349.

On the other hand, a strict re-examination of the already-scheduled expenditures in order to effect maximum economization in expenditures in special consideration of the materials and funds

mobilization plans was made and resulted in the economization of ¥354,073,348. Combined with ¥3,622,755,669 saved in other branches of the budget, the amount economized in the 1942 budget by various Ministries aggregated ¥3,976,829,017, as follows:

ECONOMIZATION OF EXISTING EXPENDITURES AND CURTAILMENT OF OTHER EXPENDITURES

(In ¥1,000)

Ministries	Economized Amount			Other	Total
	Economized	Postponed	Total	Curtaillment	
Foreign Office	1,391	955	2,346	4,196	6,542
Home Office	1,736	66,936	68,673	156	68,829
Ministry of Finance	4,484	28,721	33,206	67,725	100,931
Ministry of Army	159,068	—	159,068	1,825,531	1,984,599
Ministry of Navy	3,908	—	3,908	1,680,011	1,683,919
Ministry of Justice	2,445	860	3,305	100	3,405
Ministry of Education	982	6,537	7,520	2,356	9,885
Ministry of Agriculture & Forestry	26,105	11,960	38,065	4,169	42,235
Ministry of Commerce & Industry	2,350	3,423	5,773	8,331	14,104
Ministry of Communications	9,337	12,891	22,229	29,493	51,722
Ministry of Overseas Affairs	9,065	—	9,065	316	9,382
Ministry of Welfare	876	35	911	358	1,269
Total	221,752	132,320	354,073	3,622,755	3,976,829

The special accounts in the 1942 budget numbered 50, including the two new additions, namely, Alcohol Department of the Imperial Fuel Bureau and Laborers' Annual Pensions. Exclusive of the special accounts of the Extraordinary

Military Expenditures, for which the duration of the Greater East Asia War stands as a single fiscal year, the special accounts numbered 49. Principal revenue and expenditures in those special accounts in the 1942 budget follow:

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS IN 1942 BUDGET

(In ¥1,000)

	Ordinary Accounts	Extraordinary Accounts	Total
Chosen Government-General:			
Revenue	865,571	259,145	1,124,717
Bonds	—	156,740	156,740
Expenditures	578,169	546,547	1,124,717
*Transferred to Special Military Accounts	—	163,212	163,212
Taiwan Government-General:			
Revenue	323,289	92,660	415,950
Bonds	—	20,500	20,500
Expenditures	231,096	184,854	415,950
*Transferred to Special Military Accounts	—	46,566	46,566
Kwantung Bureau:			
Revenue	76,851	51,261	128,112
Expenditures	48,879	79,233	128,112
*Transferred to Special Military Accounts	—	56,193	56,193

	Ordinary Accounts	Extraordinary Accounts	Total
Karafuto Government-General:			
Revenue	95,513	29,906	125,420
Expenditures	55,173	70,247	125,420
*Transferred to Special Military Accounts	—	19,021	19,021
South Seas Government-General:			
Revenue	18,729	205	18,934
Expenditures	8,762	8,353	17,116
Transferred to General Accounts	—	1,000	1,000
Imperial Railways:			
Capital Accounts:			
Revenue	—	—	535,939
Bonds	—	—	45,000
Expenditures	—	—	535,939
*Transferred to Special Military Accounts	—	—	165,000
Profit Accounts:			
Revenue	—	—	2,295,936
Expenditures	—	—	1,806,996
Communications Enterprises:			
Capital Accounts:			
Revenue	—	—	128,113
Bonds	—	—	34,000
Expenditures	—	—	136,437
*Transferred to Special Military Accounts	—	—	65,000
Business Accounts:			
Revenue	—	—	687,493
Expenditures	—	—	611,894
Delivered to General Accounts	—	—	82,000
Government Investments:			
Revenue	—	—	626,355
Bonds	—	—	575,745
Expenditures	—	—	626,355

Note: (*) Transferred to the Special Accounts of Extraordinary Military Expenditures.

Continuing expenses of already-fixed enterprises in the 1942 budget stood at ¥4,393,722,826, as follows:

CONTINUING EXPENSES OF ENTERPRISES IN 1942 BUDGET

(In ¥1,000)

	General Account	Special Accounts	Total
*Total Continuing Expenses	4,955,147	2,537,204	7,492,351
Economized	**172,369	—	**172,369
Curtailed	432	**1,296	**1,728
Abolished	**3,742,131	—	**3,742,131
Transferred from Preceding Fiscal Year	12,484	10,608	23,093
New Continuing Expenses	7,335	66,341	73,676
Balance (Revised Continuing Expenses for 1942 and following years)	1,227,439	3,166,283	4,393,722

Note: (*) As they stood before the compilation of the 1942 budget.

(**) Reduced from the continuing expenses.

The annual spendings of the continuing expenses in the 1942 budget are classified by year as follows:

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CONTINUING EXPENSES IN 1942 BUDGET BY YEAR

(In ₹1,000)

Total Continuing Expenses In and After 1942 Fiscal Year	General Account	Special Accounts	Total
1942	1,227,439	3,166,283	4,393,722
1943	184,418	578,654	763,073
1944	261,850	877,611	1,149,461
1945	202,654	837,594	1,040,249
1946	153,861	319,559	475,420
1947	123,468	145,963	269,432
1948	84,487	104,877	189,365
1949	68,491	76,610	145,102
1950	47,318	55,561	102,880
1951	26,064	50,060	76,124
1952-1960	23,121	37,602	60,724
	51,701	72,187	123,888

Subsidies and similar Government funds in the 1942 Budget totalled ₹1,450,839,373, including ₹1,120,660,670 in general account and ₹230,178,703 in special accounts, classified by competent ministries as follows:

Subsidies and Other Similar Funds of Ministries in 1942 Budget

(In ₹1,000)

General Account:	
Foreign Office	6,407
Home Office	153,501
Ministry of Finance	62,997
Army Ministry	1,543
Ministry of Justice	640
Ministry of Education	95,232
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	481,979
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	143,095
Ministry of Communications	59,992
Ministry of Overseas Affairs	47,828

Special Accounts:

Government Printing Office	51
Monopoly Bureau	2,660
Chinese Cultural Work	615
Kwantung Bureau	4,137
Naval Powder Mill	12
Naval Fuel Depot	32
Imperial University	121
Schools and Libraries	1
Alcohol Division of Imperial Fuel Bureau	4
Communications Enterprises	91
Imperial Railways	9,180

The amount of Government bonds to be floated during the 1942 fiscal year as resources for general expenditures including the extraordinary military expenditures is estimated to total ₹16,358,762,389, exclusive of bonds delivered directly by the Government and conversion bonds, increasing by ₹2,383,783,047 as compared with the 1941 fiscal year.

Details follow:

SCHEDULED FLOTATION OF BONDS IN 1942 FISCAL YEAR

(In ₹1,000)

Items	1942	1941	Increase
General Accounts:			
Earthquake Bonds	1,229	3,575	*2,345
Road Bonds	17,232	16,450	781
Deficit-Covering Bonds	1,507,815	2,983,925	*1,476,109
Total	1,526,277	3,003,950	*1,477,673
Special Accounts:			
Government Investments:			
Government Bonds			
Communications Enterprises:	575,745	361,597	214,147
Enterprise Bonds			
Imperial Railways:	34,000	17,000	17,000
Railways Bonds	45,000	75,000	*30,000

Items	1942	1941	Increase
Chosen Government-General:			
Enterprise Bonds	156,740	160,432	*3,692
Taiwan Government-General:			
Enterprise Bonds	20,500	9,800	10,700
Total	831,985	623,830	208,155
Sum Total	2,358,263	3,627,781	*1,269,518
Special Accounts of Extraordinary Military Accounts:			
Greater East Asia War Bonds	14,000,499	10,347,197	3,653,301
Grand Total	16,358,762	13,974,979	2,383,785

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease.

The Special Accounts of the Extraordinary Military Expenditures have no fiscal-year limit. Since the accounts were approved as part of the budget by the 72nd session of the Diet, several additions were made to the accounts which advanced to ¥28,417,871,158 by the 78th Diet session. Inclusive of the ¥517,406,493 transferred from the General Account at the time of the establishment of the Special Accounts of the Extraordinary Military Expenditures, the total value of the accounts came to aggregate ¥28,935,077,651.

Due to the progress of the Greater East Asia War, the Government submitted to the Diet session the first Supplementary Military Budget. The supplementary budget, through speedy deliberations by the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, was organized

on January 29, 1942, and was promulgated formally on February 12. The supplementary military budget calls for the total expenditure of ¥18,000,000,000 including ¥15,000,000,000 extraordinary military expenditures and ¥3,000,000,000 reserves, and depends for resources on Government bonds to the extent of ¥14,000,499,152, receipts from other accounts to the extent of ¥3,040,938,996 and miscellaneous revenue, etc. to the extent of ¥958,561,852.

Thus, the total amount of the extraordinary military budget has come to aggregate ¥47,128,567,651, inclusive of the surplus expenditures outside of the reserves.

Details of the 1942 budget as surveyed by the Bureau of Accounts of the Ministry of Finance give a bird's eye view of the budgetary situation, as follows:

1942 BUDGET BY REVENUE AND EXPENDITURES

(In Yen)

	1942	1941	Increase
1. Revenue:			
General Account Total	8,837,738,263	8,211,077,493	626,660,770
Special Accounts Total	46,792,687,110	35,803,641,624	10,989,045,486
Addition to Special Accounts of Extraordinary Military Expenditures	18,000,000,000	11,480,000,000	6,520,000,000
Addition to Special Accounts of Army Materials Funds	—	170,000,000	*170,000,000
Total	73,630,425,373	55,664,719,117	17,965,706,256
Overlapped Accounts Deducted	38,155,069,752	27,598,159,804	10,556,909,948
Balance (Net Revenue Total)	35,475,355,621	28,066,559,313	7,408,796,308
2. Expenditures:			
General Account Total	8,837,738,263	8,657,849,395	179,888,868
Special Accounts Total	44,992,352,354	34,626,821,766	10,365,530,588
Addition to Special Accounts of Extraordinary Military Accounts	18,000,000,000	11,480,000,000	6,520,000,000
Addition to Special Accounts of Army Materials Funds	—	170,000,000	*170,000,000
Total	71,830,090,617	54,934,671,161	16,895,419,456
Overlapped Accounts Deducted	37,122,736,543	26,898,599,959	10,224,136,584
Balance (Net Expenditures Total)	34,707,354,074	28,036,071,202	6,671,282,872

NATIONAL DEBTS

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AMOUNTS OF THE NATIONAL DEBT RAISED, REDEEMED AND OUTSTANDING

Internal Loans				External Loans			
Financial Year	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year (In yen)	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	
1932-33	1,096,744,000	148,068,225	5,663,753,975	—	82,137,698	1,390,444,577	
1933-34	1,066,062,000	5,375,850	6,724,440,125	—	14,895,310	1,414,598,267	
1934-35	1,063,126,950	100,056,325	7,687,510,750	39,052,000	11,654,994	1,402,943,272	
1935-36	1,051,213,500	216,284,500	8,522,439,750	—	71,082,383	1,331,860,889	
1936-37	2,871,234,275	2,136,123,075	9,257,550,950	—	14,905,642	1,316,955,247	
1937-38	2,259,517,950	12,750	11,516,973,550	—	16,671,659	1,300,283,588	
1938-39	4,548,287,025	121,975	16,065,138,600	—	20,568,758	1,279,714,830	
1939-40	5,562,937,225	2,100	21,628,073,725	—	21,828,378	1,257,886,452	
1940-41	6,983,203,545	—	28,611,277,270	—	21,290,560	1,236,595,892	
1941-42	10,637,681,163	—	39,248,958,433	—	15,123,522	1,221,472,370	

Grand Total			Amount outstanding compared with the Preceding Year	
Financial Year	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	Amount outstanding compared with the Preceding Year
1932-33	1,096,744,000	230,205,923	7,054,195,552	+ 866,538,078
1933-34	1,105,114,000	20,261,160	8,139,038,392	+ 1,084,842,840
1934-35	1,063,126,950	111,711,319	9,090,454,022	+ 951,415,630
1935-36	1,051,213,500	287,366,883	9,854,300,639	+ 763,846,617
1936-37	2,871,234,275	2,151,028,717	10,574,506,197	+ 720,205,557
1937-38	2,259,517,950	16,684,409	12,817,257,138	+ 2,242,833,541
1938-39	4,548,287,025	20,690,733	17,344,853,430	+ 4,527,596,292
1939-40	5,562,937,225	21,830,478	22,885,960,177	+ 5,541,106,747
1940-41	6,983,203,545	21,290,560	29,847,873,162	+ 6,961,912,985
1941-42	10,637,681,163	15,123,522	40,470,430,803	+ 10,622,557,641

State Property

(1) The Legal Definition and Categories of State Property.

State Property is defined under Article 1 of the State Property Law, promulgated by Law No. 43 in April 1921 as follows:

"The State Property under this Law includes all the State-owned real estate and such movable estate and rights belonging to the State as provided in the Imperial Ordinance."

Article 1 of the Imperial Ordinance No. 15 concerning the State Property Law defines, however, State movable estate and rights that are State Property in the following manner:

"The following State-owned movable estate and rights are to be State Property as provided in Article 1 of the State Property Law:

(a) Ships, floats, floating piers and floating docks.

(b) Appendages of real estate or movable estate given in (a).

(c) Machine and important equipment in Government factories such as iron works, shipbuilding yards, arsenals, the mint, tobacco mills and railways.

(d) Surface rights, servitudes, mining rights, alluvial mineral rights and other rights similar to these rights.

(e) Rights relating to stocks and investments.

The scope of the term "factory under (c) above is to be determined by the respective Ministers after consultation with the Minister of Finance."

State-owned movable estate and rights, such as, cash, deposits, loans, common fixtures and books, for instance, not mentioned in the above provisions are therefore State Property in substance, but do not come under the provision of this Law.

Article 2 of the State Property Law divides State Property into four classes, namely, Public Property, Official Property, Property used for Forestry Management and Miscellaneous Property. Public

Property is that directly used or to be used for public service by the State; Official Property is that used or to be used, by the State, for Shinto Shrines, or for State service and enterprises or for residences of officials and other personnel; Property used for Forestry Management is that used or to be used, by the State, for the management of forests, while Miscellaneous Property is that not belonging to these three categories.

(2) The Legal Limitation of the Content of the "State Property Account" and its Categories.

Article 26 of the State Property Law requires the Government to make a yearly statement of the increase or decrease in the State Property, and, every fifth year, to issue a comprehensive report covering the entire property for the period; and both these statements are to undergo examination by the Auditing Board and then to be presented to the Imperial Diet.

The following are, however, excluded from the statements:

(a) Movable estate and rights owned by the State; but not subject to the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance, that is, State Property in reality if not in law (Art. 1, State Property Law; Art. 1, Imperial Ordinance concerning the State Property Law).

(b) Public Property (Art. 28, State Property Law).

(c) The value of lands used for religious purposes by Buddhist temples, the public land of public corporations and of sites of Shinto shrines (Art. 2 and 5, Ordinance No. 14, Ministry of Finance).

The figures given in the following table are based on these official statements of State Property, and accordingly, the total value of the property owned by the Imperial Japanese Government including State Property mentioned in (a)—(c) above will be much higher than the figures given in this table. It should be noted that the Government, recognizing that it was expedient to apply the State Property Law to Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung L. T., and Nanyo (Mandated Territory in the North Pacific), put this Law into effect as from April 1, 1937, and the property in these regions was included in the Statements of the financial year 1937. Further, as there prevails an opinion that the value and volume of property mentioned in (b) and (c) should be given in the state-

ments, they will be included therein in the near future.

(3) Administration of State Property.

The administrative service over State Property includes both direct management and general administration, the former under the direction of the respective Ministries, the latter under the Minister of Finance. Each Minister administers the State Property of his Ministry; but the Minister of Finance also undertakes, as the competent Minister, the general management of all the Property and, thus, unifies the direct management by each Minister, keeping one in touch with the other, so as to secure the full use of the Property.

(4) Increase or Decrease in State Property.

The increase in the total value of State Property is attributed to such factors as the purchase, expropriation and contribution of property, construction of buildings and ships, and the acquisition of rights (acquisition of real estate without owner, acquisition of stocks and of rights due to investment establishment of surface rights, etc.), while the decrease in property is due to the sale, conveyance without compensation, exchange and collapse of property, and extinction of rights (extinctive prescription, reduction of capital, etc.). Moreover, the re-valuation of property made every fifth year causes an increase or decrease in the total value of State Property.

(5) The Funds from the Adjustment of State Property.

With the exception of receipts coming under other special accounts and those from the disposition of State forests and plains or of uncultivated places in Hokkaido, the receipts from the adjustment and disposition of State Property and other miscellaneous receipts constitute the Funds from the Adjustment of State Property and the revenue and expenditure are segregated in a Special Account.

These funds are transferred to the General Account and then, in addition to being used for building and repair and other expenditure necessary for the adjustment of State Property, are, in case of necessity, used for purposes other than those mentioned above in accordance with the Budget Estimates (Articles 1—4, Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 6, 1922; Exceptions in the Special Account Law for Funds

STATE PROPERTY

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from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 15, 1927).

The following are the statistics of revenue and expenditure in the Funds from the Adjustment of State Property for the financial years 1930-31—1940-41:

Financial Years	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure (In yen)
1930-31	6,439,664	6,237,805
1931-32	4,870,211	5,963,898
1932-33	4,755,566	5,823,635
1933-34	5,973,512	6,198,998

Financial Years	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure (In yen)
1934-35	7,523,004	6,786,056
1935-36	6,812,346	3,470,679
1936-37	8,459,373	5,269,417
1937-38	7,995,946	4,528,542
1938-39	8,768,661	2,314,941
1939-40	15,418,592	5,826,408
1940-41	4,673,289	2,181,801

Note:—The figures for the financial years 1930-31 to 1939-40 represent the settled accounts, but those for 1940-41 the budget estimates.

STATE PROPERTY FOR 1941 AND 1942 (As outstanding at the end of March)

Kind	1941		1942	
	Area or Volume	Value in Yen	Area or Volume	Value in Yen
Land (Chobu)	17,378,106	2,277,390,000	17,373,543	2,350,471,438
Standing:				
Timber (Koku)	4,030,272,846	2,246,322,109	4,029,308,227	2,246,691,413
Bamboo (Taba)	271,000		268,256	
Buildings:				
Ground (Tsubo)	11,957,288	1,708,302,933	13,452,298	1,977,736,071
Floor (Tsubo)	14,459,379		16,109,735	
Number	448		471	
Manufactured goods	—	3,827,952,589	—	4,071,559,330
Machine and tools	—	1,574,355,821	—	1,876,474,857
Ships	10,653	1,777,103,625	11,324	1,942,916,866
Mine lots (Chobu)	8,372	1,339,469	14,764	2,270,855
Placer fields (Ri)	1.2		1.2	
Shares (Number)	22,867,597	897,749,818	31,096,597	1,139,826,202
Investments (Cases)	275,000		275,000	15,607,947,036
Total	—	14,310,517,120	—	

LOCAL FINANCE

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS

Compiled by the Ministry of Home Affairs

Financial Year	Rates	Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken)		Expenditure
		Revenue	Total	
		Receipts from Other Sources		
		(In yen)		
1935-36	353,509,526	533,883,390	787,392,916	685,306,100
1936-37	269,591,003	576,947,184	846,538,187	740,125,195
1937-38	263,351,270	556,587,145	819,938,415	695,714,994
1938-39	254,595,558	344,848,085	599,443,643	599,443,643
1939-40	262,654,777	321,590,534	584,245,311	584,245,311
Financial Year	Rates	Cities		Expenditure
		Revenue	Total	
		Receipts from Other Sources		
1935-36	164,739,750	977,401,582	1,142,141,332	959,693,093
1936-37	181,078,302	1,432,001,947	1,613,080,249	1,403,618,288
1937-38	200,001,974	965,547,909	1,165,549,883	927,737,445
1938-39	204,486,529	755,642,579	960,129,108	959,428,854
1939-40	217,149,412	731,395,077	948,544,489	948,032,355

PUBLIC FINANCE

Financial Year	Rates	Towns and Villages		Expenditure	Grand Total	
		Revenue	Total		Revenue	Expenditure
		Receipts from Other Sources				
1935-36	214,631,432	400,875,679	615,507,111	560,377,183	2,545,041,359	2,205,376,376
1936-37	219,627,995	407,293,596	626,921,591	570,637,575	3,086,540,027	2,714,381,058
1937-38	193,202,818	435,490,963	628,693,781	566,860,463	2,614,182,079	2,190,312,902
1938-39	264,341,902	269,662,232	534,004,134	533,859,908	2,093,576,885	2,092,732,405
1939-40	244,383,396	278,781,939	523,165,335	523,066,716	2,055,955,135	2,055,344,382

Note:—The figures for 1938-39 and after represent the budget estimates.

AMOUNT OF LOCAL LOANS

At the end of March:	Loans of Prefectures	Loans of Cities	Loans of Towns and Villages	Loans of Local Associations	Total
1935	887,155,999	1,902,171,086	243,126,568	54,540,503	3,186,994,156
1936	976,482,919	2,004,852,718	391,494,111	55,109,102	3,427,938,850
1937	1,076,498,809	2,147,849,855	413,829,207	55,872,223	3,694,050,094
1938	1,125,972,744	2,243,256,011	435,947,053	56,240,946	3,861,416,754
1939	1,184,289,599	2,310,634,523	455,552,752	56,195,466	4,006,672,340

Local Financial Conditions in 1940

A drastic change took place in the composition of the revenue and expenditure of towns, cities and prefectures during 1940, due to the revision of the taxation system. The total amount of local budgets in 1940 aggregated ¥3,272,000,000 both in revenue and expenditure, which represented an increase of

¥1,045,000,000 as compared with the originally-scheduled budgets amounting to ¥2,227,000,000 in the preceding year. This increase was principally attributable to the various activities concerned with productivity expansion and export promotion enterprises under the charge of local organizations.

Details of local revenue and expenditure follow:

1940 LOCAL EXPENDITURE BY PREFECTURES, CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES

(In thousands of yen)

Items	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	Total
Educational Expenses	380,081	152,373	123,423	655,877
Civil Engineering Expenses	286,763	87,799	48,392	422,955
Sanitary Expenses	28,071	92,287	16,156	136,514
Industrial Promotion Expenses	241,808	19,158	23,057	284,024
Social Welfare Expenses	29,040	54,936	15,423	99,399
Police Expenses	115,651	—	—	115,651
Office Expenses	—	66,316	103,947	170,863
Town Planning Expenses	25,540	72,573	1,729	100,843
Power Industrial Expenses	61,038	144,850	2,019	207,908
Gas Industrial Expenses	—	7,679	82	7,762
Water-Work Expenses	4,202	107,124	7,330	118,657
Automobile Expenses	557	32,971	262	33,800
Personnel Expenses	30,775	—	—	30,775
Conference Expenses	2,213	3,405	3,555	9,174
Peace Preservation Expenses	—	20,661	16,155	36,817
Bond Expenses	168,277	225,175	45,351	438,804
Expenses for Handling Prefectural Expenses	9,712	—	—	9,712
Assets Preservation Expenses	4,723	11,265	20,955	36,945
Other Expenses	139,375	103,135	113,255	355,767
Total	1,528,834	1,202,316	541,106	3,272,257

TAXES AND DUTIES

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1940 LOCAL REVENUE BY PREFECTURES, CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES

(In thousands of yen)

Items	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	Total
1. Tax Revenue:				
Land Surtax	30,039	25,745	43,611	100,297
Business Surtax	47,240	58,582	29,973	135,795
Mining Lot Surtax	522	10	382	914
Independent Prefectural Taxes and Their Surtaxes	81,052	56,124	38,219	175,395
Independent City & Town Taxes	—	43,835	49,225	93,061
Object Taxes	6,917	26,613	1,648	35,179
(a) Redeemed Tax	70,397	—	—	70,397
(a) Distributed Tax	—	—	—	—
Total	414,572	222,544	246,222	883,339
2. Revenue From Sources Other Than Taxes:				
Property Unused	—	—	431	431
Revenue from Assets	10,956	10,734	20,207	41,898
Fees and Commissions	96,211	292,121	22,039	410,372
Money from Treasury	143,493	—	—	143,493
Subsidy from State	247,434	20,638	9,227	277,300
Subsidy from Prefectures	—	17,080	34,617	51,698
Payments Collected	—	11,027	10,141	21,169
Contributions	46,452	15,333	29,786	91,572
Bonds	218,696	241,153	34,394	494,243
Brought-over from Preceding Year	119,974	153,857	41,031	314,863
Other Revenue	231,054	218,036	93,000	542,091
Total	1,114,271	979,983	294,879	2,389,134
Grand Total	1,528,844	1,202,527	541,102	3,272,474

Note: (a) Allotted from the State Government.

TAXES AND DUTIES

The taxation system of the country was reorganized through the general tax reform effected in 1940. An announcement was made in the Diet in the 74th Session that a tax reform would be effected in the fiscal year 1939-40. After the closing of the Diet in the 74th Session, the Government started investigations regarding the fundamental revision of the taxation system, and a Taxation System Investigation Committee, composed of officials and people, was nominated. The bills

for the revision of the taxation system drafted after further deliberations on the reports sent to the Government by this Committee were submitted to the Diet in the 75th Session and were approved with certain modifications. This solved a long-pending problem. This revision may be stated as an epoch-making event in the history of the taxation system as it is wide in scope and deep in content. By this revision the taxation system of the country, through national and local taxes, was reorganiz-

ed so that it might readily cope with the new situation. In effecting such revision, the Government made it its principal aim to establish the taxation system on a more vigorous basis to be consistent with financial and economic conditions that might develop in the course of reconstruction. In short, its objects were (1) to cause equilibrium in the incidence of taxation throughout central and local districts, (2) to secure harmony with the economic policies necessitated by the situation, (3) to increase tax receipts and to establish the elastic taxation system, and (4) to simplify the taxation system.

In the new taxation system, the income tax holds the leading position. The income tax as first created in 1887 subsequently increased in its receipts, and at the time of the World War (1914-18), it finally exceeded all others, replacing the land tax receipts. It should in particular be noted that the development of the income tax in recent years was more remarkable. In addition to the income tax and the tax on corporations, there are other categories of taxes. These are the special tax on dividends and interest imposed in respect of high dividends and high interest on Government bonds and company debentures, the special tax on foreign currency securities imposed on high interest rates on securities expressed in foreign currencies, the tax on mining sets imposed on the holders of mining rights, and the tax on bourses. There is also the special profits tax. In consequence of the tax reform of 1940, the land tax, the tax

on the building of houses, and the business tax, which had formerly been supplementing the income tax, became an independent source of local authorities, but are collected as national taxes. There is the succession tax as a property tax. With respect to excise taxes in the country, the greater part of excise taxes was formerly imposed on liquors and comestibles. After the outbreak of the China Affair, however, it was urgently needed to restrict consumption of luxuries and taxes were created for the purpose, the tax on commodities, the tax on amusements, eating and drinking, and the admission tax all coming under this category. There is the tax on liquors which, though declining in its importance, still holds the leading position in excise taxes. Besides these, there are the sugar excise, the textiles consumption tax, the gasoline tax, the playing cards tax, and the travelling tax. There are customs duties. There are also the registration tax, stamp duties, the tax on the transactions of bourses, the tax on the transfer of securities, the tax on the issue of bank notes, and tonnage dues. For a brief explanation of the taxes, see pp. 281-296, The Japan Year Book, 1940-41.

Increase in Tax Rates on Luxuries
The taxes on liquors, soft drinks, luxurious commodities, luxurious eating, etc. were again raised as from December 1, 1941, for the purpose of restricting unnecessary consumption and to resume the idle money. The income tax was raised again on April 1, 1942.

ACTUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR 1941-42

(As Outstanding at the End of July 1942)

Revenue:		(In yen)
Ordinary		4,277,430,000
Extraordinary		4,324,264,000
Common revenue		1,333,214,000
Loans		2,406,275,000
Brought forward from the balance of the previous year		584,774,000
Total		8,601,695,000
Expenditure:		
Ordinary		3,284,995,000
Extraordinary		4,848,895,000
Total of Expenditure		8,133,891,000
Excess of Revenue		67,804,000

ACTUAL ACCOUNTS FOR 1941-42

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Compared with the Budgetary Estimates and the Settled Account for the Previous Year

(In ₹1,000)

Revenue

Sources of Revenue	1941-42 Settled Account	Inc.(+) or Dec.(-) against 1941-42 Budget	Inc.(+) or Dec.(-) against 1940-41 Settled Account
Ordinary Revenue:	Total		
Taxes	3,255,280		
Income tax	1,401,363	+177,149	+339,577
Juridical person tax	530,782	+207,298	- 87,315
Special tax on dividend interest	10,122	-129,681	+348,648
Foreign bond special tax	9,430	- 892	- 4,141
Inheritance tax	64,612	- 319	- 256
Tax on building	1,991	- 12,941	+ 8,056
Mining tax	9,990	+ 1,229	+ 1,093
Tax on liquors	359,340	+ 1,861	- 731
Tax on soft drinks	11,987	+ 3,767	+ 74,166
Sugar excise	119,836	+ 2,419	- 3,005
Textile consumption tax	130,049	- 24,850	- 21,630
Gasoline tax	11,953	+ 54,720	+ 33,881
Tax on commodities	180,762	- 4,127	- 10,264
Tax on eating and drinking for pleasure	200,426	+ 59,320	+ 70,745
Tax on bourses	27,588	+ 35,839	+ 72,378
Negotiable papers transfer tax	3,197	- 7,629	- 2,229
Transit-duty	29,068	- 1,555	- 211
Entrance tax	33,385	- 598	+ 6,251
Customs duties	87,424	+ 2,721	+ 10,600
Tonnage dues	993	- 30,894	- 56,574
Bank-note issue tax	11,061	- 794	- 1,101
Land tax	25	+ 2,441	- 7,988
Business profit tax	14,489	+ 25	- 3,895
Capital interest tax	87	+ 14,489	- 63,746
Juridical person capital tax	4,629	+ 87	- 6,961
Tax on dividends	673	+ 4,629	- 17,743
Tax on the interest of public loans and corporation shares	6	+ 673	- 4,021
Business tax	0.216	+ 6	- 437
Stamp tax	145,699	+ 0.216	+ 0.216
Receipts from public undertakings and State property	600,763	+ 2,301	+ 10,092
From Special Account for Communi- cations	82,000	+ 43,608	+101,405
From the Bank of Japan	58,859	- 0	+ 500
Miscellaneous receipts	128,041	+ 6,982	+ 26,384
Transferred from Special Accounts of funds for educational improvement and agrarian village development	6,787	+ 41,670	+ 20,466
Total of ordinary revenue	4,277,430	- 228	- 234
Extraordinary Revenue:		+271,584	+498,190
Special Profit tax	997,905	+213,746	+261,288
Juridical person special tax	4,125	+ 2,972	+ 3,385
Sale of State property	9,598	+ 2,439	+ 2,385
Payments by public bodies for Public works	8,229	- 446	+ 762
Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	160	+ 100	+ 160
Receipts for encouragement of			

PUBLIC FINANCE

Sources of Revenue	1941-42 Settled Account	Inc.(+) or Dec.(—) against	1941-42 Budget	Inc.(+) or Dec.(—) against	1940-41 Settled Account
scholarly researches	41	+	2	—	131
Transfers from Special Accounts	5,250	—	2,648	+	178
Payment by insurance companies	3,240	+	111	—	67
Receipts anent the Loss Redemption Law	4,348	—	5,100	+	3,171
Receipts from Special Accounts for General Account	6,700		0		0
Miscellaneous receipts	278,638	+	2,141		+150,426
Loans	2,406,275	—	597,675		+1,124,015
Brought forward from the balance of the previous year	584,774	+	504,275		+108,750
Emergency progs tax	1	+	1	—	5
Receipts from the former special account of Iron Foundry	1	+	1	+	1
Receipts from the expenses of establish- ment and expansion of higher schools	0		0		0
Total of extraordinary revenue	4,324,264	+	119,033		+1,658,516
Grand total of revenue	8,601,695	+	390,617		+2,156,770

Expenditure

Ordinary Expenditure:

Ministry of

Imperial Household	4,500		0		0
Foreign Affairs	22,367	—	2,709	+	1,171
Home Affairs	397,266	—	1,096	+	55,942
Finance	1,278,585	—	116,000	+	297,649
Army	331,207	—	54,015	+	160,063
Navy	449,879	—	17,604	+	90,102
Justice	57,203	—	785	+	5,468
Education	190,945	—	2,826	+	27,138
Agriculture and Forestry	66,866	—	4,194	+	9,300
Commerce and Industry	9,781	—	801	+	938
Communications	365,498	—	20,952	+	61,541
Overseas Affairs	3,367	—	127	+	487
Welfare	107,527	—	6,511	+	20,742
Total	3,284,995	—	227,633	+	730,547

Extraordinary Expenditure:

Ministry of

Foreign Affairs	51,638	—	8,089	+	6,054
Home Affairs	270,282	—	44,160	+	87,547
Finance	1,213,986	—	44,082	+	476,533
Army	1,184,042	—	405,628	+	162,716
Navy	1,047,495	—	79,986	+	373,561
Justice	8,125	—	526	+	1,970
Education	78,776	—	7,232	+	47,626
Agriculture and Forestry	479,755	—	67,645	+	203,752
Commerce and Industry	281,950	—	75,952	+	143,047
Communications	87,458	—	52,238	+	10,187
Overseas Affairs	64,023	—	18,710	+	12,980
Welfare	81,359	—	19,428	+	17,150
Total	4,848,895	—	823,681	+	1,543,130
Grand total of expenditure	8,133,891	—	1,051,315	+	2,273,677

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CHAPTER IX

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

Established:

1895



Incorporated:

1912

THE SUMITOMO BANK, LTD.

HEAD OFFICE: OSAKA

Capital Subscribed ¥ 70,000,000

Capital Paid-up 50,000,000

Reserve Fund 63,410,000

President: HAYASHI OKAHASHI

HOME OFFICES:

Amagasaki	Kumamoto	Niihama	Shimonoseki
Fukuoka	Kure	Okayama	Tokyo
Hikari	Kurume	Onomichi	Wakamatsu
Hiroshima	Kyoto	Osaka	Wakayama
Kobe	Moji	Saga	Yanai
Kokura	Nagoya	Sapporo	Yokohama

FOREIGN OFFICES:

SHANGHAI and DAIREN

**General Banking and Foreign Exchange Business
Transacted**

THE YASUDA BANK LIMITED

(Yasuda Ginko, Ltd.)

HEAD OFFICE:

Ohtemachi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo

Capital Subscribed..... ¥150,000,000

Reserves ¥ 84,000,000

Chairman of the Board: HAJIME YASUDA, Esq.

President: HISOMU SONOBE, Esq.

Managing Directors:

YUZO HAMADA, Esq. SEIICHI ANNEN, Esq.
TOHJI URABE, Esq.

The Bank is now in command not only of One Hundred and Thirty-Three Branches throughout Japan and Manchoukuo, but also of the services which it has secured from many correspondents over the world, and is able to offer accommodation for all kinds of banking facilities, foreign and domestic.

Foreign Business:

Tokyo Head Office

Osaka Branch:	Koraibashi, Higashi-ku, Osaka.
Kobe Branch:	Sakaemachi-dori, Kobe.
Yokohama Branch:	Honcho, Naka-ku, Yokohama.
Otaru Branch:	Ironai-machi, Otaru.
Nagoya Branch:	Minami-otsu-dori, Naka-ku, Nagoya.
Dairen Agency:	Yamagata-dori, Dairen.



THE SANWA BANK LTD.

Capital Subscribed	¥107,200,000
Capital Paid-up	72,200,000
Reserve Funds	52,860,000
Deposits (30/6/'42)	3,544,423,853

President: SADAHIKO NAKANE

Vice-President: KIYOHIDE OKANO

Managing Directors:

Kenji Marukawa

Miki Yamada

Sadakuni Kato

Shigekazu Ono

Head Office: Imabashi 3-chome, Osaka

Tokyo Office: Marunouchi 1-chome, Tokyo

177 Branches and 59 Sub-offices
Throughout Japan

Osaka, Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kyoto, Nara,
Wakayama, Kobe, Himeji, Okayama, Hiroshima,
Kure, Kokura, Fukuoka, Kurume, Tokushima,
Kochi, Keijo, Taihoku, Tainan, Takao, Dairen,
and other Business centers.

Correspondents:

Principal Cities at Home and Abroad.

TOTAL DEPOSITS:
¥631,735,000



CAPITAL:
¥22,531,600

THE KOBE BANK, LTD.

(THE BANK OF KOBE, LTD.)

Chairman of the Board of Directors:
TADAO OKAZAKI

President:
KANESUKE HACHIUMA

Vice-President:
KENJI USHIO



Head Office: 56, Naniwa-machi, Kobe

BRANCHES:

23 Branch Offices in Kobe, 68 in Hyogo Prefecture (outside of Kobe), Seven in Osaka City and Osaka Prefecture, Tokyo Branch—13, 1-chome, Yedo-bashi, Nihonbashi-ku.



THE DAI-ICHI GINKO, LTD.

(Formerly The First National Bank)

(ESTABLISHED 1873)

CAPITAL (Paid up) ¥ 57,500,000

RESERVE ¥ 89,500,000

A Complete Banking Service

Head Office: Tokyo

BRANCHES:

Yokohama, Nagoya, Kobe, Osaka, Kyoto and other principal cities at home; Seoul, Fusan in Korea, Dairen in Manchuria.
Correspondents: All important places at home and abroad.

HYPOTHEC BANK *of* JAPAN

(Nippon Kwangyo Ginko)

Uchisaiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku,

TOKYO

Governor: GEN NISHIO, Esq.

CHAPTER IX

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

The modern system of banking in Japan dates from the promulgation of the National Banks Regulations in November 1872. Banks of every description have since then been created in quick succession, and now the credit establishments for agriculture, industry, commerce and various other enterprises have been brought into full working order. The actual number of banks, including those of Chosen and Taiwan, was 409 at the end of 1939. These banks are divided by their nature into two classes, namely, those which have been established under the general banking laws, and make it their object to facilitate the general circulation of capital, and those which, having been created under special banking laws, have special objects and functions.

In 1872, the Government promulgated the National Banks Regulations, which were modelled on the National Bank Act of the United States of America, and provided for the conversion of the national bank notes into specie. An amendment was made in 1883 in the National Banks Regulations, by which the privilege of issuing notes was taken away from the national banks and granted exclusively to the newly-created Bank of Japan, and suitable measures were taken for the redemption of the national bank notes.

Meanwhile, private banks and bank-like companies which did not come within the purview of the National Banks Regulations had increased in number, until their total number reached 854 in 1884, and there were no general provisions to control such banks and companies beyond their subjection to the control of the local authorities. To bring them under more efficient control, the Ordinary Banks Regulations and the Savings Banks Regulations were promulgated in 1890 and put in force three years later.

Side by side with these private banks, the national banks acted from the first as financial institutions of general trade. When the terms of their respective charter expired, most of them continued

business as private banks, and by February 1899, national banks ceased to exist, so that there is no longer any difference in economic functions and legal nature between the former national banks and other private banks, all of which are now subject to the general banking laws.

Ordinary Banks Ordinary banks are placed under the control of the Minister of Finance, whose license is required for the establishment of a new bank or the amalgamation of existing banks; he is also empowered to order at any time investigation into the business condition and property of a bank. Every bank must every half-year prepare and present to the Minister of Finance a balance-sheet and other business reports, the former to be published in newspapers or by some other means. Provisions are also made in the Regulations with regard to business hours and holidays.

Though a few amendments had been made from time to time since its enactment, the greater part of the Bank Regulations became obsolete and inadequate on account of the rapid progress in the financial and economic conditions of the country. A new act therefore was promulgated on March 29, 1927 in place of the old legislation, and was put into effect on and after January 1, 1928.

The features of the new act are as follows:

(a) Banks as defined in the Banking Act are, in principle, institutions which carry on operations of giving as well as of receiving credits.

(b) Participation in banking business is confined to joint stock companies having at least the minimum capital prescribed by the Act.

(c) The use of the word "Bank (Ginkō)" in the trade name is made compulsory for every bank, but such use by other persons is not allowed.

(d) Banks are strictly prohibited from engaging in business activities other than those prescribed in the Act.

(e) The minimum amount of the reserve fund required by the Commer-

cial Law is increased in the case of banks.

(f) A new audit system is established.

(g) Managers or managing directors are not allowed to participate in the management of other companies at the same time without sanction by the Minister of Finance.

(h) The Court of Justice shall exercise closer supervision over the liquidation of banks.

(i) The Minister of Finance is empowered to make necessary provisions respecting banks with head offices outside the area, desirous of doing banking business within the area where the Act is in force.

(j) The power of the Minister of Finance respecting the cancellation of business licenses and the giving of various sanctions to banks is greatly increased and the penalties for illegal acts by banks shall be made heavier.

Savings Banks A Savings Banks Law enacted in 1921 superseded the Savings Banks Regulations, and was put in force from January 1, 1922. Certain amendments were, however, made in this law in 1931. Essential points of the law are as follows:

(1) receiving deposits at compound interest;

(2) receiving sums of less than ¥10 as deposits at one time;

(3) receiving deposits periodically or several times during a certain period by fixing beforehand the time of repayment, or

(4) receiving money periodically or several times during a certain period under promise to pay a certain sum of money at a certain period.

Besides, savings banks are also authorized to take up subsidiary business, as

(a) receiving fixed deposits;

(b) receiving valuable articles for custody;

(c) collection of debts;

(d) receipt and payment of money as treasurers of public corporations or industrial associations;

(e) receiving deposits on demand from public corporations or industrial associations;

(f) sale on the instalment plan of national bonds, local bonds, and debentures of corporations created under special laws; and

(g) transacting business in connection

with the issue of national bonds and other bonds and debentures referred to above or the payment of their principal and interest.

While no savings bank can carry on business other than that mentioned above, no ordinary bank can carry on the proper business of savings banks. Savings banks shall not carry on transactions requiring the cashing of cheques against the deposits of (1) and (2) mentioned above under the head of proper business.

A savings bank must be a joint-stock company with a minimum capital of ¥500,000 and must obtain a license from the Minister of Finance.

Savings banks are not permitted to invest their funds in ways other than the following:

(1) to subscribe for, take up or purchase national and local bonds and debentures or stocks approved by the Minister of Finance;

(2) to subscribe for, take up or purchase securities issued in Manchoukuo approved by the Minister of Finance;

(3) to make loans on pledge of national bonds and other securities referred to above;

(4) to make loans on mortgage of real estate;

(5) to make loans to a depositor up to the amount of his deposit;

(6) to make loans up to the amount of the deposit to a person who deposits money periodically or several times during a certain period under promise to pay a certain sum of money at a certain time;

(7) to make loans up to the amount already paid in to a person who receives the securities under a contract made with respect to the sale of securities on the instalment plan;

(8) to make loans redeemable within a period of one year to prefectures, cities, towns, and villages;

(9) to make loans redeemable by instalments within a period of two years;

(10) to deposit money with banks or the Deposit Funds of the Ministry of Finance or the post office;

(11) to deposit money or securities with trust companies in accordance with the Ordinance issued by the Minister of Finance; and

(12) to purchase bills accepted by banks or trust companies.

Further restrictions on business are as follows:

(1) Savings banks shall not own or take as security for loans or deposits more than one-fifth of the total stock of a company.

(2) Loans to a person shall not exceed one-tenth of the total amount of the paid-up capital and reserve fund of the bank.

(3) The total amount of loans on mortgage of real estate or the total amount of loans redeemable within a period of one year to prefectures, cities, towns and villages shall not exceed the total amount of the paid-up capital and reserve fund of the bank.

(4) The total amount of loans redeemable by instalments within a period of two years shall not exceed one-fifth of the paid-up capital and reserve fund. In this case, loans to a person shall be less than ¥1,000 and reliable guarantees of more than two persons are required.

(5) The total amount of deposits with any bank and of bills purchasable as accepted by the said bank shall not exceed one-tenth of the amount of the deposits received and one-fourth of the paid-up capital and reserve fund of the said bank.

(6) A regulation given under (5) above is applicable correspondingly to

property deposited with trust companies and the total amount of bills purchasable as accepted by the trust companies.

Savings banks are obliged to deposit an amount of Government bonds with the Public Deposit Bureau of the Ministry of Justice as guarantee for repayment of the deposits, such bonds to be not less than one-third of the deposits. Savings banks may, however, replace these bonds with the deposits with the Deposit Funds of the Ministry of Finance.

When a savings bank is unable to meet its liabilities with the assets, the directors are jointly under unlimited liability as regards the deposits received before the registration of resignation, and this liability continues for two years after such registration.

Special Banks The above statements refer to ordinary banks and savings banks, but there exist in addition such special banks as the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Hypothec Bank of Japan, Agricultural and Industrial Banks, the Industrial Bank of Japan, the Hokkaido Colonization Bank, the Bank of Taiwan and the Bank of Chosen.

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF THE BANKS

At the end of 1941

Published by the Ministry of Finance
(In ¥1,000)

Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Savings Banks	Total
Deposits				
Public money	61,641	—	—	61,641
Current deposits	254,823	5,018,849	—	5,273,672
Special current deposits	363,108	6,384,586	—	6,747,694
Deposits at notice	265,580	2,808,133	—	3,073,713
Fixed deposits	1,089,870	14,850,887	20,532	15,961,289
Other deposits	818,245	338,354	281	1,156,880
Ordinary and special	—	5,358	3,830,042	3,835,405
Reserves	5	7	1,690,816	1,690,823
Total	2,853,272	29,406,174	5,541,671	37,801,117
Increase over the previous year	505,629	5,016,692	1,088,971	6,611,292
Loans				
Loans on bills	174,843	11,157,083	—	11,331,926
Loans on bonds	2,295,585	640,777	360,019	3,296,381
Overdrafts	86,040	1,741,725	—	1,827,765
Discounts	2,926,003	1,603,200	—	4,529,203
Total	5,482,471	15,142,785	340,019	20,985,275
Increase over the previous year	986,830	1,588,861	38,474	2,614,165
Call loans	139,038	526,353	—	665,391
Total	5,621,509	15,669,138	360,019	21,650,666
Increase over the previous year	1,110,118	1,407,381	38,474	2,555,973

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Savings Banks	Total
Negotiable papers owned				
National bonds	1,633,607	7,943,980	3,307,376	12,884,963
Prefectural and municipal bonds	12,743	298,702	123,245	434,690
Foreign bills	49,962	534,963	248,797	833,722
Debenture bonds	216,080	3,260,859	1,063,461	4,540,400
Stocks	62,212	742,909	276,363	1,081,484
Total	1,974,604	12,781,413	5,019,242	19,775,259
Increase over the previous year	652,957	3,157,581	1,016,599	4,827,137
Cash and deposits on the day				
Cash on hand on the day	77,641	2,399,159	60,865	2,537,665
Deposits on hand	143,592	576,120	251,526	971,238
Total	221,233	2,975,279	312,391	2,508,903
Increase over the previous year	63,994	612,910	54,797	731,701

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF THE BANKS

At the end of June 1942

Published by the Ministry of Finance
(In ¥1,000)

Kinds	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Savings Banks	Total
Deposits				
Public money	70,475	—	—	70,475
Current deposits	307,354	5,593,834	—	5,901,188
Special current deposits	402,546	7,181,484	—	7,584,030
Deposits at notice	323,212	3,213,073	—	3,536,285
Fixed deposits	1,116,720	16,383,144	20,181	17,520,045
Other deposits	948,236	412,297	327	1,360,860
Ordinary and special	10	15,929	4,600,903	4,616,842
Reserves	—	24	1,832,019	1,832,043
Total	3,168,553	32,799,785	6,453,430	42,421,763
Increase over the previous year	459,895	5,981,764	1,459,079	7,900,738
Loans				
Loans on bills	178,111	12,351,021	—	12,529,132
Loans on bonds	2,340,234	624,487	359,220	3,323,941
Overdrafts	87,062	1,915,048	—	2,002,110
Discounts	3,148,741	1,444,056	—	4,592,797
Total	5,754,148	16,334,612	359,220	22,447,980
Increase over the previous year	1,155,506	2,607,417	35,900	3,798,823
Call loans	76,730	519,960	—	596,690
Total	5,830,878	16,854,572	359,220	23,044,670
Increase over the previous year	1,202,076	2,478,355	35,900	3,716,331
Negotiable papers owned				
National bonds	2,003,067	9,520,757	3,961,032	15,484,856
Prefectural and municipal bonds	11,252	294,595	123,272	429,119
Foreign bills	64,608	584,260	282,182	931,050
Debenture bonds	288,925	3,702,059	1,258,043	5,249,027
Stocks	70,874	262,704	292,122	1,125,700
Total	2,438,726	14,864,375	5,916,651	23,219,752
Increase over the previous year	741,337	3,147,623	1,381,113	5,270,073
Cash and deposits on the day				
Cash on hand the day	96,602	2,487,832	58,822	2,643,256
Deposits on hand	205,941	615,149	276,675	1,097,765
Total	302,543	3,102,981	335,497	3,741,021
Increase over the previous year	102,360	475,696	64,069	642,125

Remarks: The figures do not include accounts of the banks located outside of Japan proper, Taiwan and Karafuto.

Various loans made by savings banks are collectively included in the item of loans on bonds.

The Bank of Japan is excluded from special banks.

At the end of 1941 there were 186 ordinary banks and 69 savings banks, and at the end of May 1942 the number of ordinary banks decreased to 172 owing to amalgamation for greater efficiency.

The Bank of Japan (Nippon Ginko)

The Bank of Japan, the central bank of the country, was established in 1882 as a joint-stock company. Its authorized capital, which was at first ¥10,000,000, was increased three times and now stands at ¥60,000,000, of which ¥45,000,000 has been paid up.

This Bank is privileged to issue bank notes to any amount against gold and silver coins and bullion, and further to issue such notes against Government bonds and Treasury bills, and other bonds and commercial bills of a reliable nature. In June 1932, amendments were made in the Convertible Bank Note Regulations, whereby the maximum amount of the issue against securities was increased up to ¥1,000,000,000 as from July 1 of the same year. The maximum amount of the issue against securities was further increased to ¥1,700,000,000 on April 1, 1938 and to ¥2,200,000,000 on April 1, 1939, in order to meet the increased requirements for the notes arising from the development of the China Affair. It should, however, be noted that this measure is of a temporary nature, and will be discontinued within a period of one year after the China Affair comes to an end. The Bank is also authorized to issue notes against such securities beyond the maximum mentioned above. The payment of the tax formerly imposed on the issue of bank notes against securities was also replaced by a system of payments to the Government by the Bank of Japan, which was created by Law No. 10 of June 18, 1932. Under this system adopted during and after the second half of 1932, the Bank of Japan is required to pay to the Government for each half year one-half of the remainder of the net profits after deducting such amounts as (1) the amount equivalent to 6 per cent per annum on the paid-up capital, and (2) the amount equivalent to the minimum to be set apart as the reserve fund pursuant to Article 10 of the Bank of Japan Act. When the remainder of the net profits after the deduction of the amounts mentioned in (1) and (2) above and of the amount to be paid to the Government exceeds the

amounts equivalent to 4 per cent per annum on the paid-up capital, the Bank is further required to pay three-fourths of such excess amount to the Government. The Advisory Council of the Bank of Japan, created by Law No. 11 of 1932, had since July 1 of the same year acted in consultation with the Governor of the Bank of Japan on the important operations of the Bank, until in July 1937, it was replaced by the office of advisory directors newly created in the Bank in order to maintain closer connections between the Bank and financial circles. These advisory directors are appointed from among persons engaged in finance or industry, or men of learning and experience. It should be noted that the directors and auditors of the Bank, who have hitherto not been allowed, during their term of office, to become officers of other banks or companies, are now allowed to become such officers with permission of the Minister of Finance.

The business carried on by the Bank is principally as follows:

- (1) To discount or purchase Government bills, bills of exchange and commercial bills;
- (2) To buy or sell gold and silver bullion;
- (3) To make loans on security of gold and silver coins and bullion;
- (4) To collect bills for banks, companies and merchants, who are its regular customers;
- (5) To receive deposits and to accept for custody articles of value, such as gold, silver, and other precious metals and documents; and
- (6) To make advances on current account or loans for fixed periods on security of Government bonds, Treasury bills, and other securities guaranteed by the Government.

The Bank is, in addition, entrusted with the management of the Treasury receipts and disbursements.

In August 1937, there were promulgated the Gold Reserve Valuation Law and other laws regarding the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan. In respect of the gold coins and bullion held by the

Bank as the reserves for exchange against convertible bank notes, valuation has hitherto been made at the rate of ¥1 per 750 milligrams of fine gold in accordance with the provisions of the Coinage Law. As, however, owing to a substantial advance in the price of gold in recent years, the valuation made at such rate could not indicate the actual position of the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan, a decision was taken to increase the value of gold applied to the reserves to the approximate level of the current international value. It was, however, recognized that in the world situation when the currencies of various countries are still instabilized, the time is not yet opportune for changing the value of Japanese currency by amendment of the Coinage Law, and consequently, a step has provisionally been taken to alter the value of gold applied to the reserves, notwithstanding the provisions of the Coinage Law, by making valuation at the rate of ¥1 per 290 milligrams of fine gold. At the same time, both the Bank of Japan's obligation (as provided for in the Convertible Bank Note Regulations) to convert the bank notes into gold coins and the Government obligation (as provided for in the Coinage Law) to comply with the requirements of persons who bring gold bullion for the minting of gold coins have been suspended for the time being. It should further be noted that not only has revaluation been made in the same manner of the gold coins and bullion held by the Bank of Chosen and the Bank of Taiwan as the reserves for exchange against convertible bank notes, but the Government has also been authorized to require these two Banks to transfer such gold in whole or in part to the Bank of Japan for the purpose of securing the centralization of gold holdings into the Bank of Japan. The profits obtained by the Bank of Japan from such revaluation have been

paid to the Government, and with the amount so paid the Government has created a Gold Fund Special Account. Certain portion of this fund is applied to expenses necessary for the increase of gold production, while certain portion is used for the purchase of gold bullion or investment in national bonds. It was in September 1937, that investments in industrial debentures were allowed to be made from this Account. Another law, namely, the Gold Production Law was enacted to secure the centralization of gold holdings and the increase of gold production, whereby the Government is authorized to purchase new gold with the funds of the Gold Fund Special Account, and as a result the Law concerning the Purchase of Gold by the Bank of Japan has been abrogated.

In consequence of the aforesaid revaluation and other factors, the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan expanded to some 800 million yen. In view, however, of the Government policy of increasing the exports from the country by facilitating the importation of certain materials used for the manufacture of export goods, and also of the existing position of exchange funds, the Bank of Japan created on July 23, 1938 the Special Funds for Foreign Exchange with 300 million yen released from its holding of gold bullion, and deposited the fund with the Yokohama Specie Bank. This fund is, as mentioned above, made available for financing imports when necessary, and is replenished with the proceeds of export bills. When it becomes unnecessary to maintain this fund, it will at any time be restored to the gold reserve of the Bank of Japan.

A thorough reform has been introduced into the function of the Bank in 1942 as it is mentioned in the article "Japan's Economic Development in 1941-42. (2) Money and Banking," at the end of this Chapter.

PRINCIPAL ACCOUNTS OF THE BANK OF JAPAN

Monthly Average (Unit: ¥1,000)

	Notes Issued	Deposits	Loans
1940:			
February	3,051,385	361,443	674,623
March	3,013,774	330,024	686,608
April	3,206,847	244,317	541,474
May	3,189,733	301,130	520,150
June	3,316,537	220,733	576,998
July	3,306,040	241,746	730,723

THE BANK OF JAPAN

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	Notes Issued	Deposits	Loans
August	3,329,069		
September	3,303,885	260,309	781,348
October	3,529,331	364,451	821,930
November	3,549,673	272,096	768,387
December	4,088,929	430,761	612,254
1941:		380,931	530,149
January	4,164,951		
February	3,950,561	382,760	463,418
March	3,947,947	485,591	488,817
April	3,802,864	507,608	602,507
May	3,724,569	586,767	536,971
June	3,805,844	577,902	531,584
July	3,979,249	595,946	566,378
August	4,210,249	531,096	557,408
September	4,333,860	499,038	540,929
October	4,439,746	543,149	533,136
November	4,546,099	491,150	550,961
December	5,179,449	505,763	610,350
1942:		602,185	500,125
January	5,230,315		
February	5,014,896	626,185	588,878
March	4,967,114	672,218	532,380
April	5,074,291	589,770	523,243
		554,791	401,536

Outstanding at End of Each Month

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Notes Issued	Loans	Deposits (Bankers')	Public Bonds
1940:				
February	3,177,447		119,974	2,426,297
March	3,311,183	777,350	149,054	2,481,567
April	3,460,635	734,163	118,001	2,714,321
May	3,405,725	681,423	133,526	2,692,140
June	3,597,152	579,897	152,060	2,546,871
July	3,493,502	945,774	125,060	2,534,399
August	3,532,627	927,649	108,536	2,619,553
September	3,604,702	883,995	113,871	2,600,266
October	3,735,363	912,380	140,250	2,912,245
November	3,874,403	820,192	146,586	3,228,484
December	4,777,429	566,666	228,613	3,948,533
1941:		818,848		
January	4,184,760			
February	4,123,555	529,866	123,434	3,859,770
March	4,229,021	649,444	121,029	3,784,997
April	4,085,428	658,694	131,109	3,878,844
May	3,962,699	533,315	359,358	3,759,059
June	4,247,048	533,744	443,931	3,874,960
July	4,332,702	372,843	341,129	3,846,890
August	4,566,152	562,636	318,927	4,053,511
September	4,619,322	560,882	323,033	4,249,427
October	4,742,822	601,970	332,060	4,133,532
November	4,902,871	732,740	340,227	4,322,868
December	5,978,816	682,990	349,997	4,591,805
1942:		903,003	445,494	5,339,913
January	5,256,191			
February	5,263,446	652,295	409,500	5,059,305
March	5,305,839	675,737	384,407	5,143,645
April	5,352,548	515,780	402,451	5,282,580
		390,308	470,086	5,662,312

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

Yokohama Specie Bank
(Yokohama Shokin Ginko)

The Yokohama Specie Bank, established in 1880, is an organ charged with the special task of affording financial facilities for foreign trade through its conduct of the foreign exchange business. Its capital was increased several times and now stands at ¥100,000,000, fully paid up by June 1920.

The Bank may buy or sell public bonds, gold and silver bullion, and foreign coins, if so required by the condition of its business. It may also be entrusted with matters relating to foreign loans and with the management of public money for international account.

The Yokohama Specie Bank has its

head office in Yokohama. There are branches, sub-branches, or agencies in the following places: Kobe, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Tokyo, Marunouchi (Tokyo), Otaru; Hankow, Peking, Changchiakou, Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Chinan, Canton, Chihfou; Hsinking, Dairen, Harbin, Fengtien, Shaohsikwan (Fengtien), Yingkow; Hamburg, London, Berlin, Paris; Los Angeles, New York, San Francisco, Seattle, Honolulu; Rio de Janeiro; Bombay, Calcutta, Karachi; Batavia, Semarang, Sourabaya; Alexandria, Bangkok, Hongkong, Manila, Rangoon, Singapore and Sydney.

THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Fund	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1933	100,000	100,000	124,852	558,689	368,864	27,517	10,000	10.0%
1934	100,000	100,000	127,890	551,385	369,274	30,248	10,000	10.0
1935	100,000	100,000	131,174	621,594	346,157	32,914	10,000	10.0
1936	100,000	100,000	134,554	553,372	381,249	34,656	10,000	10.0
1937	100,000	100,000	137,993	588,207	383,133	34,480	10,000	10.0
1938	100,000	100,000	140,695	1,276,096	394,739	33,356	10,000	10.0
1939	100,000	100,000	142,985	1,859,540	687,142	34,721	10,000	10.0

Assets and Liabilities of The Bank for 1941

Balance Sheet

(In ¥1,000)

Liabilities

	1941 First Half	1941 Second Half
Capital subscribed	100,000	100,000
Reserve funds	143,400	144,650
Redemption fund for loans	3,140	3,126
Bank debentures	207	203
Deposits, etc.	2,749,223	3,157,643
Bills rediscounted, sold; Suspense receipts, Due to other Banks, etc.	464,441	497,339
Dividend unpaid	6	11
Balance from last account	12,783	14,525
Profit for the half year	8,118	6,626
Total	3,481,322	3,924,126

Assets

Cash account	470,040	507,387
Cash on hand	168,337	196,399
Deposits in other banks	301,703	310,988
Bonds and shares	859,607	979,977
Advances and Bills discounted	1,121,385	1,787,323
Bills purchased and Due from other banks	1,009,293	625,884

YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

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	1941 First Half	1941 Second Half
Bullion and foreign money	1,767	4,353
Land and buildings	19,228	19,199
Total	3,481,322	3,924,126

Appropriation of Profit		
Profit for the half year	8,118	6,626
Balance brought forward from last account	12,783	14,525
Total	20,901	21,152
Reserved	1,250	1,250
Dividend (10% p.a.)	5,000	5,000
Balance carried forward to next account	14,525	14,776

The Hypothec Bank of Japan (Nippon Kwangyo Ginko)

With an authorized capital standing at upwards of ¥141,000,000 and advances reaching the neighborhood of ¥1,300,000,000, the Hypothec Bank of Japan is now, in fact as well as in name, the central organ of the nation in making loans on mortgage of immovable property.

The Hypothec Bank is authorized, when at least one-fourth of its nominal capital has been paid up, to issue mortgage debentures to an amount not exceeding fifteen times its paid-up capital, provided the amount of such debentures shall not exceed the total amount of outstanding loans redeemable by annual instalments or at a fixed time and the debentures of the Agricultural and

Industrial Banks, Hokkaido Colonization Bank, Central Chest for Industrial Associations and Chosen Industrial Bank in hand. These mortgage debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings taking place at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount to be redeemed in the same year of the loans redeemable by annual instalments and the debentures of the above-mentioned banks in hand. In case any loans redeemable by annual instalments are repaid before they are due, the Bank may with the amount so repaid purchase and redeem its mortgage debentures. The Temporary Fund Adjustment Law as amended in 1940 has authorized the Hypothec Bank of Japan to issue savings certificates to the amount of 500 million yen.

THE HYPOTHEC BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Mortgage Debentures
1933	108,750	145,888	1,094,070	12,582	8,463	10.0%	852,806
1934	111,755	136,091	1,046,809	12,923	8,614	10.0	797,481
1935	111,775	141,959	969,081	13,076	8,765	10.0	729,394
1936	115,275	148,517	1,020,218	13,369	8,940	10.0	715,390
1937	140,920	257,361	1,312,839	17,395	11,680	10.0	959,447
1938	141,920	279,836	1,221,763	17,580	11,780	10.0	901,098
1939	141,920	303,066	1,224,123	17,673	11,779	10.0	850,816
1940	141,920	326,153	1,261,226	17,659	11,779	10.0	834,464

Agricultural and Industrial Banks (Noko Ginko)

The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are local financial institutions for furnishing long-term loans at a low rate of interest on security of immovable property and are most useful through their

connection with their central institution, the Hypothec Bank of Japan. But with a view to affording further financial facilities to local districts, the law concerning the amalgamation of the Hypothec Bank and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks was enacted in 1921.

By virtue of this law the former was allowed to take over the business of the latter on condition that it establish its branches in places where head offices and branches of the latter were in existence. The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are joint-stock companies, each having a capital of not less than ¥200,000. The principal business of these banks is the same as that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan. These banks may become agents for the Hypothec Bank or other Agricultural and Industrial Banks. When acting as agents for loans made by the Hypothec Bank, Agricultural and Industrial Banks may guarantee to the bank the solvency of the debtors. They may take charge of the receipt and disbursement of the funds of prefectures or cities. They are authorized, when at least one-fourth of the nominal capital has been paid up, to issue agricultural and industrial debentures to an amount not exceeding fifteen times the paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the

amount remaining after the deduction of the amount of pledges given for money borrowed from the Hypothec Bank from the total amount of outstanding loans redeemable by annual instalments and at a fixed time. The face-value of agricultural and industrial debentures which was originally not less than twenty yen has been reduced to ten yen and upward; and when debentures of not more than twenty yen face value are to be issued, such issue may be effected by sale. For this purpose a term must be fixed for the sale, and the amount sold within that term is taken as the amount of issue. These agricultural and industrial debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount to be redeemed in the same year of the loans redeemable by annual instalments except that part thereof given as security to the Hypothec Bank as mentioned above. There were 5 of these banks in existence throughout the country at the end of 1939.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	No. of Banks	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1933	19	88,900	162,775	672,893	17,659	7,449	9.2%	496,673
1934	17	84,500	166,996	622,049	18,586	7,306	9.2	449,395
1935	17	84,500	167,834	602,155	19,196	7,162	9.2	429,543
1936	16	77,500	170,051	520,489	19,713	6,760	9.1	356,356
1937	6	22,000	65,593	183,671	5,854	1,631	8.0	135,236
1938	5	20,000	63,894	161,655	4,843	1,435	7.8	115,480
1939	5	20,000	81,696	161,621	4,837	1,435	7.8	109,657

The Industrial Bank of Japan (Nippon Kogyo Ginko)

The primary function of the Industrial Bank of Japan is to underwrite national and prefectural bonds and company debentures and make loans on security of foundations created as prescribed by law.

The Bank is authorized to issue debentures to an amount not exceeding ten times its paid-up capital, provided, however, that the amount of such debentures shall not exceed the total amount of outstanding loans, discounted bills, and national or local bonds, company debentures and shares and gold and silver bullion in hand. Only in the event of funds being required for enterprises

for public benefit undertaken in a foreign country, the Bank may, with the approval of the Minister of Finance, issue debentures irrespective of the above-mentioned restriction.

With a view to facilitating the supply of abundant funds to important industries, the Temporary Fund Adjustment Law enacted following the outbreak of the China Affair has authorized the Industrial Bank of Japan to issue, beyond the maximum mentioned above, industrial debentures not exceeding 1,000 million yen during the period in which the Law is in force. The Government has also been authorized to assume liability for the service of the industrial debentures with a total face-value of 1,000 million yen issued.

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THE INDUSTRIAL BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Capital Fund in Trust	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1933	50,000	59,236	408,177	354,645	7,800	3,000	6.0%	323,840
1934	50,000	59,736	369,429	860,085	7,810	3,000	6.0	290,393
1935	50,000	99,614	393,353	940,085	6,863	3,000	6.0	279,659
1936	50,000	269,456	506,504	1,200,635	6,878	3,000	6.0	244,477
1937	50,000	279,646	932,243	1,408,835	6,909	3,000	6.0	640,868
1938	50,000	288,934	1,169,559	1,568,335	7,940	3,000	6.0	872,138
1939	200,000	402,672	1,367,412	2,285,535	9,508	4,353	6.0	866,520

The Hokkaido Colonization Bank (Hokkaido Takushoku Ginko)

The Hokkaido Colonization Bank was established with the object of supplying capital for enterprises for colonizing and developing Hokkaido and Karafuto (the southern half of Saghalien), and especially for the purpose of facilitating the supply of capital by making loans on security of agricultural products and company shares and debentures as well as making long-term loans at low interest rate on immovable property. The bank had at first a capital of ¥3,000,000 but on April 23, 1922 it was increased to ¥20,000,000, of which ¥12,500,000 has been paid up. The business scope is

very much similar to that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks. The bank is authorized to issue debentures of not less than ten yen face value to an amount not exceeding 15 times its paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the total outstanding amount of loans which are redeemable by annual instalments or at a fixed date, and when debentures of not more than twenty yen face value are to be issued by the bank, such issue may be effected by sale. These debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount of the said loans to be redeemed in the same year.

THE HOKKAIDO COLONIZATION BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1933	20,000	89,089	217,620	2,411	875	7.0%	122,909
1934	20,000	102,828	212,216	2,443	875	7.0	114,491
1935	20,000	100,486	225,021	2,496	875	7.0	124,862
1936	20,000	102,563	215,924	2,382	875	7.0	121,367
1937	20,000	121,203	235,403	2,258	875	7.0	119,102
1938	20,000	163,572	254,564	2,358	875	7.0	104,765
1939	20,885	259,585	311,996	2,791	885	7.0	93,480

The Bank of Taiwan (Taiwan Ginko)

The Bank of Taiwan was founded in September 1889, four years after Japan's occupation of Formosa, as the result of the Sino-Japanese War.

It is a joint-stock company with an authorized capital of ¥30,000,000, of which ¥18,750,000 has been paid up.

The Bank is privileged to issue bank-notes of the denomination of one yen and upward, and is under obligation to convert them into gold coins or convertible

bank notes issued by the Bank of Japan. It is required to hold as conversion reserve gold and silver coins and bullion and the convertible notes of the Bank of Japan to the same amount as the notes issued. It may, in addition to the notes mentioned above, issue bank notes up to the amount of ¥80,000,000 against Government bonds and other securities or commercial bills of a reliable nature. Notes issued beyond this limit are subject to a tax of not less than three per cent per annum of the amount so issued.

THE BANK OF TAIWAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1933	15,000	101,457	227,944	1,296	395	3.0%
1934	15,000	112,610	214,891	1,443	395	3.0
1935	15,000	120,745	214,006	1,776	395	3.0
1936	15,000	130,017	221,918	2,174	395	3.0
1937	15,000	148,814	244,828	2,644	459	3.5
1938	15,000	186,408	235,247	3,358	656	5.0
1939	15,000	278,169	228,316	3,423	787	6.0
1940	30,000	367,986	333,270	4,223	548	6.0

The Bank of Chosen
(Chosen Ginko)

The Bank of Korea was established in October 1909, its name being changed to the Bank of Chosen in 1911 by virtue of the Bank of Chosen Act issued by the Government following Korea's annexation to Japan in April 1910. The bank is authorized to issue bank notes against gold coins, gold and silver bullion and notes of the Bank of Japan, and further to issue such notes on security of national bonds, and other bonds and commercial bills of a reliable nature, the maximum amount of the latter notes being ¥160,000,000. The bank may be allowed to issue notes beyond the maximum, such excess issue being subject to a tax of at least 3 per cent per annum. In 1917 the bank's notes were given sole right of legal tender in the Kwantung Leased Territory and along the South Manchuria Railway. Through revision of the Bank of Chosen Act in 1924 the right of control of the bank was transferred from the Governor-General of Chosen to the Minister of Finance.

After the foundation of Manchoukuo, however, steps were taken by the Manchoukuo Government to stabilize the value of the yuan and to adjust the complicated currency system of that country, and in conformity with this policy, the Bank of Chosen reduced the issue of its notes in Manchoukuo (excluding Kwantung L.T.) from December 23, 1935 onward. Simultaneously with the establishment of the Industrial Bank of Manchou at Hsinking, the branches of the Bank of Chosen in Manchoukuo (excluding Kwantung L.T.) were all turned over to the Industrial Bank of Manchou in December 1936, with the result that the issue of the Bank of Chosen notes in Manchoukuo was entirely discontinued. It may further be noted that with the abolition of extra-territoriality in Manchoukuo and the transfer of the administrative power in the South Manchuria Railway Company Zone to Manchoukuo on December 1, 1937, the provisions respecting the legal tender of the Bank of Chosen notes in the Zone were also abrogated.

THE BANK OF CHOSEN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Bale of Dividend
1933	40,000	215,105	354,508	1,853	940	4.0%
1934	40,000	228,193	420,533	1,847	940	4.0
1935	40,000	292,122	422,814	1,859	940	4.0
1936	40,000	411,142	484,349	1,872	940	4.0
1937	40,000	293,943	453,669	1,866	940	4.0
1938	40,000	539,654	579,586	2,510	1,175	5.0
1939	40,000	881,656	793,424	2,985	1,500	7.0

Trust Business

It was about 1906 that companies bearing the title of Sintaku Kaisha (Trust Company) were first established in Japan, and, since that time the number of these institutions has steadily increased.

The function of a trust company is to hold, use or dispose of property for, and on behalf of persons who have not the ability or time to attend to these matters themselves. It goes without saying, therefore, that the sound development of this particular business agency will contribute greatly to social and economic progress. But some trust companies have been in existence that did not rest upon a sound basis and which transacted business that could not be properly called trust business. The Government, therefore, laid the projected Trust Law and Trust Business Law before the 45th session of the Diet and secured its approval. These two laws were effective on and after January 1, 1923.

According to the Trust Business Law:

- (1) Trust business can be carried on only by a joint-stock company whose capital is one million yen or more and which has obtained licence from the Minister of Finance.

- (2) The properties that a trust company can accept in trust are limited to money, negotiable paper, monetary claims, movables, land and things thereon, and superficies and leases of lands.

- (3) The method of administering the trust property is specified in the Imperial Ordinance issued according to the provisions of the Trust Law.

- (4) Businesses which trust companies can carry on as incidental to their main business are limited to the following:

1. Reception of deposits for safe custody.
2. Giving guarantees for debts.
3. Acting as an intermediary in the sale of immovable properties.
4. Acting as an intermediary in the loans of either money or immovable properties.
5. Flotation of bonds, debentures or stocks, and receipt of payment from the subscribers.
6. Payment of principal and interest or dividends of bonds, debentures or stocks.

7. Execution of a will concerning property.

8. Auditing.

9. Acting as agents for the following matters:

- a. Acquisition or disposition of properties.

- b. Adjustment and liquidation of properties.

- c. Collection of claims.

- d. Performance of obligations.

Of the above the guaranteeing of debts is subject to necessary limitations to be specified by ordinance.

- (5) Trust companies are forbidden to engage in any business other than those mentioned above, excepting business connected with mortgage debentures.

- (6) Trust companies must, in conformity with the provisions of ordinance, deposit national loan bonds of not less than one-tenth of their capital as security, and beneficiaries are entitled to preferential rights as regards the national loan bonds thus deposited by trust companies. The rate of legal reserve fund has also been increased, while certain limit is to be observed by the companies in using their own fund for the purpose of investment. These, together with other provisions for control, are intended to protect the interests of beneficiaries, at the same time preventing the companies from possible mismanagement.

- (7) As stated in (5) the companies carrying on general trust business can also engage in similar business connected with mortgage debentures. Consequently a revision was effected in this respect in the Mortgage Debentures Trust Law. Ordinary banks were formerly disqualified to combine general trust business but this privilege was allowed to the Bank of Taiwan, Industrial Bank of Japan and Hokkaido Colonization Bank. It being deemed necessary to confine the operation of these special banks in the particular line to business connected with mortgage debentures only, necessary revisions have been made in the laws relating to these banks.

Trust companies established under the provisions of the above-mentioned laws numbered 28 and had an aggregate nominal capital of ¥256,000,000 at the end of December 1939. These institutions have now great influence in financial circles.

TRUST COMPANIES

At the End of Nov.	No. of Head Offices	No. of Branch Offices	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Funds (In yen)	Net Profit	Dividend
1933	36	16	287,000,000	82,076,075	29,536,346	18,019,865	3,689,200
1934	33	16	282,000,000	78,336,575	34,180,490	20,984,787	3,674,498
1935	32	17	272,000,000	76,308,575	39,421,837	22,135,929	3,638,498
1936	31	17	259,000,000	74,670,478	43,469,351	23,393,825	3,584,747
1937	29	18	259,000,000	73,932,475	48,676,307	24,961,897	3,865,998
1938	28	18	256,000,000	73,421,975	54,102,769	26,199,578	4,043,498
1939	28	18	256,000,000	73,459,000	59,569,000	—	—
1940	28	18	256,000,000	73,486,000	66,528,000	—	—

Assets

Trust Account

(In ¥1,000)

At the End of Each Year	Securities	Advance	Deposits	Movable and Real Estate	Miscel- laneous Assets	Cash in Hand	Total (including branches' accounts)
1933	568,901	923,807	47,529	40,565	30,758	4,188	1,765,289
1934	799,418	896,288	54,960	40,648	31,443	3,813	2,058,923
1935	940,644	949,137	50,129	42,669	42,858	3,719	2,310,253
1936	1,133,158	983,811	41,606	43,884	36,459	3,669	2,551,779
1937	1,158,156	1,088,999	43,869	44,199	57,835	3,504	2,705,002
1938	1,306,295	1,230,963	47,417	50,987	73,674	3,526	3,063,538
1939	1,529,468	1,478,692	42,550	59,515	90,168	703	3,210,093
1940	1,636,999	1,693,275	59,205	65,669	—	80,605	3,536,053
1941	1,821,683	1,775,059	84,483	67,326	111,328	1,671	3,861,550
1942							
(June)	1,987,898	1,796,594	89,572	68,175	104,204	1,645	4,048,086

Liabilities

Trust Account

	Money in Trust	Trust Fund other than Money	Secu- rities in Trust	Claims in Trust	Real Estates in Trust	Super- ficies in Trust	Branches Accounts	Total
1933	1,378,375	11,641	183,867	9,314	32,536	15	149,541	1,765,289
1934	1,570,191	8,962	205,824	9,013	32,566	14	232,353	2,058,923
1935	1,729,993	10,169	250,205	6,052	32,723	14	281,097	2,310,253
1936	1,854,153	8,002	340,954	4,490	34,972	16	309,192	2,551,779
1937	1,886,416	8,731	457,661	8,026	35,713	16	308,439	2,705,002
1938	2,037,582	9,181	609,965	13,136	42,982	16	350,676	3,063,538
1939	2,322,761	12,776	797,357	17,425	50,758	13	—	3,201,093
1940	2,601,931	11,791	824,719	21,308	57,227	13	—	3,536,053
1941	3,047,036	9,663	714,815	28,314	61,706	13	—	3,861,550
1942								
(June)	3,280,328	10,636	662,795	31,632	62,681	13	—	4,048,086

Mutual Loan Companies (Mujin Kaisha)

In addition to the banking institutions there are mutual loan companies (Mujin Kaisha), which are credit establishments peculiar to Japan and are based on mutual credit among the middle and

lower classes of people. Mutual credit societies have existed in Japan since olden times. The Mutual Loan Society Law was promulgated in June 1915, whereby the mutual loan societies acquired a legal standing. But in order to enable these societies to perform the function of financial institutions for

lower classes and to extend their business operations, fundamental amendments were made in the law in 1931, and 1938. According to the provisions of the Mutual Loan Company Law, put into effect on and after April 1, 1938, the business of the companies is to make the subscribers pay money in instalments during a fixed period and then to distribute it, in lots, among the subscribers, by drawings, biddings or some similar means, the number of such lots and the sum of money to be thus distributed be-

ing previously fixed. Each company must be a joint stock company with a nominal capital of more than ¥100,000. No company is allowed to carry on this kind of business without permission of the Minister of Finance. Those so engaged are prohibited from carrying on any other business at the same time and are under obligation to present business reports to the Government. Restrictions also are put on the use of business funds. The number of these companies was 162 at the end of June 1942.

MUTUAL LOAN COMPANIES

Assets

(In ¥1,000)

Year	No. of Companies	Money yet to be paid in instalments	Convertible Notes	Loans	Deposits	Total, including others
1933	276	67,616	4,447	44,271	26,340	166,723
1934	273	63,002	7,643	51,473	32,084	179,865
1935	262	58,041	9,625	61,723	33,293	187,880
1936	253	51,848	13,152	73,365	38,594	204,422
1937	246	50,727	18,358	96,568	45,252	238,995
1938	245	49,508	25,988	125,987	53,386	287,481
1939	237	—	42,886	183,233	69,917	691,851

Note: Unpaid capital and loss are discounted.

Liabilities

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Net profit	Total, including others
1933	18,581	9,554	447	166,723
1934	19,330	9,927	(—) 134	179,865
1935	19,067	10,708	710	187,881
1936	18,933	10,923	1,512	204,422
1937	18,886	12,071	1,666	238,995
1938	19,122	13,386	2,080	287,481
1939	19,125	14,948	2,695	691,851

Cooperative Credit Associations

Credit Associations acquired a legal standing under a new system as defined by the so-called Cooperative (or Industrial) Association Law, promulgated in March 1900. The business of these associations is to lend money to their members in order to better their economic conditions and to employ their savings. By virtue of the revision of the law in July 1917, the business of the Credit Associations has been expanded and they may use the savings of the families of their members, public corporations or

legal persons who do not aim at profit. Especially, the Credit Associations in cities or city areas designated by the competent Minister of State may, besides the business above described, discount bills for their members and handle savings of persons who are not their members but reside inside the same boundary. Therefore, they may be called the People's Banks in city areas, and are placed under the control of the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The actual number of these associations was 282 with 495,328 members at the end of April 1942.

Year	Money Paid	Loans (In yen)	Savings	Total B/S
1933	56,493,820	158,026,038	177,376,486	292,271,078
1934	58,516,000	160,450,000	189,760,000	309,983,000
1935	59,028,000	164,584,000	218,676,000	326,973,000
1936	58,394,000	175,197,000	241,664,000	350,034,000
1937	59,930,000	190,619,000	277,453,000	390,805,000
1938	64,721,000	208,483,000	363,531,000	482,241,000
1939	68,632,000	249,274,900	477,937,000	596,580,000
1940	68,663,000	281,492,000	661,464,000	—
1941	67,640,000	317,354,000	869,672,000	—
1942 (April)	69,396,000	332,096,000	952,826,000	—

Central Chest for Cooperative Associations

(Sangyo Kumiai Chuo Kinko)

As an institution for regulating the movement of funds of the Federations of Cooperative (or Industrial) Associations and of Individual Cooperative Associations and for bringing them into close touch with the central money market, the Central Chest for Cooperative Associations was established by law on April 5, 1923. Its capital at present amounts to ¥35,700,000, of which ¥17,500,000 is invested by the Government and the remainder, ¥18,200,000 by the Cooperative Associations throughout the country. Of this nominal capital, 32.9 million has been paid up. Formerly, those interested in the Chest were confined to the Government, federations of industrial association, and industrial associations, but federations of fishery associations and mutual fishery associations were further authorized to make investments by the Law as amended on March 18, 1938. The number of associations that were interested in the Central Chest amounted on June 30, 1940 to 13,502, representing more than 87% of the total number of associations throughout the country. The principal business of the Central Chest for Cooperative Associations is as follows:

(1) To make without security loans

redeemable at a fixed time within a period of not more than five years to Federations of Cooperative Associations or Cooperative Associations, Federations of fishery associations, or mutual fishery associations;

(2) To make loans without security redeemable by annual instalments within a period not exceeding thirty years to those federations or associations, provided that the total amount of such loans does not exceed one-half of the paid-up capital and debentures issued;

(3) To discount bills for, or allow overdrafts to those federations or associations;

(4) To undertake exchange business for those federations or associations;

(5) To receive money as deposits from those federations or associations, public corporations, or legal persons not engaged in business aiming at profit;

(6) To take securities for safe custody for those federations or associations; and

(7) To buy and sell on a consignment basis securities for those federations or associations.

The Central Chest is authorized to issue debentures and is subject to control both of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and the Minister of Finance. The assets and liabilities of these associations follow:

ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

March of	Unpaid Investment	Loans	Deposits in Banks	Securities	Total, including Others
1933	381	127,332	40,145	18,493	192,073
1934	14	150,970	30,532	57,216	248,786
1935	—	141,314	28,247	73,897	248,584
1936	—	147,419	23,499	79,177	256,572
1937	—	155,565	18,327	61,673	242,471
1938	—	162,884	26,312	76,027	272,208
1939	4,000	159,504	32,601	123,410	328,149
1940	3,287	160,633	34,846	239,060	444,286
1941	2,565	208,947	30,255	404,153	—

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LIABILITIES

(In ₹1,000)

March of	Investment by Government	Investment by Others	Co-operative Debentures	Fixed Deposits	Total, including Others
1933	15,000	15,700	59,503	59,624	192,073
1934	15,000	15,700	64,411	84,454	245,785
1935	15,000	15,700	84,291	86,149	248,584
1936	15,000	15,700	86,575	99,383	256,572
1937	15,000	15,700	82,939	80,776	242,471
1938	15,000	15,700	82,312	103,613	272,208
1939	17,500	18,200	72,309	150,934	328,149
1940	17,500	18,200	66,800	218,895	444,286
1941	17,500	18,200	57,916	536,121	

Central Chest for Commercial and Manufacturing Associations
(Shōkō Kumiai Chūō Kinko)

For the purpose of regulating and facilitating the movement of funds of commercial associations, manufacturing associations, and foreign trade associations, the Central Chest for Commercial and Manufacturing Associations was created by Law No. 14 of May 27, 1936. Amendments were, however, made in this Law on April 1, 1940 and were put into operation as from May 3 of the same year. Its capital amounts to 10 million yen, of which 5 million yen has been invested by the Government. Those that may be interested in this institution are the Government, commercial associations, federations of commercial associations, manufacturing associations, federations of manufacturing associations, small manufacturing associations, foreign trade associations, and federations foreign trade associations, and the subscription to the capital by those other than the Government is in principle limited to 1,000 shares per federation or association.

The principal business of the Central Chest for Commercial and Manufacturing Associations is as follows:

- (1) To make, without security, loans redeemable at a fixed time or by monthly instalments within a period not exceeding 5 years to the federations or associations interested in the Chest.
- (2) To make, without security, loans redeemable by annual or semi-annual instalments within a period not exceeding 20 years to the federations or associations; provided, however, that in cases where the loans are to be redeemable within a period exceeding 5 years, such loans must not exceed half of the total amount of the paid-up capital and

commercial and manufacturing debentures issued.

(3) To discount bills for or allow over-drafts to the associations or federations.

(4) To undertake business relating to documentary bills for the associations or federations.

(5) To undertake inland exchange business for the associations or federations.

(6) To receive money as deposits from commercial associations, federations of commercial associations, manufacturing associations, federations of manufacturing associations, small manufacturing associations, foreign trade associations, federations of foreign trade associations, public corporations, and other corporations on a non-commercial basis.

(7) To accept securities for custody and to buy and sell securities on a commission basis for the associations or federations.

When deemed necessary, the Central Chest may require security in the case of the business mentioned under (1) to (4) above. It is further to be noted that the Central Chest may employ its surplus fund in the following manner only:

(a) To purchase national bonds, local government bonds, or securities designated by the competent Ministers.

(b) To deposit money with the Deposit Funds of the Ministry of Finance, banks designated by the competent Ministers, or the Post Office Savings Bank.

(c) To make short-term loans to commercial associations, federations of commercial associations, manufacturing associations, federations of manufacturing associations, small manufacturing associations, foreign trade associations, or

federations of foreign trade associations.

This institution is authorized to issue debentures to an amount not exceeding 10 times the paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the total amount of outstanding loans, discounted bills and holdings of securities. The institution is under the control of both the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Commerce and Industry. The president, directors (more than 3), and auditors (more than 2) are appointed by the competent Ministers. There are 20 counsellors, and more than one half of the number consist of members of commercial associations, manufacturing associations, and foreign trade associations.

People's Chest (Shomin Kinko)

The People's Chest, which makes it its object to grant low-interest credits to medium and smaller merchants and manufacturers, salaried men and laborers who had formerly not benefited from the established financial institutions, and thereby to stabilize the living conditions of these classes of the people, was created by the People's Chest Law promulgated on March 31, 1938. It should specially be noted that this People's Chest is a financial institution on a non-commercial basis. Its capital amounts to 10 million yen, consisting of Government bonds all contributed by the Government.

The principal business of the People's Chest is as follows:

- (1) To make small loans redeemable at a fixed time or by instalments.
- (2) To make accommodations to financial institutions as funds for small loans.
- (3) To make compensation payments for loss sustained in making small loans by financial institutions.
- (4) To receive money as deposits from those conducting the above transactions with the People's Chest.
- (5) To undertake business incidental to those mentioned above.

The People's Chest may employ its surplus fund in the following manner only:

- (a) To acquire national bonds, local government bonds, or securities designated by the competent Minister.
- (b) To deposit money with the Deposit Funds of the Ministry of Finance, banks, or the Post Office Savings

Bank.

The People's Chest is authorized to issue debentures to the amount not exceeding 10 times its paid-up capital. The Government guarantees the payment of the principal and interest of such debentures to the amount not exceeding 100 million yen of face-value, and makes grants for the business expenses of the Chest over a period of 10 years. The People's Chest is under the control of the Minister of Finance.

Pension Chest (Onkyu Kinko)

The transfer of the right to receive pension to other persons or giving that right as security is not only contrary to the principle of the pension system, but is prohibited by law. There were, however, a great number of pensioners who, driven by the necessity of finding a means of livelihood, were often offering the right as security in different ways. As it was impossible for them to be financed from the established financial institutions, they were constantly suffering from the burdens of extremely high-interest loans. In order to eradicate the evils arising from such circumstances, and to grant promptly low-interest credits, the Pension Chest Law was promulgated on March 31, 1938, whereby the Pension Chest was created. Its capital amounts to 30 million yen, of which 5 million yen has been contributed by the Government and the remainder by the Ministry of the Imperial Household, special organizations, and the general public.

The principal business of the Pension Chest is as follows:

- (1) To make loans on the security of pension under the Pension Law.
- (2) To make loans on the security of annuities granted for distinguished services.
- (3) To make loans on the security of pensions granted by other laws and ordinances than the Pension Law.
- (4) To receive pensions and annuities for the person in question, and to receive as deposits such pensions and annuities.
- (5) To undertake business incidental to those mentioned above.

The surplus fund of the Pension Chest is employed in the following manner only:

- (a) To acquire national bonds, local government bonds, or other securities

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designated by the competent Ministers.
(b) To deposit money with the Deposit Funds of the Ministry of Finance, Banks, or the Post Office Savings Bank.

The Pension Chest is authorized to issue debentures to the amount not exceeding 15 times the paid-up capital, but such debentures must not exceed the total amount of outstanding loans and holdings of securities. The Chest is under the control of the Prime Minister and the Minister of Finance.

The Big Seven

Among the non-governmental banks in the country there are seven which stand out from all the others in importance, these being the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Dai-Ichi, Sumitomo, Yasuda, Daihyaku (the One Hundredth Bank) and Sanwa, the last named having been created by the amalgamation of three banks, i.e. Kōnoiké, Yamaguchi and the 34th in December 1933:

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF THE BIG SEVEN

(In ¥1,000)

1. Dai-Ichi Bank

Kinds	1941	1941
	First	Second
	half	half
Paid-up capital	57,500	57,500
Deposits	2,342,051	2,504,287
Foreign bills	1,671	3,221
Total liabilities	2,564,119	2,744,355
Fixed assets	23,329	23,638
Loans	1,256,709	1,384,542
Total assets	2,564,119	2,744,355
Total profits	19,771	19,932
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

2. Mitsubishi Bank

Kinds	1941	1941
	First	Second
	half	half
Paid-up capital	100,000	100,000
Deposits	1,878,472	2,067,629
Foreign bills	2,851	2,775
Total liabilities	2,105,613	2,302,276
Fixed assets	21,318	21,395
Loans	922,601	1,042,974
Total assets	2,105,613	2,302,276
Total profits	16,770	17,531
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

3. Yasuda Bank

Kinds	1941	1941
	First	Second
	half	half
Paid-up capital	150,000	150,000
Deposits	2,628,269	2,880,648
Foreign bills	261	39,242
Total liabilities	2,937,173	3,204,263
Fixed assets	13,485	13,484
Loans	1,383,394	1,518,025
Total assets	2,937,173	3,204,263
Total profits	12,801	13,253
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

4. Mitsui Bank

Kinds	1941	1941
	First	Second
	half	half
Paid-up capital	100,000	100,000
Deposits	1,773,264	1,789,061
Foreign bills	26,543	35,101
Total liabilities	2,030,677	2,056,115
Fixed assets	15,497	13,135
Loans	1,016,202	1,099,561
Total assets	2,030,677	2,056,115
Total profits	20,011	20,492
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

5. Sumitomo Bank

Kinds	1941	1941
	First	Second
	half	half
Paid-up capital	70,000	70,000
Deposits	2,724,978	3,007,459
Foreign bills	5,027	2,178
Total liabilities	2,926,943	3,219,185
Fixed assets	15,696	15,426
Loans	1,635,855	1,784,268
Total assets	2,926,943	3,219,185
Total profits	16,504	17,746
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

6. Sanwa Bank

Kinds	1941	1941
	First	Second
	half	half
Paid-up capital	107,200	107,200
Deposits	2,792,399	3,204,712
Foreign bills	2,504	2,692
Total liabilities	3,034,254	3,464,323
Fixed assets	27,000	26,860
Loans	1,229,323	1,424,881
Total assets	3,034,254	3,464,323
Total profits	8,452	9,152
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

7. Dai-Hyaku Bank
(The One Hundredth Bank)

Kinds	1941	1941
	First half	Second half
Paid-up capital	38,988	38,988
Deposits	1,518,351	1,698,675
Foreign bills	3,805	2,147
Total liabilities	1,633,986	1,817,773
Fixed assets	18,492	18,315
Loans	708,467	804,196
Total assets	1,633,986	1,817,773
Total profits	4,360	5,000
Rate of dividend	8.0	8.0

Clearing Houses

The establishment of the first clearing

house in Japan took place in Osaka in 1879, preceding by eight years that in Tokyo, where one was established in 1887. Cash transactions marked the commercial society of this country early in the Meiji era and no transactions in bills or cheques were then conducted. Viscount Shibusawa and other business leaders encouraged paper transactions among businessmen at large and the time soon came when it was necessary for Tokyo to establish a clearing house, one being eventually brought into existence by the Bankers' Association in 1887. At the end of 1940, there were 53 clearing houses in Japan. The amount of clearings in Tokyo and Osaka and Japan proper were as follows:

BILLS CLEARED AT THE CLEARING-HOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(000's omitted)

Year	Tokyo		Osaka		(All Japan)	
	No. of Bills	Amount	No. of Bills	Amount	No. of Bills	Amount
1933	13,577	31,549,888	10,412	22,175,225	37,296	66,871,808
1934	14,253	25,338,571	9,547	24,438,933	37,739	64,376,620
1935	15,153	25,512,016	10,472	22,688,248	40,725	63,858,341
1936	15,887	27,400,087	11,090	24,979,292	42,961	69,862,561
1937	17,308	34,125,353	11,983	30,153,543	45,846	85,270,132
1938	18,326	37,387,153	12,058	28,535,903	47,105	86,091,458
1939	20,437	46,867,000	13,097	33,819,000	57,417	117,708,990
1940	20,688	57,029,598	12,671	43,284,338	51,516	132,077,148
1941	—	63,375,732	—	42,680,448	55,302	153,136,535

Postal Savings Deposits

The postal savings deposits system of Japan was adopted from the Post Office Savings Act of Great Britain. It was established by an Imperial Ordinance of August 1874, and was enforced in May of the following year at 22 post offices in the country. The history of this service in Japan is one of the oldest in the world, older than that of Germany or France and 36 years older than that of America. At first the annual interest rate was 3 per cent, the highest rate was 7.2 per cent during 1881-1884, but it is 2.76 per cent since April 1937. The maximum amount one could deposit was at first ¥500. In the first year of enforcement the amount totalled ¥51,224 for 1,843 depositors. In 1882 the Mail Act was passed and the deposit business became jointly controlled by the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. The service was looked after by 4,000 post offices in the country. In 1890 the Postal Savings Deposit Act was

issued. In 1920 the Exchange Deposit Bureau was established and was later replaced by the Deposits Bureau in the Ministry of Finance.

The number of accounts and amount of savings since 1933 are as follows:

March 31,	Number	Amount in yen
1933	39,838,438	2,772,004,751
1934	41,625,306	2,919,345,286
1935	43,908,510	3,062,750,943
1936	46,568,533	3,232,947,127
1937	49,564,766	3,485,835,081
1938	54,628,871	3,903,261,783
1939	74,654,584	4,760,150,164
1940	85,880,088	6,177,646,619
1941	96,244,782	7,927,909,852
1942	110,476,421	12,571,659,957

Note: Figures include Postal Transfer, which, for instance, amounted to ¥288,548,046 on March 31, 1942.

Currency System

Coinage The present coinage system is based on the Coinage Law issued in 1897, which established the gold mono-

metallic system. Its principal points are summarized as follows:

(1) The coinage unit is 2 fun (0.75 grams) of pure gold, that is, one-half of the former gold unit, and is to be denominated one yen.

(2) The standard gold coins are of three denominations, namely, five yen, ten yen and twenty yen; the former gold coins pass for double their nominal value.

(3) The subsidiary silver coins are of two denominations, namely, twenty sen and fifty sen; the former five-sen, ten-sen, twenty-sen and fifty-sen silver pieces are allowed to circulate.

(4) The other subsidiary coins are the nickel five-sen and ten-sen pieces and the bronze one-sen and five-rin pieces; the former five-sen nickel as well as two-sen, one-sen, five-rin and one-rin copper pieces are allowed to circulate.

(5) The fineness and weights of the coins are as follows:

A. Fineness

Gold coins:

pure gold 900 copper 100

Silver coins:

pure silver 720 copper 280

Nickel coins:

pure nickel

Bronze coins:

copper 950 tin 40 zinc 10

B. Weights

Gold coins:

Denominations

Weights

20-yen pieces

Grams

10-yen pieces

16.6666

5-yen pieces

8.3333

Subsidiary coins:

4.1666

50-sen silver

4.95

20-sen silver

1.98

10-sen nickel

4.00

5-sen nickel

2.80

1-sen bronze

3.75

5-rin bronze

2.10

Paper Notes of Small Denominations

In order to make good the deficiency of subsidiary silver coins caused by the World War, paper notes of small denominations, namely, fifty-sen, twenty-sen and ten-sen, were issued as a substitute in accordance with the Imperial Ordinance No. 202 promulgated on October 29, 1917. The issue of these petty notes went on increasing in volume till at the end of February 1922, it reached 218 million yen, the largest on record. After that time the volume gradually dwindle

dled in consequence of the minting of new subsidiary coins to displace the notes, the latter coming down, by the end of 1939, to ¥10,853,327 consisting of ¥5,264,129 of 50-sen notes, ¥1,087,954 of 20-sen notes, and ¥4,501,244 of 10-sen notes. At the end of 1939, there were also 50-sen notes of ¥237,912,778 issued under the Emergency Currency Law of 1938.

Emergency Currency Not only to effect economy, for the time being, in the use for monetary purposes of some metals as provided for in the Coinage Law, but to meet the increasing requirements for subsidiary coinage, emergency currency was issued in accordance with the provisions of the Emergency Currency Law promulgated in June 1938. It consists of subsidiary coins of 10-sen, 5-sen and 1-sen, and of paper notes of small denomination of 50-sen.

The fineness and weight of these subsidiary coins are specified by Imperial Ordinance No. 388 of 1938 as follows:

A. Fineness.

10-sen piece aluminium 50 copper 950
5-sen piece aluminium 50 copper 950
1-sen piece copper 900 zinc 100
1-sen piece aluminium

B. Weight.

10-sen piece	Grams
5-sen piece	4
1-sen piece	2.8
1-sen piece	3.75
1-sen piece	0.9

Note:—The copper 1-sen piece was displaced by the aluminium 1-sen piece under Imperial Ordinance No. 724 of November 1938.

Convertible Bank Notes In May 1884, there was promulgated the Convertible Bank-notes Law providing for the issue by the Bank of Japan of bank-notes which were to be converted into silver, but on the adoption of the gold standard in 1897 these notes became convertible into gold. Certain amendments were made in the law in 1932 and 1938. The principal points may be summarized as follows:

The Bank of Japan is required to hold as a conversion reserve against the issue of notes, gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of the notes issued; and the total value of silver coins and bullion must not exceed one-fourth of the entire conversion reserve. The Bank of Japan may, in addition to the notes specified in the preceding para-

graph, issue bank-notes to the amount of ¥2,200,000,000 against Government bonds, Treasury bills and other reliable securities or commercial bills. The Bank may also be allowed to issue notes against such securities beyond the maximum mentioned above. In case the issue in excess of this limit lasts more than 15 days the approval of the Minister of Finance is required, and such issues outstanding after a period of 15 days are subject to a tax of at least 3 per cent per annum of the amount so issued. The bank-notes are of 7 denominations, namely, one yen, 5 yen, 10 yen, 20 yen, 50 yen, 100 yen and 200 yen.

Currency System of Chosen and Taiwan The currency system of Chosen had fallen into such a state of disorder and confusion that the credit of legal tenders was entirely gone, and consequently commodity prices perpetually fluctuated. In 1905, at the time of the protectorate régime of Japan, the radical reform of the system was started. The Coinage Regulation was revised and new coins equal in quality and weight to those of Japan were minted. At the same time, the use of the old nickel coins was prohibited on and after December 31, 1909. After the annexation, with the object of unifying the coinage in Chosen with that of the Empire, the minting of coins under the Coinage Regulation was suspended and the circulation of Japanese coins was encouraged. As the old Korean coins in circulation diminished steadily, the Imperial Coinage Law was put in force in April 1918 in Chosen and the use of the old Korean coins as legal tender was permitted till the end of 1920 only, the Government undertaking to exchange during the five subsequent years. The use of "Yō-sen" (bronze pieces), however, was left free for the time being in consideration of the economic conditions of Chosen.

Bank-notes issued by the Bank of Chosen are convertible notes. Besides issuing, under the Charter of the Bank of Chosen, on the security of gold specie, gold and silver bullions and the Bank of Japan's convertible notes, the Bank is authorized to issue notes up to the limit of ¥160,000,000 on the security of the exchequer bills and other reliable bills or trade bills. Being the principal medium of exchange in Chosen the volume of issue has steadily expanded with the development of economic conditions in the Peninsula.

The Emergency Currency Law was put into operation in Chosen as from June 1, 1938.

By Law No. 38 promulgated in April 1897, the Bank of Taiwan was empowered to issue notes convertible into silver, but the frequent fluctuations in the value of silver yen have since not only impeded the smooth circulation of silver notes, but tended to foster a speculative spirit among the public. The repercussions of such developments had been so seriously felt in many directions that attention was directed in 1903 to the reform of the currency system, and an emergency measure, designed to relieve the situation, was taken by promulgating in June 1904 and enforcing in July of the same year, an Ordinance authorizing the Bank of Taiwan to issue notes convertible into gold against gold and silver coins and bullion. This Ordinance, however, was abrogated concurrently with the Law relating to the Bank of Taiwan being amended in 1906 so as to vest the Bank with lawful authority to issue notes convertible into gold. The issue of gold-notes markedly facilitated business operations as they were favorably received and their circulation was highly satisfactory. The Government thereafter encouraged a greater diffusion of gold-notes on the one hand, and adjusted silver coins and notes on the other. Thus, the silver-notes had been withdrawn from circulation by April 1909. It should specially be noted that the Coinage Law of the Empire was put into operation in April 1911 in Taiwan, with the result that the currency system of the island became uniform with that of Japan proper.

The abnormal economic condition resulting from the World War suggested the necessity of placing the specie under protection, and restriction was imposed in 1917 on the export of gold and silver coins and bullion by Ordinances No. 41 and 44. It was prohibited, at the same time, to collect, melt down, or demolish gold or silver coins for sale or use as bullion. As, however, economic conditions returned to normal, the Government issued in 1929 Ordinance No. 66, abrogating the Ordinances mentioned above and permitting the export of gold as from January 11, 1930. Gold shipments abroad have since continued on so large a scale that the Government, with a view to protecting the specie reserve, promulgated in 1931 Ordinances No. 67 and No. 71, prohibiting the ex-

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port of gold coins, gold bullion, gold manufactures and alloys of gold as from December 13, 1931. On December 17 of the same year, an Imperial Emergency Ordinance suspending the conversion of bank notes into gold was pro-

mulgated, whereby the conversion of the notes of the Bank of Taiwan into gold coin was prohibited. The Emergency Currency Law was put into effect in Taiwan as from June 1, 1938, by Imperial Ordinance No. 387 of 1938.

CIRCULATION OF PAPER NOTES AND BANK NOTES (In ¥1,000)

End of	Petty Government Notes	Bank of Japan Notes	Bank of Chosen Notes	Bank of Taiwan Notes	Total
1934	11,160	1,538,188	192,457	62,653	1,804,460
1935	11,040	1,607,870	220,777	70,190	1,909,878
1936	10,900	1,756,483	210,654	79,138	2,057,246
1937	10,965	2,080,555	279,502	112,033	2,483,055
1938	88,838	2,474,134	321,977	140,018	3,024,969
1939	248,766	3,393,693	443,986	171,169	4,257,614
1940 (May)	257,592	3,101,416	425,167	171,974	3,956,150
1941	464,974	5,978,816	741,607	252,845	7,384,173
1942 (June)	456,485	5,466,983	667,715	250,429	6,841,611

MONEY RATES (Per annum rate)

	1937 March	1938 March	1939 March	1940 March	1941 March	1942 March
Bank of Japan { Commercial Bills Re-discount	3.285	3.385	3.285	3.285	3.285	3.285
Gov't Bonds Collateral Discount Bills	3.650	3.285	3.650	3.650	3.650	3.650
Postal Savings Deposits (Japan Proper) { Ordinary	3.00	2.76	2.76	2.76	2.76	2.76
{ Fixed	3.24	3.04	3.04	3.04	3.04	3.04
Bank Deposits (Agreement Rates) { Class A Bank	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
{ Current	0.37	0.37	0.37	0.37	0.37	0.37
{ Savings	1.83	1.83	1.83	1.83	1.83	1.83
{ At Notice	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
{ Class B Bank	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.4
{ Current	0.73	0.73	0.73	0.73	0.73	0.73
{ Savings	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
{ At Notice	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56
Bankers' Call Loan (Agreement Rate)	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56	2.56

Tokyo Open Market

Month	Overnight Call Loan			Prime Name Spinner Bills		
	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
1936 March	3.83	2.56	2.88	4.38	3.29	3.83
1937 "	3.65	2.46	2.81	4.02	3.29	3.65
1938 "	2.56	2.19	2.48	4.02	3.29	3.65
1939 "	2.56	2.48	2.52	4.02	3.29	3.65
1940 "	2.56	2.46	2.51	4.02	3.29	3.65
1941 "	2.56	2.48	2.53	4.02	4.02	4.02
1942 "	2.56	2.56	2.56	4.02	4.02	4.02

BANK OF JAPAN RATE CHANGES

(Rates per diem and per annum)

Effective on	Effective Period for Each Rate (No. of Days)	Loans and Discounts with Government Bonds Collateral		Loans and Discounts with Nongov't Securities Collateral		Rediscounts of Commercial Bills		Overdrafts on Current Deposits & Correspondence	
		sen	%	sen	%	sen	%	sen	%
1925 Apr.	15	537	2.0 (7.30)	2.2 (8.03)		2.0 (7.30)		2.3 (8.40)	
1926 Oct.	4	155	1.8 (6.57)	2.0 (7.30)		1.8 (6.57)		2.1 (7.67)	
1927 Mar.	9	215	1.7 (6.21)	1.8 (6.57)		1.6 (5.84)		2.0 (7.30)	
	Oct.	10	1,093	1.6 (5.84)	1.7 (6.21)	1.5 (5.48)		1.9 (6.44)	
1930 Oct.	7	364	1.5 (5.48)	1.6 (5.84)		1.4 (5.11)		1.8 (6.57)	
1931 Oct.	6	30	1.7 (6.21)	1.8 (6.57)		1.6 (5.48)		2.0 (7.30)	
	Nov.	5	128	1.9 (6.94)	2.0 (7.30)	1.8 (6.57)		2.2 (8.03)	
1932 Mar.	12	128	1.7 (6.21)	1.8 (6.57)		1.6 (5.84)		2.0 (7.30)	
	June	8	88	1.5 (5.48)	1.6 (5.84)	1.4 (5.11)		1.8 (6.57)	
	Aug.	18	309	1.3 (4.75)	1.4 (5.11)	1.2 (4.38)		1.6 (5.84)	
1933 July	3	1,009	1.1 (4.02)	1.2 (4.38)		1.0 (3.65)		1.4 (5.11)	
1936 Apr.	7	464	1.0 (3.65)	1.1 (4.02)		0.9 (3.29)		1.3 (4.75)	
1937 July	15	68	0.9 (3.29)	1.1 (4.02)		0.9 (3.29)		1.2 (4.38)	
1938 Dec.	15	—	0.9 (3.29)	1.0 (3.65)		0.9 (3.29)		1.1 (4.02)	

Deposit Funds Management Bureau of the Ministry of Finance

(Commonly called "Deposits Bureau")

Organization of the Deposit Funds Management Bureau Although the Deposit Funds have been in existence since 1877, it was only after many changes that the present system was established in 1925. The chief of the Deposit Funds Management Bureau is under the control and supervision of the Minister of Finance and he is responsible for its activities and efficiency. Its finances are segregated in a Special Account and the Bureau is given control over the expenditure of its entire revenue. The chief business of the Bureau is not merely confined to the control of deposits, but also includes the investment and management of other funds. The deposits, which are made according to laws and ordinances, consist, for the most part, of postal savings deposits received by the Government; but the Deposit Funds also include other deposits, reserves in the Special Account of the Deposit Funds and surpluses. It may specially be noted that the total of the Deposit Funds reached 10,018 million yen on November 8, 1940, this representing some 2/3 of the total deposits in ordinary banks throughout the country. All business connected with receipt and payment of cash is transacted on behalf of the Bureau by the Bank of

Japan in accordance with instructions from the Minister of Finance.

Investment of the Deposit Funds It is laid down by law that the Deposit Funds are to be invested solely for the benefit of the State and the public in profitable and safe manner, and that such investments are to be made only after investigation of their purposes and methods in consultation with the Committee on Investments of the Deposit Funds. The following is an explanation of the nature of the Committee and the methods it employs.

Committee on Investments of the Deposit Funds This Committee consists of the following members: The Minister of Finance, as a chairman, the Parliamentary Vice-Minister of Finance, high officials of the Government Offices concerned, one of the Chief Auditors of the Auditing Board, the Governor of the Bank of Japan and other eminent persons in financial circles. The number of full members is not to exceed fifteen; but in order to meet special needs, temporary members may be appointed. The Committee is placed under the supervision of the Minister of Finance, and its function is to answer the questions of the Minister, after both investigation and study of matters relating to the investment of the Deposit Funds has been completed. At the beginning of every fiscal year, the Minister of Finance

is to draw up the necessary plan to govern the investment of the funds to submit it to this Committee, and the same process is to be undertaken should there be any occasion to supplement or to change this plan. In addition to answering the question of the Minister of Finance the Committee may send him proposals concerning the investment of the Deposit Funds. The Minister should present to the Committee, after every fiscal year, a report stating particulars of important matters concerning conditions of investment of the Deposit Funds and changes in the funds invested.

Method of Investment As mentioned above, the Deposit Funds are to be invested for the benefit of the State and the public welfare in a profitable and safe manner. Consequently, in conformity with this principle, the investment of funds is to be limited to the following items:

- (a) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of national loans or making of loans to the General or Special Accounts of the Government.
 - (b) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of local loans, irrigation associations' loans, or health insurance associations' loans, or making of loans to local public corporations, irrigation associations or health insurance associations.
 - (c) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of bonds issued by corporations organized under special laws or making of loans redeemable within a period not exceeding three years to these corporations.
 - (d) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of bonds issued by corporations other than those mentioned in (c) under Government guarantee in respect of the payment of their principal and interest.
 - (e) Loans to banks organized under special laws but not authorized to issue debentures.
 - (f) The subscription to and purchasing of foreign Government bonds.
 - (g) The subscription to or purchasing of bonds issued in Japanese currency by foreign corporations under the said of the payment of their principal and interest, as subscribed in Japan.
 - (h) Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held abroad for designated purposes.
- These items only indicate the method

of the investment of the funds and the question whether any particular investment is for the promotion of the benefit of the State or public welfare or whether it is profitable and safe is left to the joint consideration and decision of the Minister of Finance and this Committee. The investment of the Deposit Funds is determined, within the limits mentioned above, at the beginning of every fiscal year.

Local funds representing the funds to be invested for the benefit of local districts to local public corporations, various associations and individuals are advanced from the Deposit Funds Management Bureau to the borrowers either directly or through special banks and similar institutions. These funds are allotted for the following purposes—

A. Advances to be generally made every year for:

- (a) Public utility undertakings of public corporations such as water supply works, prevention of disasters, sanitary arrangements, improvement of roads, rivers and harbors, road making and construction of bridges, reclamation works, construction of school-houses and teachers' dwelling-houses, electric and gas enterprises, and tramway, local railway and car enterprises, and others.
- (b) Social works such as housing reform and the establishment of public markets, public pawnshops, day nurseries and intelligence offices and others.
- (c) Enterprises by various associations such as land adjustment associations, industrial associations, forestry associations, fishery associations, livestock breeding associations, manufacturers' associations and commercial associations and those by federations of these associations.

B. Advances to be made for urgent needs:

Repair works of disasters, reconstruction works necessitated by earthquakes, accommodation to the silk-raising industry, the relief of the unemployed, and accommodation to middle and lower class merchants, manufacturers and farmers.

C. Advances to be made for:

Such institutions as public corporations and various associations in overseas territories.

With regard to the rate of interest paid on the deposit it is to be noted that the rate was reduced as from April 1, 1937 to 2.76% per annum for the

greater part of postal savings. The postal savings amount to some 69% of the total amount of the Deposit Funds, and details are given in the Statement of the Deposit Funds. Other deposits are divided into two classes, namely, fixed deposits and ordinary deposits. The rate of interest on fixed deposits is in principle 2.5% per annum, but the rate on deposits of such character that the depositing of cash is confined by laws and ordinances to the Deposit Funds Management Bureau is 3%. The rate on post office life annuities and insurance is 3.5%. The rate on ordinary deposits is in principle 0.75% per annum, while that on deposits of such character that the depositing of cash is confined by laws and ordinances to the Deposit Funds Management Bureau is 1%. The rates on fixed deposits have been effective since July 1, 1936 and those on ordinary deposits since April 1 of the same year. Turning to the rates for the advances made by the Deposit Fund Management Bureau, it will be found that those for the advances to prefectures, large cities, and local corporations remain, for the most part, at 3.2% per annum. As to the advances made through banks and similar institutions, the intermediate institutions gain 0.7%

and actual borrowers must pay at the rate of 3.9%.

Plans approved in 1940 Plans for the investments of funds to the amount of ¥2,553,060,000 were made in the fiscal year 1940, and are roughly classified into the following three principal items:—

(In yen)

(a) Funds for taking up loans to be issued in 1940, and for purchases of loan bonds	1,800,000,000
(b) Local funds	274,910,000
(c) Funds for the expansion of productive capacity and other funds	478,150,000

In the examination of the above statement, it will be observed that the funds for taking up Government bonds occupy the greater part of the investments. A large investment is also made as local funds in the quarters necessary under the present situation. It is planned to supply, in response to the condition on the money market, especially on the issue market, funds required for the achievement of the expansion of productive capacity throughout Japan, Manchoukuo and China. Besides these items, considerable short-term loans are to be made this year as usual.

STATEMENT OF THE DEPOSIT FUNDS OF THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

(At the end of March)

(In ¥1,000)

Liabilities				
	1939	1940	1941	1942
Deposits of the Post Office Savings Bank	4,620,825	6,004,136	7,726,221	9,697,992
Deposits of the Postal Transfer System	161,225	190,892	251,294	328,609
Proceeds of Savings Certificates and Reconstruction Savings Certificates	172,671	327,854	693,082	1,052,580
Surplus funds of various Special Accounts of the Government	547,574	932,286	1,499,454	1,603,036
Certain funds and deposits from public corporations	46,368	46,233	46,249	24,343
Funds in custody and deposits with the Government	43,350	49,975	32,902	49,385
Reserves	693,748	760,788	857,330	1,015,133
Receipts	265,054	341,303	418,306	485,707
Total	6,550,820	8,653,472	11,545,063	14,256,789
Assets				
	1939	1940	1941	1942
Government bonds	3,686,492	5,437,416	7,411,933	9,743,449
Advances to the General & Special Accounts	89,784	88,660	110,766	103,858
Foreign Government bonds	85,243	95,108	129,706	169,032
Local government and municipal bonds	1,074,349	1,125,922	1,199,429	1,258,618
Advances to local public corporations, etc.	307,851	328,903	338,332	403,541
Debentures of Special Banks, etc.	649,113	664,971	843,072	918,412
Debentures of Special Companies, etc.	122,030	220,751	577,697	974,127

DEPOSITS BUREAU

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	1939	1940	1941	1942
Advances to Special Banks and Companies, etc.				
Deposits	266,791	461,013	352,436	240,938
Expenditures	110,212	63,956	342,788	153,795
Amount written off	139,810	166,743	214,626	290,700
Total	19,135	27	4,272	313
	6,550,820	8,653,472	11,545,063	14,256,789

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT OF THE DEPOSIT FUNDS OF THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

Receipts

(In yen)

	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Interest on securities	172,844,865	192,806,695	230,897,399
Interest on advances	22,687,425	22,243,753	22,200,891
Interest on deposits	463,701	465,834	464,082
Transferred from General Account	1,122,000	1,050,000	1,464,011
Profits from the disposal of the specie held abroad	6,968,283	8,623,620	8,409,138
Profits from the sale and redemption of securities and other profits	3,208,401	2,505,745	3,689,308
Total	207,294,675	227,695,647	267,124,829

Payments

	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Interest on deposits and commissions	116,389,118	118,475,046	143,187,295
Amount transferred to other Government Accounts	18,730,000	21,957,322	25,980,000
Administrative expenses and others	1,018,294	1,084,544	1,163,044
Depreciation	503,077	19,139,303	27,171
Transfers to reserves	70,654,186	67,039,432	96,762,319
Total	207,294,675	227,695,647	267,124,829

JAPAN'S ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS IN 1941-42

1. Introduction

It was solely due to the interference of hostile countries, namely Britain and the United States that the China Affair, which was in progress for more than four years and six months, could not be settled. The Anglo-American maneuverings had become increasingly evident since 1940. They had organized an anti-Japanese common encirclement front and had thus invalidated all the peace efforts of Japan, thus threatening the peace and order in East Asia.

Under the circumstances, there was only one way left for Japan, and that was to decide the issue on the battlefield. Thus, an Imperial rescript declaring war on Britain and the United States was promulgated on December 8, 1941, and the curtain was raised for the War of Greater East Asia. On the other hand, Germany and Italy, Japan's allies, which had been fighting against Britain and the Soviet Union in Europe, took

the occasion of Japan's declaration of war to enter into stronger alliance with Japan in order to form a common front with Japan for the construction of the new world order. It can be said that this has added a great significance to the present war as the second world war. It may be recalled that Japan's diplomatic policy in 1941 started on the basis of two leading principles, namely, the stabilization of the East Asia co-prosperity sphere through the settlement of the China Affair on the one hand, and the adjustment of diplomatic relations with Britain and the United States on the basis of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance on the other. Efforts for the first objective culminated in the strengthening of the foundation of the National Government at Nanking and the conclusion of the Japan-French Indo-China Economic Agreement and Joint-Defense Agreement as well as the conclusion of the Offensive and Defensive Alliance with Thailand. Negotia-

tions with the Netherlands East Indies, however, proved abortive despite great efforts on Japan's part because of the secret Anglo-American maneuverings.

In connection with the second goal, Japan concluded a Neutrality Treaty and a Trade Agreement with the Soviet Union, but diplomatic negotiations with the United States proved fruitless, resulting in the outbreak of the present Greater East Asia War. It is needless to say that Japan's economy was greatly affected by such a strained international situation. Particularly, since the outbreak of the German-Soviet War in the latter part of June, 1941, Japan's economic relations with Germany, Italy and other countries in Europe by the trans-Siberian Railway were suddenly suspended. In addition, Britain, the United States, their dominions and colonies, and the Netherlands East Indies froze Japanese assets in the latter part of July. Under the circumstances, Japan's trade with third countries, except Thailand, French Indo-China and a few South American countries, was practically suspended. Thus, the stabilization of the East Asia Co-prosperity and Self-sufficiency structure and the completion of planned trade within that sphere have become the two urgent problems at issue demanding immediate solution by Japan. Japan, already foreseeing such developments several years ago, has endeavored to complete and strengthen the domestic economic system not merely into a wartime structure but also into a solid and compact structure of a defense State. To that end, various laws and regulations were promulgated and enforced. No less than 51 Imperial Ordinances were promulgated under the provisions of the National General Mobilization Law (including 10 enforced in 1941) since the enactment of the foregoing law until the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War on December 8, 1941. The Government also examined and approved the drafts of eight Imperial Ordinances at meetings of the National General Mobilization Council held on December 10 and 23 following the start of the Greater East Asia War. In this way, Japan's total war system was nearly completely extended over all the spheres of the national life and national economy.

In the course of the advance and completion of Japan's domestic structure during 1941, four noteworthy points de-

serve special mention. The first was the organization and control of national economy. The Major Industrial Bodies Control Ordinance, which serves as the keynote of the national economic organization and control, was promulgated on August 30, 1941, effective as from September 1, as an embodiment of the essentials for the establishment of an economic new structure which had been prepared by the Government. Ever since the enforcement of that law, there has been noted an active sentiment for the creation of control bodies in various fields of industry. Already, control associations have been established for iron and steel, coal, mining, cement and machinery. In view of the fact that the realization of a complete unity of the Government and people is the fundamental condition for the smooth and swift management of wartime economy, the speedy renovation of the bureaucratic structure and administrative system in order to properly cope with future developments is considered extremely important and necessary. The second was the production and distribution of materials and commodities. (a) Parallel with the progress of industrial reorganization, production increase and industrial control through the utilization of idle and inactive industrial facilities became the two urgent problems. In order to cope with the situation, the Government drafted the Industrial Equipment Corporation Bill, which was approved at the 79th Extraordinary Session of the Diet in November, 1941, and was immediately enforced. The Industrial Licensing Ordinance aiming at exercising comprehensive control over all phases of industry also was recently enacted for the same purpose. (b) In connection with the control of major materials, the Export-Import Temporary Treatment Law was already in operation. However, a stronger State control in order to consummate the materials mobilization plan under the wartime situation became increasingly necessary. Naturally, a special control ordinance of living necessities was promulgated in March, 1941, while the State control of rice was strengthened and expanded in September. At the same time, the General Materials Control Ordinance providing for comprehensive control over production, repair, storage, use and consumption of all the important materials and commodities was finally promulgated and operated. (c) While the distribution

system of materials and commodities became extremely complete, the distribution of commodities, specially foodstuffs, was not smooth and satisfactory. In order to cope with the situation, the Government apparently was considering the adoption of an extensive ticket rationing system. (d) Regarding the transportation of materials, control over both land and sea transportation was strengthened for the purpose of coping with the war-time requirements. Particularly, shipping was placed under almost exclusive State control.

In the third place, the State mobilization of labor made a marked progress. The stabilization of a supply source of necessary labor, proper adjustment of the supply and demand of labor and promotion of the productivity of labor are the basic essentials of labor measures. For the purpose of attaining those objectives, the Government took steps to complete unemployment measures through the establishment of the National Vocational Guidance Station, National Labor Training Station and National Welfare Bank, to expand the scope of labor requisitioning by the revision of the National Requisitioning Ordinance and Vocational Declaration Ordinance and to stabilize the labor mobilization system through the expansion of the labor registration system and the enforcement of the National Patriotic Labor Cooperation Ordinance. More recently (effective January 10, 1942), the Government promulgated the Labor Adjustment Ordinance for the dual purpose of checking the movement of labor and preventing the outflow of labor to non-urgent industries. However, it is strongly felt that there are still many concrete measures to be positively undertaken for promoting the productivity of labor, the most important phase of the labor policy today.

The control over industrial funds comes in the fourth place. The stabilization of a structure for mobilizing wartime industrial funds should be based on "the planning-out of the accumulation and distribution of State funds and thereby enable the industrial funds to display their efficiency to the maximum extent." In this connection, it can be noted that the fundamental financial and monetary plan which was announced by the Government in July, 1941, clarified this problem. The expansion of the functions of the Industrial Bank of Japan, the establishment of a joint

financing syndicate with the Industrial Bank of Japan as the pivot, etc. were measures provided for the sole purpose of stabilizing the supply of wartime industrial funds. Although the Government apparently has completed every measure for coping with emergency financial and monetary problems, the Japanese people were urged to redouble their efforts in order to strengthen savings, the principal source of industrial funds, in view of the increasing demand for industrial materials for productivity expansion parallel with the progress of the war.

A close scrutiny into the economic events in Japan during 1941 reveals that the demand for industrial funds by the State has greatly expanded due to the intensified strains on international relations, and resultantly, the economic burden of the people has become increasingly heavier. On the other hand, it could also be noted that the economic strength of Japan to cope with the increasing demand of the State made a steady and remarkable progress despite the intensified economic pressure of Britain and the United States.

In connection with the financial trend of the country, which is the barometer of the State's demand for industrial funds, the national expenditure in the 1941 budget, inclusive of supplementary expenditures approved at the two extraordinary Diet sessions, totalled ¥8,515,000,000 in the general account and ¥11,480,000,000 in the extraordinary military expenses. The estimated amount of Government bond issues during 1941 aggregated ¥13,945,000,000. With the sound consumption of such a gigantic amount of Government bonds depending solely on the increase of national savings, the Government expanded the goal of national savings for 1941-42 from ¥13,500,000,000 to ¥17,000,000,000. It should be noted, at this point, that the 1941-42 goal of national savings did not take into account the flotation of ¥2,800,000,000 Government bonds which was approved at the 78th session of the Diet.

The accumulation of funds so far has produced very satisfactory results. With the morale of the people further promoted by the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, it is considered possible that the final goal of the 1941-42 national savings will be achieved without difficulty.

The money market at the close of last year, although busy and brisk, passed the year-end in a normal and peaceful tone due principally to the distribution of a large amount of funds by the National Treasury. The excess of the Government payments during December 1941, exclusive of the rice and raw-silk notes, aggregated ¥1,424,000,000 (compared with ¥1,010,000,000 in the corresponding month in 1940), while the call-rate overnight low, stood at 6.4 rin toward the beginning of December. With the average overnight call-rate, low, in December standing at 6.8 rin, the supply-demand for call-money during December was kept in harmonious balance. The excess of Government payments during the whole year of 1941 amounted to

¥4,580,000,000, representing an increase of ¥1,060,000,000 as compared with 1940. Due to such a bulky distribution of funds from the National Treasury, the sale of Government bonds, underwritten by the Bank of Japan, newly issued during December, amounting to ¥1,600,000,000, proved favorable. The consumption of Government bonds in the fourth quarter in 1941 totalled ¥1,952,000,000 against the total issue of ¥3,100,000,000 with the consumption rate standing at 62.9 per cent, a great improvement over the consumption rate of 51.7 per cent in the corresponding quarter in 1940. The consumption of Government bonds in 1941 is compared with that in 1940 in the following table:

CONSUMPTION OF GOVERNMENT BONDS

1941 compared with 1940

(In millions of yen)

	1941			1940		
	Total	1st half	2nd half	Total	1st half	2nd half
Through post-office windows	590	225	365	570	216	356
By city banks	4,800	2,386	2,414	2,750	1,434	1,316
Sales to public total	5,390	2,611	2,779	3,320	1,650	1,670
Underwritten by Deposits Bureau	1,690	790	900	1,850	900	950
Sales to Government quarters	285	81	204	69	126	*57
Total consumption	7,366	3,483	3,883	5,240	2,676	2,564
Total issue	8,782	3,582	5,200	6,667	2,765	2,765
Consumption rate	83.8%	97.2%	74.7%	78.6%	96.8%	65.7%

Note: The mark "*" denotes redemption.

The note issue by the Bank of Japan at the close of last year reached the peak at ¥6,231,000,000 while the daily average issue during December, 1941 amounted to ¥5,179,000,000. The daily average issue in the whole year of 1941 stood at ¥4,176,000,000, representing an increase of ¥840,000,000 over the daily average issue of 1940. The 1941 increase of the note issue over 1940, while being comparatively smaller than the 1940 increase of ¥960,000,000 over 1939, showed a remarkable expansion of the note circulation in view of the fact that the large part of the convertible notes which had been hitherto reserved for the payments of the Bank of Chosen and the Bank of Taiwan was replaced by the deposits of those two banks in the Bank of Japan due to the revision of the note-issuing system of the two colonial banks.

Unlike ordinary years, advances by the Bank of Japan during December, 1941, continued increasing until the end of the

year and reached ¥903,000,000 at the year-end, gaining by nearly ¥48,000,000 during the last ten days of the month alone. However, due to the progress of consumption of bonds and rice-notes, the convertible note issue on the last day of the year, as usual, shrank by ¥250,000,000.

Because of the increase of the distribution of Government funds, the deposits and advances of local banks became markedly visible. A survey by the Ministry of Finance disclosed that the net increase of deposits of banks throughout Japan, exclusive of the Bank of Japan, totalled ¥2,756,000,000 in December, 1941, and aggregated ¥6,610,000,000 in the whole year of 1941, representing a noteworthy gain over ¥2,280,000,000 and ¥6,098,000,000, respectively, in 1940. The 1941 increase of bank deposits included ¥2,440,000,000 or 37.0 per cent of the total in fixed deposits, ¥1,160,000,000 or 17.7 per cent in special current

deposits, ¥970,000,000 or 14.7 per cent in current deposits and ¥580,000,000 or 8.8 per cent in deposits at call. The increase of bank loans in December, 1941 and during the whole year of 1941 stood at ¥1,050,000,000 and ¥2,614,000,000, respectively, the former gaining by ¥162,000,000 and the latter receding by ¥718,000,000 compared with the corresponding figures in 1940. The ministerial

survey also revealed that the amount of valuable securities owned by banks in Japan increased by ¥4,827,000,000 in 1941 compared with ¥2,639,000,000 in 1940. Of the total increase of valuable securities owned by banks during 1941, the advance of the Government bonds possessed accounted for ¥3,261,000,000 or 67.6 per cent, the Ministry of Finance reported. Relative figures follow:

ACCOUNTS OF BANKS IN JAPAN

(In millions of yen)

Items	At end of 1939	At end of 1940	Increase of 1940 over 1939	At end of 1941	Increase of 1941 over 1940
Deposits	25,092	31,190	6,098	37,801	6,611
Loans	15,038	18,371	3,333	20,985	2,614
Excess of deposits over loans	10,054	12,819		16,816	
Valuable Securities	12,309	14,948	2,639	19,775	4,827
Call Loans	568	724	155	665	*59
Cash on hand	2,520	2,777	257	2,537	*240

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease. Japan accounts.

Figures not including the Bank of

2. Money and Banking

(1) Progress of Monetary Control:

The meeting of huge national expenditures and the smooth supply of industrial funds to defense industries are the two pivotal themes of wartime monetary activities. The former may be achieved by means of the encouragement of savings for the consumption of Government bonds as well as the planning-out of Government payments, while the latter may be obtained through the increase of the supply-sources of industrial funds and the proper control over the distribution of funds. It is noteworthy that the monetary control during 1941 made a remarkable progress toward those cardinal goals.

For the consumption of Government bonds and the encouragement of savings for that purpose, the National Savings Associations Law was approved at the 76th session of the Diet in addition to the extensive savings encouragement campaigns which were carried out at schools, Government offices, cities, towns, villages, etc. with the Savings Encouragement Bureau at the helm. At that Diet session were also approved the revision of the Postal Savings Law elevating the maximum limit of the postal savings and the revision bill of the Mutual Credit Business Law opening new ways for the

utilization of idle funds. The 1941 goal of the national savings was revised to ¥17,000,000,000, by adding the Government bond issues which were approved at the 77th Extraordinary Session of the Diet, from the original goal of ¥13,500,000,000.

The planning-out of the Government payments had been strongly urged long before in view of the great influence which the distribution of Government funds exercised on the monetary market. Under the circumstances, the Ministry of Finance established a Council for the Adjustment of Government Funds in March, 1941, for the purpose of adequately adjusting and controlling the acceptance and payment of Government funds and smoothing market operations. The Ministry of Finance also decided to fix the terms for the redemption of Government rice notes, issued as after November, 1941, after taking into full consideration the actual conditions of the money market in view of the increasing importance of the rice notes in the monetary policy parallel with the expansion of the State control over the sale of rice. (The Government rice notes had been regularly redeemed on the first day of April, August and December before.) While the increase of savings is admittedly the fundamental source for the supply of funds in war-

time industries, several secondary measures were adopted by the Government during 1941 to serve this end. They included the elevation of the issue limit of the Industrial Debentures and the Savings Debentures (¥2,000,000,000 for the former and ¥1,000,000,000 for the latter) through the revision of the Extraordinary Industrial Funds Adjustment Law and the partial reduction of discount rates of the Bank of Japan, effective July 21, 1941. The underwriting system by the Industrial Bank of Japan for munitions bills, effective since August 26, 1941, may also be included among Government measures in the sense that it served to effectively utilize short-term funds.

Regarding the control over distribution of funds, the Government in preceding years had placed its stress on the restrictions on the demand for industrial funds among non-urgent industries. During 1941, however, the emphasis was placed on the positive accommodation of industrial funds to principal wartime industries. Important Government measures taken for the purpose included the elevation of the limit of accommodations against immovables through the revision of the Japan Hypothec Bank Law, the Agricultural and Industrial Banks Law and the Hokkaido Colonization Bank Law approved at the 76th Session of the Diet and the proposed establishment of the Industrial Equipment Corporation aiming at constructing and maintaining wartime industrial equipments and utilizing idle and non-working industrial facilities. A bill calling for the creation of the Industrial Equipment Corporation was approved at the 77th Extraordinary Session of the Diet. Noteworthy also were the activities of the Wartime Joint Bankers' Syndicate organized in August, 1941, by 10 banks in the city including the Industrial Bank of Japan and additionally participated in by 5 leading trust companies in November. The amount of industrial funds accommodated through this syndicate totalled ¥365,000,000 by December, 1941.

There is no doubt, however, that the fundamental financial and monetary plan which was announced by the Government on July 11, was the most important monetary control measure adopted by the Government during 1941 for the reason that it established the highest indicator for the guidance of monetary activities. This plan, which formed an

integral part of the economic new structure plan which the Government decided on and announced in the fall of 1940, called for the estimation of the national strength and resources through the comprehensive survey of the total productivity of national economy. On the basis of such estimations, the plan called for the establishment of a scheme for mobilization of national industrial funds which might be adequately and rationally distributed to finance, industry and public consumption in accordance with the final objectives of the country through well-worked-out plans for the flotation and consumption of Government bonds.

The plan also provided for extensive phases of monetary problems such as the fiscal year, the method of compiling the budget, the reform of the taxation system, the systematization of monetary organs, etc. Thus, the plan has opened for the first time the way for a well-planned monetary control. The question which now remains is how to put the plan into a concrete shape. In this connection, the 1941 industrial funds control plan which was approved and announced by the Cabinet conference on September 16, 1941, was greatly noteworthy as taking a step nearer to a general and concrete plan for the mobilization of national funds. The control plan announced by the Cabinet provided for:

(a) Adopting a policy for accommodating industrial funds both in Japan and Manchoukuo with accumulated funds with the pivot of the Government bond flotation plan placed on a perfect consumption basis.

(b) Generally harmonizing the distribution of industrial funds with the national budget, the materials mobilization plan, the productivity expansion plan, etc. taken into full consideration.

In order to cope with a new situation arising from the creation of various industrial control associations, the Government also decided upon a concrete policy of a monetary control body as a legal organ. For this purpose, the systematization of monetary organs with the Bank of Japan as the pivot has taken a concrete step toward realization in accordance with the provisions of the Fundamental Financial and Monetary Plan of the Government. In this connection, the Minister of Finance clarified the Government's policy to submit to the 77th session of the Diet a funda-

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mental revision bill of the Bank of Japan Law.

Immediately upon the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia on December 8, the Ministry of Finance decided upon a wartime monetary plan and announced four emergency measures, including the accommodation of funds for the payment of deposits, disposition of liabilities of war sufferers, monetary protection to wartime industries and simplified payment of deposits. For the operation of those measures, the Government urged the close and whole-hearted co-operation of financiers.

On January 19, 1942, the National General Mobilization Council decided upon the drafts of two Imperial ordinances which would serve as the basis for the monetary control operations, namely, an Imperial Ordinance pertaining to the monetary activities.

The activities of the proposed monetary control organ included:

1. Participation in the Government's fund plan.
2. Control and guidance of the absorption and operation of industrial funds.
3. Acceleration of the adjustment of monetary enterprises.
4. Promotion of the functions of monetary enterprises.
5. Promotion of relations between monetary organs and industries.
6. Monetary surveys and researches.

With the adjustment of the monetary structure thus taking a step forward, the Government decided on the fundamental reform of the Bank of Japan, a long-pending problem, and submitted the Bank of Japan Bill to the 79th session of the Diet.

According to the details of the reform plan announced on January 7, 1942, the Bank of Japan, in addition to its present functions, would be authorized to execute industrial financing as well as international monetary transactions. Moreover, the plan called for the desertion of the gold standard by the Bank of Japan and the stabilization of the note issuing system on the basis of the controlled currency system. In a nutshell, the plan enabled the Bank of Japan to serve as the pivot of the new national monetary structure and invested the national bank with powers to act as the monetary center of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere.

The Wartime Financing Bank Bill and the Southern Regions Development Bank Bill were the two other important mone-

tary bills which were submitted to and approved by the 79th Session of the Diet. The former bill provided for the creation of the ¥300,000,000 Wartime Financing Bank (financed by the Government to the extent of ¥200,000,000 and by private circles to the amount of ¥100,000,000). The foregoing bank is tasked with accommodation of funds to industrial companies engaged in urgent wartime industries which own idle or non-working facilities, keeping important materials and commodities in storage or adjust their enterprises in accordance with the Government policy, and also engages in activities to stabilize market prices of industrial shares through the purchase or sale of valuable securities. Thus, the proposed bank attends to the supply of industrial funds which was made by the Industrial Bank of Japan by a Government accommodation order as well as to the stabilization of market prices of valuable securities which were hitherto executed by the Japan Joint Securities Company. Naturally, the Japan Joint Securities Company is to be absorbed by the new bank upon its creation.

The Southern Regions Development Bank Bill provided for the establishment of the ¥100,000,000 Southern Regions Development Bank for the purpose of furnishing necessary funds for developing and utilizing natural resources in the southern regions as well as adjusting and manipulating the currencies in the southern areas. To attain those objectives, the bank engages in accepting deposits, exchanging currencies, transacting purchases and sales of exchanges and such general banking businesses as well as in investments and accommodations. By thus playing a part of the central bank, commercial bank and the supply organ of development funds, the bank will serve as the central executive organ of the currency and monetary policy of Japan in the occupied areas in the south. A noteworthy feature of the bank is that it is authorized to obtain loans from the extraordinary military accounts.

(2) Distribution of Government Funds and Currency

The excess of Government payments (exclusive of payments for Government rice notes) was extremely small in the first three months of 1941. The month of February even saw the excess of Government collection of funds to the

amount of ¥95,000,000. However, the excess of Government payments sharply increased in and after April, and totalled ¥1,862,000,000 in the first half of 1941, representing an increase of ¥632,000,000 compared with the corresponding half in 1940.

The excess of Government payments sharply dwindled in the second half of 1941, principally due to the increase of the collection of taxes, but still eclipsed the 1940 mark, having totalled ¥1,009,000,000 in the four months from July to October or an increase of ¥304,000,000 over 1940.

The total excess of Government payments in 1941 aggregated ¥4,580,000,000, representing a gain by ¥1,060,000,000 compared with 1940.

Because of the sharp increase of Government payments, loans extended by the Bank of Japan recorded a decline in 1941

compared with 1940, the average daily amount of loans having amounted to ¥540,300,000 or a decrease of ¥121,900,000 compared with the preceding year.

Due to the distribution of an enormous amount of Government funds in 1941, the convertible note issue by the Bank of Japan continued to expand throughout the year, topping the ¥4,700,000,000 mark in October and thus necessitating the excess issue to the extent of ¥42,000,000 within only seven months since the revision of the Bank of Japan Note Issue System.

The note issue particularly increased following the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia on December 8, and reached the peak of ¥6,231,000,000 at the year-end. The daily average issue in 1941 amounted to ¥4,176,000,000, eclipsing the corresponding figures in 1940 by ¥840,000,000. Details follow:

DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT FUNDS AND BANK OF JAPAN ACCOUNTS

(In millions of yen)

	1937	1938	1939	1940		1941	
				1st Half	2nd Half	1st Half	2nd Half
Excess of Govt. Payments (1)	1,182	2,034	2,905	1,230	2,082	1,862	1,009(3)
Average Daily Loans by Bank of Japan	622	486	473	617	707	532	558(2)
Average Note Issue by Bank of Japan	1,535	1,919	2,376	3,152	3,518	3,899	4,300(2)

(1) Not including accounts of bonds and short-term govt. securities.

(2) Average for the second half ending in November.

(3) For the second half ending in October.

In addition to the Bank of Japan notes, the issues of the Bank of Chosen notes and the Bank of Taiwan notes also increased by 23.8 per cent and 20.6 per cent, respectively, in the year ending November, 1941, compared with the corresponding figures in the preceding year. The auxiliary note issues by the Bank of Japan also jumped by ¥121,000,000 or 32.3 per cent in the year ending November, 1941.

(3) Consumption of Government Bonds

The total issues of Government bonds up to December 20, 1941 aggregated ¥7,782,000,000, representing an increase of ¥1,914,000,000 compared with the corresponding period in the preceding year. The 1941 issues were divided into ¥1,590,000,000 (¥1,850,000,000 in 1940) underwritten by the Deposits Bureau of

the Finance Ministry and ¥6,192,000,000 (¥4,017,000,000 in 1940) underwritten by the Bank of Japan.

It is quite noteworthy that the amount underwritten by the Deposits Bureau dropped by ¥260,000,000 while the underwriting by the Bank of Japan gained sharply by ¥2,174,000,000, indicating that the consumption of Government bonds served as the basic measure for furnishing national expenditures and the prevention of inflation.

According to Government data given at the 77th Extraordinary Session of the Imperial Diet, the sales of Government bonds by the Bank of Japan up to November 15, 1941, totalled ¥4,764,000,000. The total consumption, inclusive of the underwriting by the Deposits Bureau, aggregated ¥6,154,000,000 with the consumption rate against the total issues standing at 93.5 per cent and thus indi-

ating a remarkable improvement compared with consumption rate in the preceding year. The consumption rate in the first half of 1941, standing at 97.2 per cent, was particularly favorable due to the plenty distribution of Government payments.

Inclusive of the budget approved at the 78th Extraordinary Session of the Imperial Diet, the Government bonds to be issued during the 1941 fiscal year was estimated at ¥10,347,200,000 for extraordinary war expenditures and ¥3,597,700,000 for general and special accounts, inclusive of ¥4,900,000,000 of the former

and ¥1,300,000,000 of the latter, respectively, already issued up to December 20, 1941. With the brought-over from the preceding fiscal year amounting to ¥1,073,300,000 for the former and ¥20,000,000 for the latter, respectively, added, the total issues for the 1941 fiscal year aggregated ¥8,838,200,000 for the remnant part of the 1941 fiscal year (ending March, 1942), inclusive of ¥6,520,500,000 for military expenditures and ¥2,317,700,000 in the general and special accounts.

Details of the Government bond issues up to November, 1941, follow:

CONSUMPTION OF GOVERNMENT BONDS

(In millions of yen)

Terms	Total Issues		Total	Sold by Bank of Japan	Consump- tion	Consump- tion rate(%)
	Underwritten by Deposits Bureau	Under- written by Bank of Japan				
1940—						
1st half						
2nd half	900.0	1,965.0	2,765.0	1,777	2,677	96.8
Total	950.0	2,947.5	3,897.5	1,609	2,559	65.6
1941—	1,850.0	4,817.5	6,667.5	3,386	5,236	78.5
1st half						
**2nd half	790.0	2,792.0	3,582.0	2,692	3,482	97.2
Total	600.0	2,400.0	3,000.0	2,072	2,672	89.1
Grand Total Since July 1937	1,390.0	9,192.0	6,582.0	6,154	5,154	93.5
	5,470.0	18,591.5	*24,161.5	15,048	*20,618	85.3

Note: * Including ¥100,000,000 underwritten by the Government Bonds Underwriters' Syndicate.

** By Government references submitted to the Diet, up to Nov. 15, 1941.

(4) Deposits by Monetary Organs and Demand for Industrial Funds

Due to the expansion of the distribution of Government funds, the deposits in banks and other monetary organs continued increasing year after year. The deposits by monetary organs in banks throughout the country, except the Bank of Japan, cash in trust as well as postal savings deposits in 1940 increased by ¥3,092,000,000 compared with 1939. Continuing the upward trend, the total of cash deposits, postal savings deposits and cash in trust during the first ten months of 1941 (January to October) aggregated ¥5,155,000,000, which was a gain by ¥128,000,000 compared with the increase in the corresponding period in 1940.

An active demand for industrial funds in 1941 was well reflected by a sharp gain of the amount of share payments,

corporation debentures and bank loans. In the first ten months of 1941, the total amount of share payments, corporation debentures and bank loans aggregated ¥6,643,000,000, advancing by ¥482,000,000 over the corresponding period in 1940. The increase of share payments and bank loans, however, was not so remarkable as the gain of debenture issues, apparently due to the difficulty in the collection of share payments because of the depression in the stock market as well as the discouraging circumstances surrounding the extension of bank loans because of the waning trend of deposits. The total amount of Government bonds issued in the first ten months of 1941 aggregated ¥8,055,000,000, topping the bond issues by ¥3,322,000,000, over the corresponding in the preceding year.

Thus, the total demand for industrial funds, inclusive of the share payments, debenture issues and bank loans and inclusive of bonds and debentures con-

cerned with China and Manchoukuo, aggregated ¥15,314,000,000, increasing by ¥3,929,000,000 or 34.5 per cent compared with the corresponding period in 1940.

The total amount of valuable securities possessed by banks in Japan at the end of October, 1941 aggregated ¥19,034,000,000, advancing by ¥4,085,000,000 during the preceding ten months. Of the total gain, Government bonds accounted for ¥2,748,000,000 while corporation debentures were responsible for ¥1,119,000,000, both marking a noted increase over the corresponding period in the preceding year.

On the other hand, the total amount of industrial capital floated through new establishments, capital increase or debentures during the first ten months of 1941 aggregated ¥4,939,000,000, eclipsing the corresponding period in 1940 by ¥1,242,000,000 or 33.6 per cent. The increas-

ing pace of new establishments, capital increases and debenture flotations during 1941 was almost well-balanced, a phenomenon entirely different from 1940 when the new establishments decreased sharply and the capital increases recorded a marked advance.

The capital floated through new establishments in 1941 registered a comfortable increase over 1940, although not amounting to one half of the corresponding figures in 1939, principally due to the successive creation of policy concerns for developing natural resources during 1941.

Classified by industry, the capital increase was most noteworthy in manufacturing industry and gas and electricity, while a decrease was noted in transportation and communications, mining and monetary enterprises. Details follow:

INCREASE OF DEPOSITS IN MONETARY ORGANS AND DEMAND FOR INDUSTRIAL FUNDS

(In millions of yen)

	1938	1939	1940	January to October	
				1941	1940
Increase of Deposits:					
Postal Savings	689	1,200	1,713	1,520	1,607
Bank Deposits	3,370	5,975	6,098	3,251	3,161
Cash in Trust	179	278	281	384	259
Demand for Funds:					
Share Payments	1,901	2,250	2,894	1,767	2,322
Net Increase of Corp. Debentures	780	1,358	2,210	2,859	1,706
Increase of Bank Loans	1,211	2,815	3,333	2,017	2,133
Total	3,892	6,423	8,442	6,643	6,161
Net Increase of Government Bonds	4,350	5,319	6,755	8,055	4,733
Net Increase of Local Bonds	32	118	60	22	73
Total	4,382	5,437	6,815	8,077	4,806
Bonds and Debentures concerned with China and Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—
Share payments	—	—	68	23	62
Net Increase of Bonds and Debentures	—	—	502	571	356
Total	8,274	—	570	594	418
Grand Total	8,274	11,860	15,827	15,314	11,385

Note: Share payments, debentures, Government bonds and local bonds surveyed by the Bank of Japan; Bank deposits and loans exclusive of those by the Bank of Japan.

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CHAPTER X

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY



K.K. SANYO SHOKAI

No. 14, Marunouchi 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo, Japan

Tel.: Marunouchi (23) 4657, 4987, 3074

President: DENJIRO MORI, Esq.

PRINCIPAL LINES OF BUSINESS

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IMPORT

German Machine Tools; Chemical Machinery and Materials of all sorts; Metal materials of all sorts; German Manufacturing Patents of various materials; Electric Furnace; Diesel Engines and Trucks.

BRANCHES AND FACTORIES

TOKYO

14, Marunouchi, 2-chome
Kojimachiku, TOKYO

KURE

7, Naka-dori 5-chome
KURE

SHINKYO

59, Asahi-dori
SHINKYO, MANCHUKO

OSAKA

Tosabori-dori 1-chome
Nishiku OSAKA
(Daido Seimei Building)

DAIREN

196, Yamagata-dori
DAIREN

YOKOHAMA

35, Nihon-odori, Nakaku
YOKOHAMA
(Koen Building)

NAGOYA

10, Sakaemachi 1-chome
Nakaku NAGOYA
(Daihyaku Ginko Building)

HOTEN

40, Chiyoda-dori Yamato-ku
HOTEN, MANCHUKO
(Hoten Bōeki Kalkan Bldg.)

YOKOHAMA FACTORY

Nagatsuda-cho,
Kohoku-ku

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Cable Address: "KUHOJIMURA" Osaka. P.O. Box: East No. 18, Osaka

DOMESTIC BRANCH OFFICES:

Tokyo, Nagoya, Kyoto,
Hamamatsu, Fukuyama, Keijo.

SUB-BRANCH OFFICES:

Fukui, Wakayama, Kurume,
Ashikaga, Otaru, Takaoka,
Taihoku.

FACTORY:

Oil & Fat Works, Kyoto,
O.G. Tokyo Works, Tokyo,
Godo Chemical Works, Kyoto.

FOREIGN BRANCH OFFICES:

Mukden, Tientsin, Shanghai.

SUB-BRANCH OFFICES:

Dairen, Hsinking, Antung,
Chinchow, Harbin, Peking,
Tsingtao, Tsinan, Taiyuan,
Shihmeng, Hankow.

FACTORY:

Godo Chemical Works, Shang-
hai; Godo Chemical Works,
Tientsin.

SUBSIDIARY COMPANIES:

Goshi Kaisha Kansai Yuō Kōgyōsho, Suita and Saijo
Zao Kagaku Kenkyusho, Kyoto
Nippon Jyukō Kagaku Kabushiki Kaisha, Nagoya
Aikoku Kagaku-Nori Kenkyusho, Fukuyama
Kabushiki Kaisha Sugimura Shoten, Nagoya

CHAPTER X

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Number of Companies

There were a total of 91,028 companies throughout the country at the end of 1940, which showed an increase of 5,906 or 6.9 per cent over similar figures recorded one year before. The change of the number of companies during the past 10 years is illustrated by the following figures:

	Number of Companies	Index No.	Increase Over Preceding Year	Percentage of Increase
1931	57,226	123	5,316	10.2
1932	65,041	139	7,815	13.7
1933	71,196	152	6,155	9.5
1934	78,198	167	7,002	9.8
1935	84,146	180	5,948	7.6
1936	87,511	187	3,365	4.0
1937	85,042	182	-2,469	-2.8
1938	83,042	178	-2,000	-2.4
1939	85,122	184	2,080	2.4
1940	91,028	195	5,906	6.9

Kinds of Companies

Of the 91,028 companies, 15,663 were Gomei Kaisha (unlimited partnership), 37,592 were Goshi Kaisha (limited partnerships), 35,936 were Kabushiki Kaisha (joint stock companies), and 28 were Kabushiki Goshi Kaisha (joint-stock limited partnerships).

During 1940 and 1941 the number of

Kabushiki Kaisha amalgamated into one or with another reached 1,474. The purpose of amalgamation was for the consolidation of business.

Capitalization of Companies

Among these companies there were in 1940, 59,599 companies with a working capital of less than ¥50,000, an increase of 9,555, while the number of companies with a working capital more than ¥50,000 was 852, a decrease of 233, as compared with 1939. The number of companies classified according to capitalization follows:

Working Capital (in yen)	No. of Companies	Percentage
Less than 50,000	59,597	66.5
50,000-100,000	10,979	12.2
100,000-500,000	14,126	15.7
500,000-1,000,000	1,927	2.1
1,000,000-5,000,000	2,103	2.7
5,000,000-10,000,000	278	0.4
More than 10,000,000	474	0.5
Total	89,584	100.0

Note: Totals differ from the preceding table because there were 1,444 companies without working capital.

In the percentage in the total those with a working capital of less than ¥50,000 increased from 58.6 per cent of the previous year to 66.5 per cent.

INDEX NUMBER OF COMPANIES BY CAPITAL

	Less than ¥50,000	Over ¥50,000 and less than ¥100,000	Over ¥100,000 and less than ¥500,000	Over ¥500,000 and less than ¥1,000,000	Over ¥1,000,000 and less than ¥5,000,000	Over ¥5,000,000 and less than ¥10,000,000	Over ¥10,000,000
1931	183	123	107	94	98	101	109
1932	220	128	108	92	99	99	109
1933	246	135	112	95	99	98	109
1934	274	147	120	98	103	104	113
1935	294	162	128	104	108	113	116
1936	302	175	139	109	114	122	123
1937	283	179	148	114	125	134	145
1938	262	187	172	112	128	141	158
1939	247	209	227	115	132	145	168
1940	283	221	172	80	93	118	126

Kinds of Enterprises

The greater part of the companies are engaged in commerce as shown by the figures recorded at the end of 1939 which placed the commercial firms at 42,608 or 50.5 per cent of the total. Those engaged in the manufacturing industry numbered 32,937 (38.4%); those in transport business, 6,422 (7.6%); those in agriculture, 1,609 (1.8%); those

in mining, 1,234; and those in fishery, 312. It is to be noted in this respect that those classified under the heading of commerce include those dealing in merchandise, in warehouse business, in banking and in insurance business as well.

The following is a table showing the increasing tendency of the various companies during the past 10 years in index number:

INDEX NUMBER OF COMPANIES BY ENTERPRISE

	Agriculture	Fishery	Mining	Manufacturing Industry	Commerce	Transport
1931	124	109	97	120	126	116
1932	169	115	99	136	144	124
1933	190	117	108	149	159	130
1934	225	122	131	163	174	140
1935	241	123	155	176	187	148
1936	244	120	177	186	192	156
1937	239	131	212	184	184	157
1938	217	116	252	184	176	155
1939	196	153	313	198	174	158
1940	131	162	272	174	191	173

NUMBER, CAPITAL AND BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF COMPANIES IN JAPAN PROPER**Business Results of Companies**

(Amount in yen)

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Total Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	57,226	19,551,543,522	2,892,130,298	743,674,676	549,313,737	272,977,645
1932	65,041	19,484,540,099	2,934,912,608	830,322,113	545,112,912	201,617,106
1933	71,196	19,960,318,207	2,992,993,198	1,092,033,665	638,799,501	138,608,044
1934	78,198	21,126,978,409	3,317,792,057	1,329,053,072	777,697,886	148,710,392
1935	84,146	22,352,402,224	3,609,218,698	1,510,294,180	903,013,099	109,388,955
1936	87,511	23,977,761,065	3,986,663,110	1,682,681,941	1,009,358,614	118,143,245
1937	85,042	26,912,152,345	4,305,417,115	2,008,815,507	1,200,848,789	111,333,703
1938	83,042	30,250,178,604	4,823,040,937	2,414,852,806	1,393,379,120	90,913,761
1939	85,122	34,025,000,000	5,477,000,000	2,889,000,000	1,544,000,000	83,000,000
1940	91,028	35,253,101,984	8,392,962,849	4,168,696,104	1,711,955,159	542,680,817

Agricultural Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	1,005	179,419,567	9,410,873	1,101,824	930,572	4,794,527
1932	1,370	175,921,870	9,549,321	1,190,261	845,917	3,489,771
1933	1,548	172,688,571	10,185,207	2,247,291	1,385,094	2,253,861
1934	1,833	179,817,967	11,408,104	4,562,729	2,600,127	2,617,079
1935	1,957	178,378,964	13,054,122	5,824,581	4,238,327	2,848,996
1936	1,987	184,422,763	13,116,044	6,747,455	4,471,217	1,401,934
1937	1,942	199,981,339	13,903,841	8,749,496	6,474,018	1,577,020
1938	1,763	216,174,635	14,059,678	8,428,878	5,563,702	1,876,810
1939	1,609	224,300,000	15,100,000	10,600,000	6,400,000	900,000
1940	1,330	210,457,122	20,180,596	14,729,491	6,334,980	10,960,501

COMPANIES

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Fisheries Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	294	127,245,564	10,535,168	1,555,358	1,180,065	2,496,473
1932	309	149,269,571	10,091,826	6,470,393	3,871,431	2,198,027
1933	316	144,111,727	9,616,241	8,037,036	6,018,768	978,924
1934	324	142,754,058	9,345,619	11,755,919	6,795,758	1,160,121
1935	332	151,089,613	13,911,080	16,320,589	10,136,150	1,360,076
1936	346	182,241,152	16,665,136	15,491,053	10,367,297	900,904
1937	353	253,677,652	24,033,043	16,077,870	10,776,322	1,368,416
1938	313	263,093,982	27,901,291	21,173,009	16,022,402	1,732,257
1939	312	259,200,000	29,500,000	24,900,000	16,900,000	1,200,000
1940	331	273,404,454	52,021,674	37,304,332	18,305,101	6,232,924

Mining Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	383	961,868,883	97,793,798	19,027,144	15,651,820	15,857,406
1932	389	951,969,923	96,981,747	26,812,546	19,093,927	12,647,560
1933	427	975,954,664	96,736,497	50,605,374	31,914,230	5,509,475
1934	515	1,066,996,905	120,127,123	76,317,610	49,989,059	2,228,960
1935	611	1,269,098,458	141,984,183	98,089,442	63,862,501	3,250,888
1936	697	1,418,426,383	170,580,240	113,489,849	69,684,072	8,916,621
1937	836	1,758,504,011	210,737,740	131,457,216	85,221,659	7,027,587
1938	991	2,294,097,623	246,328,767	179,034,250	107,928,726	8,369,046
1939	1,234	2,768,600,000	289,900,000	186,400,000	124,700,000	8,600,000
1940	1,080	2,617,276,035	428,096,337	233,253,064	128,130,225	39,880,003

Industrial Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	19,969	7,673,518,695	827,873,104	340,977,420	268,876,915	93,350,984
1932	22,575	7,571,152,934	863,546,716	359,856,144	261,873,820	58,961,769
1933	24,717	8,008,172,269	905,296,435	493,721,537	310,217,934	40,159,609
1934	27,067	8,825,335,800	1,034,280,329	614,251,026	392,603,151	63,235,825
1935	29,312	9,456,415,605	1,202,110,825	752,602,721	480,508,664	33,068,171
1936	30,986	10,701,376,368	1,371,321,074	839,868,165	542,065,633	40,950,550
1937	34,518	12,851,303,576	1,597,920,518	1,026,367,425	646,736,061	37,362,611
1938	30,565	14,972,278,836	1,965,666,396	1,313,700,622	783,334,336	31,435,087
1939	32,937	17,419,800,000	2,296,900,000	1,570,500,000	864,800,000	31,600,000
1940	29,204	18,044,873,915	4,022,875,565	2,299,102,829	948,810,937	150,047,959

Commercial Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	30,794	8,292,845,679	1,783,832,237	324,341,080	216,505,974	137,501,905
1932	35,315	8,325,581,416	1,789,408,407	385,676,586	220,975,645	105,951,777
1933	38,850	8,350,747,964	1,803,069,497	479,743,200	251,077,831	73,901,069
1934	42,716	8,610,933,679	1,965,678,690	553,716,588	281,054,019	71,881,733
1935	45,852	8,965,151,295	2,041,359,679	542,051,927	286,177,248	62,257,141
1936	47,090	9,105,441,190	2,205,007,423	608,212,852	319,615,445	58,794,378
1937	44,953	9,299,678,059	2,223,407,286	679,650,816	370,946,405	57,068,974
1938	43,040	9,830,539,065	2,285,799,424	725,874,120	382,964,737	42,373,993
1939	42,608	10,429,500,000	2,498,200,000	883,400,000	413,900,000	36,100,000
1940	47,003	6,206,573,952	1,145,512,280	737,391,563	235,305,387	203,686,307

Transportation Companies

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1931	4,781	2,316,645,134	162,685,118	56,671,850	46,168,391	18,976,350
1932	5,083	2,310,644,398	165,334,588	50,316,183	38,452,172	18,368,202

	No. of Companies	Capital	Reserves	Net Profit	Dividend	Loss
1933	5,338	2,308,643,012	168,089,321	57,779,227	38,185,654	15,805,106
1934	5,739	2,301,140,000	176,952,192	68,449,800	44,655,772	7,586,674
1935	6,082	2,332,268,289	196,798,809	95,404,920	58,090,209	6,603,683
1936	6,405	2,385,583,209	209,973,193	98,872,567	63,154,950	7,178,858
1937	6,440	2,549,007,708	235,414,687	146,512,684	80,694,324	6,829,095
1938	6,370	2,673,994,463	283,285,381	166,641,918	97,515,217	5,126,568
1939	6,422	2,932,900,000	347,100,000	213,300,000	116,900,000	4,800,000
1940	7,479	3,066,547,113	522,258,768	349,675,004	136,678,348	23,733,833

OUTSTANDING AMOUNT OF BONDS AND NOTES

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(In ¥1,000)

Internal Loans

End of	Government Bonds	Govt. Rice- Purchase Notes	Silk Bills	Local Govt. Bonds	Bank Bonds	Corporation Bonds	Total
1939	20,253,576	360,683	7,000	2,490,897	2,942,446	4,726,032	30,780,636
1940	27,008,153	585,641	68,464	2,549,686	4,086,782	5,796,701	40,095,730
1941	36,100,558	724,704	146,302	2,571,829	5,570,267	7,596,300	52,709,963
1941:							
June	30,659,167	658,077	146,302	2,628,245	4,746,262	6,553,731	45,391,786
July	31,706,669	673,790	146,302	2,630,082	4,959,762	6,729,635	46,846,243
August	32,313,106	636,185	146,302	2,630,142	5,089,926	6,855,012	47,670,674
Sept.	32,829,845	671,270	146,302	2,592,987	5,154,488	7,078,895	48,473,792
October	33,746,127	659,080	146,302	2,583,592	5,238,752	7,223,888	49,597,743
Nov.	34,382,790	659,673	146,302	2,583,623	5,379,646	7,422,930	50,574,966
Dec.	36,100,558	724,704	146,302	2,571,820	5,570,267	7,596,300	52,709,963
1942:							
Jan.	37,315,185	768,070	146,303	2,898,682	5,702,857	7,855,755	54,686,850
Feb.	37,850,697	902,833	146,303	2,907,494	5,902,075	8,021,320	55,730,722
March	39,248,958	1,060,173	146,303	2,886,074	6,206,781	8,237,378	57,785,667
April	39,973,291	1,020,673	146,000	2,886,111	6,368,540	8,334,303	58,728,918
May	41,236,508	938,270	146,000	3,054,219	6,498,241	8,544,555	60,417,793
June	43,086,321	879,027	146,000	3,058,629	6,646,047	8,711,622	62,527,646

External Loans

	Government Bonds	Local Government Bonds	Corporation Bonds
1939			
1940	1,266,629	170,007	290,441
1941	1,245,055	170,708	262,289
1941 June	1,221,472	166,884	249,891
July	1,233,788	166,884	250,192
August	1,229,006	166,884	250,020
September	1,224,340	166,884	249,117
October	1,224,340	166,884	248,566
November	1,224,340	166,884	247,458
December	1,221,472	166,884	246,792
1942 January	1,221,472	166,884	249,891
February	1,221,472	165,779	250,060
March	1,221,472	165,779	250,060
April	1,221,472	165,779	250,060
May	1,221,472	165,779	250,060
June	1,221,472	165,779	250,060
		165,779	249,007

CORPORATION BONDS

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TRANSACTIONS IN SHARES AT THE BOURSES

Shares

Year	Number of Bourses	Long Term		Short Term	
		Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries	Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries
1934	11	62,291,090	11,982,120	198,729,380	23,041,310
1935	11	41,065,140	8,153,130	214,320,750	23,545,450
1936	11	53,176,290	9,920,920	183,892,540	24,513,640
1937	11	72,943,670	13,933,380	289,128,520	34,115,900
1938	11	37,037,430	8,488,680	189,024,490	21,145,190
1939	11	39,701,000	7,703,000	197,740,000	22,122,000
1940	11	48,967,000	10,101,000	237,396,000	24,023,000
1941 (Tokyo only)		29,266,200	—	55,316,890	—

NUMBER OF INDUSTRIAL FACTORIES AND OPERATIVES AND VALUE OF PRODUCTION

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

At End of	Number of Industrial Factories		Number of Operatives		Production Value	
	Actual Number	Index Number	(1) Actual Number	Index Number	(2) Actual Production	Index Number
1929	59,887	100	1,825.0	100	7,759.0	100
1930	62,234	102	1,683.6	92	5,962.8	77
1931	64,436	107	1,661.5	91	5,174.6	67
1932	67,318	112	1,733.5	95	5,982.5	77
1933	71,940	120	1,901.1	104	7,871.4	102
1934	80,311	133	2,163.5	118	9,390.1	121
1935	85,174	142	2,369.5	130	10,836.9	139
1936	90,602	150	2,592.7	142	12,257.6	157
1937	106,005	177	2,936.5	161	16,356.2	210
1938	112,332	187	3,217.7	166	19,667.2	253
1939	137,422	229	3,766.7	201	24,360.1	314

Note—(1) In 1,000 operatives; (2) In millions of yen.

NUMBER OF FACTORIES AND OPERATIVES AND VALUE OF PRODUCTION BY KIND

Industries	Factories			(1) Operatives			(2) Production		
	1938	1939	Increase	1938	1939	Increase	1938	1939	Increase
Metals	11,183	11,603	3.8%	380.6	430.4	14.7%	4,694.4	5,472.1	16.8%
Machinery & tools	17,570	23,067	31.3%	860.4	1,126.0	30.9%	3,821.9	5,421.4	41.9%
Chemical industry	6,349	9,005	41.8%	337.9	399.2	18.1%	3,513.7	4,161.0	18.4%
Gas & power	669	672	0.4%	10.5	12.0	14.4%	47.2	69.2	46.7%
Ceramics & bricks	5,231	6,686	27.8%	111.7	139.7	25.1%	431.8	572.0	32.5%
Spinning	32,618	38,871	13.0%	1,045.5	1,063.4	1.7%	4,200.2	4,791.5	14.2%
Sawing & woodworking	10,629	13,111	23.4%	113.8	152.2	33.7%	457.3	719.8	57.4%
Foodstuffs	16,944	22,737	34.2%	190.7	229.7	20.4%	1,786.1	2,331.9	30.5%
Printing & bookbinding	3,932	3,777	3.9%	63.6	66.2	4.1%	281.2	297.5	5.8%
Others	7,217	9,893	37.3%	103.0	141.4	37.3%	433.3	523.8	20.9%
Total	112,332	137,422	22.3%	3,217.7	3,766.7	17.1%	19,667.2	24,360.1	23.7%

Patents Under Wartime Situation

Patent statistics compiled by the Imperial Patent Office are a very delicate barometer of the trend of the times and vividly reflect the dominant factors of the times such as the priority principle, the substitutes age or the industrial and economic reorganization. They also give a clear glimpse into the personal characters of inventors.

Recent statistics of the Imperial Patent Office show that the number of applications for patents has sharply increased for aeronautical and military machinery and tools, machine tools, organic and inorganic chemicals, fuel gas and mineral oil, thus indicating the rising zeal of the inventors for wartime items instead of peace-time utensils such as agricultural tools, reeling or weaving machines, personal effects, cooking utensils and furniture. Particularly noteworthy is the drastic fall of the number of applications for registration of designs.

Interesting is the fact that more than

80 per cent of patent-applications for sound-recording and sound-reproduction concern substitute phonographic needles, and there has been almost no application for patents for phonographs themselves. According to a survey by the Imperial Patent Bureau, the number of applications for patents of substitute articles has sharply increased in recent years.

The number of licenses issued for the patent applications indicates the progress of the invention world qualitatively as well as quantitatively. A striking contrast in this respect has marked the percentage of licenses issued for applications for patents of thrashing machines and that of the machines for manufacturing straw work or wood work. While the former recorded a marked decline in the number of applications, the number of licenses issued has registered a remarkable increase. An entirely opposite tendency has featured the latter. Details follow:

PATENT-APPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS FOR REGISTRATION OF DESIGNS 1934—1940

Items	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Sound-Recording and Reproduction	228	292	314	301	190	131	114
Internal-Combustion Engines	490	591	839	971	1,023	990	952
Rolling-Stock, Wheels	1,644	2,201	2,418	1,941	1,515	1,056	983
Aviation	121	176	193	237	262	284	350
Military Machines	61	96	77	276	204	164	161
Drilling and Prospecting Machines	119	129	160	116	185	219	310
Machine-Tools	717	934	1,032	944	906	1,176	1,391
*Agricultural Implements	1,900	2,032	3,020	1,917	1,065	1,375	1,318
Reeling, Weaving and Knitting Machines and Likes	3,456	4,230	4,425	3,489	2,590	1,965	1,653
Flour-Manufacturing, Tea Manufac- turing Machines and Likes	443	404	453	367	247	205	193
Machines for Manufacturing Straw or Wood Work	121	151	147	177	173	166	194
Advertising Machines, Selling Machines	299	349	296	232	219	121	57
Stationery, Instructing Machines	1,440	1,844	2,015	1,801	1,712	1,286	1,123
Personal Effects	3,830	4,221	4,729	4,176	4,210	2,801	2,935
Cooking Utensils, Furniture	4,477	5,303	5,793	5,146	4,639	3,563	3,997
Organic or Inorganic Chemicals	402	528	486	509	661	607	762
Fuel, Gas	268	381	383	420	788	1,004	1,275
Mineral Oil	123	137	160	222	259	229	275
Metallurgy	146	169	161	262	300	434	395
Rubber	258	253	276	236	327	179	309
High-Frequency Electric Communications	416	487	781	837	775	784	865

PATENTS

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Items
Electric Bulbs
Applications for Registration
of Designs

1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
1,042	1,355	1,172	1,280	1,044	885	684
9,611	12,364	14,074	10,714	7,063	5,278	4,243

Note: (*) Agricultural implements include thrashing and refining machines and similar machines for treating cereals as well as forestry machines, horticultural machines, sericultural machines, stock-farming machines, etc.

PERCENTAGE OF PATENT LICENSES ISSUED

1934—1940

Items	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Internal Combustion Engines	31%	30%	21%	21%	24%	27%	61%
Military Machines	70%	50%	58%	20%	21%	44%	29%
Mining	25%	13%	32%	15%	42%	18%	13%
Thrashing Machines and Likes	4%	14%	13%	13%	11%	16%	56%
Machines for Manufacturing Straw, Wood or Bamboo Work	41%	25%	17%	30%	43%	20%	7%
Fuel and Gas	37%	23%	13%	12%	9%	8%	12%
Machinery Industry	31%	26%	24%	25%	31%	37%	37%
Chemical Industry	29%	26%	26%	24%	25%	30%	27%
Electric Industry	37%	37%	33%	32%	25%	33%	50%

Note: Figures show the rates of licence numbers issued against the number of applications for patents. Patents granted to enemy nationals were decided to be confiscated and utilized by the Japanese factories, at the Cabinet meeting held on July 14, 1942. The number of such patents in force was nearly 3,000.

Price Trend in Japan

Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the prices in Japan have followed a steady upward trend as an inevitable result of the expansion of wartime finance and the growing stringency of general commodities.

With the object of checking the dangers of inflation, therefore, the Government resorted to various measures to check the uptrend of prices on the basis of the low-price policy. Such measures took the form of the promulgation of the Price Suspension Ordinance, the fixation of official prices, the encourage-

ment of national savings for the absorption of the floating purchasing power and the tax increase centered around indirect taxes. Such a Government price policy has served greatly to alleviate or check the rising trend of prices.

According to a survey by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, retail prices of 30 leading cities as well as wholesale prices of 199 principal commodities in Japan since the outbreak of the China Affair moved as follows:

Wholesale Prices The wholesale price-index in August, 1941, stood at 179.0 on the basis of December, 1929, as shown by the following table:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDICES IN LEADING CITIES

(December 1929=100)

Cities	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941 (August)
Tokyo	135.0	146.0	161.1	178.3	181.4
Osaka	131.0	142.0	158.3	168.1	179.8
Kobe	117.0	132.0	165.0	172.3	173.9
Kyoto	118.0	129.0	152.7	165.1	171.4
Nagoya	126.0	137.0	162.8	177.5	183.5
Yokohama	117.0	129.0	158.2	157.7	167.4
Hiroshima	119.0	135.0	152.5	155.3	167.2
Kanazawa	115.0	130.0	155.9	162.7	166.4
Sendai	111.0	121.0	140.8	156.3	159.2

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Cities	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941 (August)
Otaru	112.0	125.0	141.5	157.6	164.6
Fukuoka	124.0	137.0	155.0	170.8	172.3
Niigata	116.0	129.0	159.6	163.5	165.0
Kochi	116.0	125.0	147.1	155.3	164.6
Total average	128.8	141.7	161.7	168.4	179.0

Note: All December figures. 119 principal commodities surveyed.

Classified by commodities, metal goods made the biggest jump, August (1941) figures standing at 218.6 while building materials, miscellaneous articles, foodstuffs, fibrous articles, fertilizers and fuel followed in order. Comparing the August (1941) indices with those of July, 1937, just following the outbreak of the China Affair, it is noted that building materials made the widest gain of 60.1 per cent, while foodstuffs and fibrous materials followed with 57.6 per cent and 54.6 per cent, respectively. Fertilizers, miscellaneous articles and

industrial chemicals came in that order with metal goods registering the smallest increase of 18.2 per cent. Export commodities rose 20 per cent while import articles soared by 65 per cent, apparently reflecting the recent price trend in foreign markets.

Classified by cities, Nagoya came first with 55 per cent gain, followed by Kobe and Otaru each with 51 per cent. Kyoto, Sendai and Hiroshima came next with Tokyo coming the last with 43 per cent advance. The total average showed a gain of 45 per cent. Details follow:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDICES OF PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES (December 1929=100)

Years	Foodstuffs	Fibrous Articles	Metal Goods	Building Materials	Industrial Chemicals
1930	90.5	82.4	87.3	89.7	93.3
1935	97.8	91.6	107.3	99.4	82.7
1936	105.1	97.8	112.8	100.2	72.7
1937	110.2	109.4	189.3	122.4	97.0
1938	116.8	121.4	234.1	145.0	120.3
1939	142.4	145.0	194.6	161.8	123.3
1940	170.8	136.9	199.0	177.8	125.1
1941—January	173.1	130.7	215.3	190.6	123.6
February	173.7	138.0	207.8	189.6	123.2
March	175.0	143.8	218.2	190.1	123.2
April	173.0	145.8	218.4	194.4	123.2
May	173.9	147.0	217.8	194.0	123.8
June	173.1	159.3	217.4	195.1	124.2
July	173.3	169.1	218.2	196.0	124.4
August	172.9	168.3	218.6	196.4	124.8

Years	Fuel	Miscellaneous Goods	Total Average	Export Goods	Import Goods
1930	92.0	90.4	87.7	48.1	87.2
1935	94.0	108.7	97.4	93.7	107.8
1936	97.6	112.1	101.2	97.3	114.5
1937	113.2	147.4	123.8	111.8	151.8
1938	135.0	157.9	140.2	120.9	163.0
1939	139.8	171.9	153.7	145.4	164.4
1940	149.1	182.0	165.2	139.9	176.6
1941—January	150.4	185.6	168.6	142.4	179.0
February	151.0	185.2	170.4	149.2	179.9
March	150.2	188.3	172.7	156.1	180.5
April	150.4	192.8	173.3	157.2	180.7
May	150.9	193.2	173.9	158.4	181.4
June	151.1	193.1	176.6	169.8	182.5
July	151.2	193.7	179.2	180.0	187.5
August	151.3	193.7	179.0	182.2	184.7

COMMODITY PRICES

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Retail Prices The movement of retail prices was more or less different from that of wholesale prices, as the rising trend of retail prices was steadily curbed by the application of official prices since the enforcement of the control ordinance of September 18. The retail price index in September, 1941, stood at 168.8, representing an increase of 64 per cent compared with 103.3 in July, 1937, following the outbreak of the China Affair. Classified by items, clothings and personal effects made the widest jump of 81.5 per cent, followed by miscellaneous items

with 71 per cent and foodstuffs with 60 per cent. Building materials gained by 56 per cent while the 31 per cent gain by fuel had the smallest margin. Classified by cities, Nagoya topped with a gain of 76 per cent, followed by Kobe, Sendai, Fukuoka and Niigata each exceeding 60 per cent. Osaka stood at the tail-end with 48 per cent.

The rising trend of retail prices has become particularly slow since September, 1941, due to timely price control measures adopted by the Government. Relative figures follow:

MOVEMENT OF RETAIL PRICE INDICES IN PRINCIPAL CITIES (December 16, 1929=100)

Cities	Average Indices					1941 (Sept.)
	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Tokyo	94.5	104.7	122.9	133.8	157.7	162.1
Osaka	93.7	100.7	115.6	128.2	147.5	147.6
Kobe	94.2	104.4	129.9	140.7	109.6	176.6
Kyoto	96.2	104.6	122.3	137.1	154.2	159.2
Nagoya	94.2	103.4	123.4	132.7	167.4	179.3
Yokohama	89.7	100.9	119.1	129.3	149.8	156.4
Hiroshima	98.6	110.4	129.7	147.4	162.2	164.3
Kanazawa	100.0	109.7	124.3	137.8	163.5	168.9
Sendai	95.7	107.9	124.6	139.1	168.0	177.4
Otaru	94.0	101.7	118.8	134.8	156.7	158.8
Fukuoka	92.1	103.6	119.4	138.0	168.6	172.8
Niigata	95.5	104.3	118.6	134.2	166.5	170.2
Kochi	98.9	106.0	122.1	137.4	160.4	166.8
Total Average	94.8	104.2	121.6	138.7	162.3	168.8

RETAIL PRICE INDICES IN JAPAN BY ITEM (December 16, 1929=100)

Years	Foodstuffs	Clothings & Personal Effects	Fuel	Building Materials	Mis- cellaneous	Total Average
1930	92.4	86.9	94.9	88.4	91.2	91.0
1935	91.7	87.1	90.6	100.0	83.8	90.5
1936	98.2	89.7	92.0	98.9	84.1	84.8
1937	101.2	104.1	99.1	135.4	102.7	104.2
1938	114.2	131.7	113.7	159.9	120.0	121.6
1939	131.7	153.9	119.4	177.6	131.1	138.7
1940	163.3	168.1	126.2	188.8	151.9	162.3
1941—January	156.4	177.4	129.0	203.2	164.4	163.1
February	157.1	177.4	129.4	207.5	164.8	163.8
March	157.7	178.5	129.6	209.0	167.7	164.7
April	160.1	179.8	129.7	209.0	170.2	166.7
May	161.5	181.6	130.1	209.8	173.3	168.1
June	161.4	183.3	130.3	210.0	173.1	168.5
July	159.8	183.9	130.0	210.3	173.7	167.8
August	159.6	185.9	129.7	210.3	175.3	168.1
September	159.1	189.3	129.3	211.3	176.4	168.8

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

* Wages vs. Price Indices, Comparison by Year

Years	Wage Index	Wholesale Price Index	Retail Price Index	Actual Wage Indices	
	(A)	(B)	(C)	A Against B	A Against C
1930	101.1	100.5	101.8	100.6	99.3
1936	101.1	104.3	106.5	96.9	94.9
1937	107.0	127.6	117.3	83.9	91.2
1938	113.7	145.0	137.1	78.4	82.9
1939	128.5	156.9	154.7	81.9	83.1
1940	146.1	170.5	182.6	85.7	80.1
1941—Jan.	153.1	174.0	183.5	88.0	83.4
Feb.	155.8	175.9	184.3	88.6	84.5
Mar.	157.6	178.2	185.3	88.4	85.1
Apr.	159.2	178.8	187.5	89.0	84.9
May	160.8	179.5	187.4	89.6	85.8
June	162.2	182.2	189.5	89.0	85.6
July	163.4	184.9	188.8	88.4	86.6
Aug.	164.3	184.7	189.1	89.0	86.9

Note: Average of a period from April, 1929 to March, 1940 as 100.

Tokyo Retail Price Indices Based on Private Transactions The movement of retail-price indices based on private transactions was surveyed by the Economic Bureau of the Tokyo Municipality. The present survey, made of the purchasing prices of daily necessities by specified families in Tokyo which were designated by the authorities of the ward offices as well as women's associations in the city as on the 16th day of each month, affects 50 items including 48 items select-

ed from the list of commodities of the Survey of Living Cost Indices of the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics. According to the present survey, the retail price index for May, 1941, stood at 215.0 on the basis of July, 1937, representing an increase of 11.9 per cent as compared with the ordinary retail price index for May, 1941 surveyed by the General Affairs Bureau of the Municipality.

Details follow:

RETAIL PRICE INDICES OF DAILY NECESSITIES AS IN MAY, 1941

(July, 1937 as 100)

Items	Unit	Indices of Retail Prices		Actual Prices	Average	High	Official
		at which Consumers purchased (A)	Retail Price Indices (B)				
Cereals		167	151	10.7			
Refined rice	kg.	111	115	—3.5	300	300	
Kairyo wheat	kg.	131	132	—0.7	—	—	
Soya beans	kg.	199	173	15.0	—	—	
Red beans	kg.	198	130	14.2	445	667	
Wheat flour	kg.	152	180	16.3	368	400	280
Starch (Katakuri)	100 gr.	212	198	17.7	53	77	43
Fish, raw, salted or dried	kg.	249	198	25.6			
Sardines	kg.	219	188	16.5	248	400	213
Flatfish	kg.	313	259	20.8	613	773	507
Mackerel	kg.	176	124	42.0	893	1,082	613
Yellow-fish	kg.	316	—	—	2,025	2,667	1,840
Tunny	kg.	270	—	—	2,737	3,501	2,560
Dried Bonito	100 gr.	178	184	3.2	364	440	288
Dried Sardines	100 gr.	211	167	27.2	57	67	40
Salted Salmon	kg.	312	263	18.5	—	—	—

COMMODITY PRICES

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Items	Unit	Indices of Retail Prices at which Consumers purchased (A)		Retail Price Indices (B)	A B	Actual Prices		
						Average	High	Official
						—	in Rin	—
Meat, Eggs			229					
Beef	100 gr.		267	188	21.8			
Fowl	100 gr.		225	207	29.1	353	480	320
Hen's Egg	kg.		195	169	33.2	354	474	267
Vegetables			316	189	3.1	1,318	1,616	1,280
Irish potato			409	302	4.6			
Radish			309	349	17.2	184	267	160
Carrot			208	283	9.2	145	213	133
Sweet Potato			381	202	2.9	206	240	213
Spinach			174	385	0.7	183	347	187
Onions			414	180	3.3	357	533	400
Dried Vegetables,				414	0	207	567	213
Pickles			162					
Shiitake	100 gr.		144	155	4.6			
Pickled Radish	kg.		106	149	3.2	907	960	853
Konnyaku	100 gr.		146	105	0.8	218	267	187
Chikuwa	100 gr.		250	138	5.9	19	19	19
Sake, Relishes and	100 gr.		250	228	9.5		109	67
Other Drinks			135	228	9.5		109	67
Sake	1 litre		127	135	1.4			
Beer	bottle		129	118	7.6	1,336	1,760	1,265
Soy Sauce	1 litre		108	128	1.1	473	500	470
Miso	1 kg.		130	110	—1.7	360	385	350
Sugar	1 kg.		110	133	—2.2	271	373	267
Tea	100 gr.		204	109	0.9	474	520	475
Confectionery,				202	0.9	216	267	213
Fruits			211					
Biscuit	100 gr.		318	181	17.2			
Sembei	100 gr.		154	213	49.2	159	192	107
Apples	piece		171	147	4.8	125	160	120
Banana	1 kg.		210	164	4.3	132	158	
Fuel			184	200	0.5	457	507	453
Charcoal	bag		194	174	5.8			
Rentan	10 kg.		157	185	4.8	2,315	2,590	
Match	Case		202	136	15.4	602	706	
Personal Effects			315	200	0.9	133	150	130-150
Undershirts	piece		375	270	—16.6			
Shirts	piece		361	411	8.8	3,811	6,000	
Socks	pair		384	272	32.2	4,856	7,000	
Towels	piece		170	228	68.5	972	2,000	
Clogs (Geta)	pair		287	204	—16.6	240	250	
Others			177	235	22.1	2,133	2,500	
Soap	piece		116	167	5.9			
Pomade	piece		202	118	—1.7	103	150	100
Toilet Paper	bundle		174	195	3.5	856	950	
Absorbent Cotton	case		191	172	1.2	101	140	
Shoji Paper	roll		200	186	2.8	191	300	170
Total Average			215	162	23.4	514	850	
				192	11.9			

BUSINESS RESULTS IN 1940 AND 1941

(Compiled by the Mitsubishi Economic Research Bureau)

(Amount in ¥1,000)

Second Half of 1940

Kind of Business	No. of Representative Companies Investigated	Paid-up Capital	Net Profit		Dividend		Reserves	
			Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Trust	6	34,950	3,688	21.1%	1,137	6.5%	2,416	66%
Bourses	6	89,500	3,917	8.8%	3,065	6.8%	636	16%
Securities	4	22,750	1,747	15.4%	1,125	9.9%	384	22%
Foreign Trade	5	325,117	33,129	20.4%	11,995	7.4%	19,985	60%
Railways	9	410,050	21,928	10.7%	16,716	8.2%	4,596	21%
Shipping	5	140,700	15,545	22.1%	5,894	8.4%	9,442	61%
Transportation	3	36,363	1,868	10.3%	1,158	6.4%	603	32%
Warehousing	4	29,260	912	6.2%	481	3.3%	348	38%
Manufacturing Industries	98	3,308,716	260,383	15.9%	145,896	8.9%	107,996	41%
Cotton spinning	7	272,125	28,517	21.0%	17,396	12.8%	10,240	36%
Woolen	4	56,500	4,954	17.5%	3,090	10.9%	1,653	33%
Hemp	3	10,408	1,701	32.7%	468	9.0%	1,155	68%
Rayon	5	134,925	8,547	12.7%	6,618	9.8%	1,519	18%
Cement	6	148,620	7,988	10.7%	6,234	8.4%	1,349	17%
Bricks	2	18,000	1,516	16.8%	776	8.6%	674	44%
Glass	2	44,250	5,030	22.7%	2,831	12.8%	2,043	41%
Drugs	2	18,000	1,751	19.5%	736	8.2%	962	55%
Chemicals	6	56,074	4,597	16.4%	2,421	8.6%	1,965	43%
Oils & fats	2	40,600	2,975	14.7%	1,817	9.0%	1,060	36%
Leather	2	6,500	873	26.9%	310	9.5%	516	59%
Paper	4	289,222	22,624	15.6%	12,928	8.9%	9,209	41%
Chemical fertilizers	6	298,125	20,090	13.5%	13,324	8.9%	6,366	32%
Other chemicals	3	36,000	3,898	21.7%	2,000	11.1%	1,713	44%
Electric machine	4	163,750	16,419	20.5%	7,772	9.7%	8,377	51%
Shipbuilding	3	224,000	11,444	10.2%	6,060	5.4%	5,151	45%
Rolling stock	3	64,494	5,101	15.8%	2,640	8.2%	2,288	45%
Other machines	8	95,372	9,783	20.5%	4,479	9.4%	4,905	50%
Iron & steel	7	724,163	45,644	13.4%	24,986	7.2%	19,900	44%
Other metallic	5	336,617	24,152	14.3%	14,395	8.6%	9,291	38%
Sugar	4	191,926	24,389	25.4%	10,961	11.4%	13,308	55%
Flour	4	43,670	5,268	24.1%	2,084	9.5%	2,971	56%
Confectionaries	2	19,500	1,785	18.3%	835	8.6%	860	48%
Printing	4	15,875	1,337	16.8%	735	9.3%	521	39%
Mining	7	639,406	55,947	17.5%	31,933	10.0%	23,148	41%
Kerosene oil	2	87,500	8,155	18.6%	3,575	8.2%	4,256	52%
Gas	2	24,775	1,299	10.5%	965	7.8%	319	25%
Electricity	8	1,289,117	58,030	9.0%	48,279	7.5%	8,499	15%
Fisheries	1	42,300	3,029	14.3%	2,115	10.0%	722	24%
Land & building	4	25,750	1,241	9.6%	637	4.9%	558	45%
Rubber plantation	4	17,225	1,049	12.2%	603	7.0%	417	40%
Total	168	6,523,479	471,867	14.6%	275,574	8.5%	184,325	39%

BUSINESS RESULTS

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First Half of 1941

Kind of Business	No. of Representative Companies Investigated	Paid-up Capital	Net Profit		Dividend		Reserves	
			Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Trust Bourses	6	34,950	4,588	26.3%	1,137	6.5%	3,256	71%
Securities	4	89,500	3,155	7.1%	2,548	5.7%	490	16%
Foreign Trade	5	22,750	848	7.6%	950	8.4%	178	21%
Railways	9	325,117	35,920	22.1%	19,450	12.0%	15,543	43%
Shipping	5	430,089	25,789	12.0%	17,870	8.3%	7,275	28%
Transportation	3	145,950	18,185	24.9%	6,133	8.4%	11,393	63%
Warehousing	4	36,363	2,210	12.2%	1,244	6.8%	860	39%
Manufacturing Industries	98	29,260	1,309	8.9%	918	6.3%	323	25%
Cotton spinning	7	506,339	269,432	15.1%	160,300	9.0%	103,579	38%
Woolen	4	319,246	33,694	21.1%	18,883	11.8%	15,848	44%
Hemp	3	56,500	5,727	20.3%	3,090	10.9%	2,428	42%
Rayon	5	11,488	1,271	22.1%	541	9.4%	651	51%
Cement	6	134,925	8,890	13.2%	6,579	9.8%	1,998	22%
Bricks	2	159,656	7,825	9.8%	6,465	8.1%	1,065	14%
Glass	2	18,000	1,287	14.3%	790	8.8%	443	34%
Drugs	2	44,250	4,466	20.2%	2,831	12.8%	1,479	33%
Chemicals	6	18,000	1,871	20.8%	750	8.3%	1,048	56%
Oils & fats	2	65,844	4,025	12.2%	2,532	7.7%	1,304	32%
Leather	2	40,975	2,929	14.3%	1,827	8.9%	1,005	34%
Paper	4	6,500	971	29.9%	310	9.5%	612	63%
Chemical fertilizers	6	289,265	24,959	17.3%	14,494	10.0%	9,954	40%
Other chemical	3	352,625	18,485	10.5%	15,207	8.6%	2,901	16%
Electric machine	4	36,000	3,611	20.1%	1,840	10.2%	1,591	44%
Shipbuilding	3	204,000	18,518	18.2%	9,231	9.1%	8,740	47%
Rolling stock	3	228,000	12,483	11.0%	6,956	6.1%	5,159	41%
Other machines	8	65,494	5,417	16.5%	2,810	8.6%	2,434	45%
Iron & steel	7	99,625	10,539	21.7%	4,665	9.4%	5,313	50%
Other metallic	5	776,600	47,627	12.3%	30,249	7.8%	16,770	35%
Sugar	4	350,000	25,323	14.5%	15,025	8.6%	9,842	39%
Flour	4	210,301	20,574	19.6%	11,455	10.9%	8,323	40%
Confectionaries	2	43,670	5,769	26.4%	2,161	9.9%	3,370	58%
Printing	4	19,500	1,576	16.2%	823	8.4%	585	37%
Mining	7	15,875	1,586	20.0%	786	9.9%	716	45%
Kerosene oil	2	730,096	46,304	12.7%	32,062	8.8%	13,117	28%
Gas	2	87,500	7,829	17.9%	3,556	8.1%	4,024	51%
Electricity	8	24,775	1,637	13.2%	1,074	8.7%	487	30%
Fisheries	1	289,117	56,721	8.8%	48,233	7.5%	7,335	13%
Land & building	4	42,300	2,811	13.3%	2,115	10.0%	542	19%
Rubber plantation	4	25,750	962	7.5%	648	5.0%	277	29%
Total	168	18,725	998	10.7%	707	7.6%	261	26%
		898,581	478,698	13.9%	298,945	8.7%	168,584	35%

Second Half of 1941

Trust Bourses	6	34,950	4,392	25.1%	1,137	6.5%	3,056	70%
Securities	4	89,500	2,812	6.3%	2,392	5.3%	313	11%
Foreign Trade	5	22,750	522	4.6%	661	5.8%	1,921	—
		350,117	40,220	23.0%	20,575	11.8%	18,579	46%

Kind of Business	No. of Representative Companies Investigated	Paid-up Capital	Net Profit		Dividend		Reserves	
			Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Railways	9	458,082	23,628	10.3%	17,677	7.7%	5,339	23%
Shipping	5	145,950	18,598	25.5%	6,210	8.5%	11,638	63%
Transportation	3	43,740	2,523	10.9%	1,426	6.2%	986	39%
Warehousing	4	29,260	1,435	10.7%	881	6.4%	482	34%
Manufacturing								
Industries	98	3,830,726	262,732	13.8%	168,320	8.8%	88,623	34%
Cotton spinning	7	349,649	32,587	18.6%	21,643	12.4%	11,448	34%
Woolen	4	56,500	7,213	25.5%	3,090	10.9%	3,898	54%
Hemp	3	11,488	1,227	21.4%	574	10.0%	560	46%
Rayon	5	146,796	8,470	11.5%	6,362	8.7%	1,839	22%
Cement	6	173,158	7,165	8.8%	6,373	7.4%	986	13%
Bricks	2	18,000	1,268	14.1%	790	8.8%	420	33%
Glass	2	44,250	4,081	18.4%	2,625	11.9%	1,258	31%
Drugs	2	18,000	2,051	22.8%	750	8.3%	1,217	59%
Chemicals	6	67,094	3,820	11.4%	2,443	7.3%	1,205	32%
Oils & fats	2	53,850	3,712	13.8%	2,373	8.8%	1,233	33%
Leather	2	6,500	984	30.3%	318	9.8%	605	61%
Paper	4	326,767	24,696	15.1%	15,431	9.4%	8,753	35%
Chemical fertilizers	6	367,997	20,735	11.3%	17,471	9.5%	2,894	14%
Other chemicals	3	36,000	3,279	18.2%	1,840	10.2%	1,267	39%
Electric machine	4	206,500	19,333	18.7%	10,250	9.9%	8,468	44%
Shipbuilding	3	235,500	13,668	11.6%	7,070	6.0%	6,190	45%
Rolling stock	3	76,538	5,959	15.6%	3,102	8.1%	2,701	45%
Other machines	8	120,813	11,549	19.1%	5,434	9.0%	5,591	48%
Iron & steel	7	859,100	36,629	8.5%	31,428	7.3%	4,620	13%
Other metallic	5	365,000	26,099	14.3%	14,819	8.1%	10,812	41%
Sugar	4	210,301	20,386	20.6%	10,689	10.9%	9,139	45%
Flour	4	43,670	4,052	21.8%	1,841	9.9%	1,983	49%
Confectionaries	2	19,880	1,625	16.3%	780	7.8%	742	46%
Printing	4	17,375	1,694	19.5%	824	9.5%	774	46%
Mining	7	730,098	46,332	12.7%	33,110	9.1%	12,300	27%
Kerosene oil	2	120,000	8,921	14.9%	4,851	8.1%	3,777	42%
Gas	2	24,775	1,782	14.4%	1,111	9.0%	586	33%
Electricity	8	1,289,117	54,859	8.5%	48,233	7.5%	5,455	10%
Fisheries	1	42,300	2,767	13.1%	2,115	10.0%	529	19%
Land & building	4	25,750	939	7.3%	648	5.0%	253	27%
Rubber plantation	4	18,725	920	9.8%	646	6.9%	245	27%
Total	168	7,255,840	472,338	13.1%	309,993	8.6%	150,969	32%

DEVELOPMENT AND TENDENCY OF THE NATIONAL ECONOMY IN 1941-42

1. Security Market

Due to the increasing strains of international relations and the general industrial depression, the domestic stock market had become increasingly inactive. Although the Government resorted

to various measures in an effort to maintain the prices of shares and the bond world barely managed to continue the flotation by the progress of well-balanced flotation plans, the security market in general remained dull and

depressed throughout 1941 until the very close of the year.

The stock market, however, became suddenly active and animated on the reports of successive victories of the Japanese forces since the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia on December 8, 1941. The Government was forced to take up measures to check the excessive soaring of share prices. Thus, the dull atmosphere in the stock market which had been prevalent for the past few years, was completely wiped out toward the close of 1941.

Fluctuations of Prices of Shares The prices of shares, which had continued downward throughout 1940, remained dull and inactive in 1941, except a few spasmodic gains, due solely to the increasing complexities of the international situation and the growing depression in industrial circles.

Particularly, the downward trend of prices of leading shares was further accelerated toward the close of June, 1941, because of the start of hostilities between Germany and the Soviet Union, the strengthening of the wartime structure following the organization of the third Konoe Cabinet and the intensification of the so-called ABCD encirclement front by the "Democracies." The market sentiment was specially erratic and unstable on July 26, 1941, when Britain and the United States announced the freezing of the Japanese assets in those countries, with the Tokyo Stock Exchange (new), hitting the record low since October, 1931 at ¥94.80. The further fall of share prices, however, was successfully checked by the limitless purchasing gesture of the Mutual Securities Corporation, the restrictions of short selling transactions by the exchange authorities as well as the co-operation by various monetary organs with the policy of the Government. Since then the prices of shares remained comparatively firm and stable in the face of the increasing uncertainty of the outcome of Japanese-American negotiations and the mounting strains of the East Asiatic situation, due to the promulgation of the Share Prices Control Ordinance in August, the decrease of the number of floating shares and the manifestation of the firm resolve of the nation to tide over the crisis through the formation of the Tojo Cabinet. Reports of successive war victories achieved by the Japanese forces since the outbreak of

the War of Greater East Asia on December 8 served to stir up the bullish tone in the market with the prices of leading shares soaring in rapid succession.

The Tokyo Stock Exchange (new) on December 11 zoomed to ¥145, representing a wide-margined gain of ¥38 compared with the quotations preceding the outbreak of the war with Britain and the United States. Other leading shares, including the Osaka Stock Exchange (new), Kanegafuchi Spinning (new) as well as shipping, fibrous industrials, food-stuffs and heavy industries, kept pace in a wide-margined rise.

To cope with the sharply-rising tendency of share prices, the Government resorted to various checking measures, including the revision of the Share Prices Control Ordinance, which had originally been promulgated as a means for checking the excessive fall of share prices, in order to authorize the Government to restrict the excessive increase of share quotations. In view of the Government urging for the self-discipline in stock circles, the Tokyo Stock Exchange raised the amount of margins on several occasions, and imposed almost a prohibitively high margin on stock exchange shares.

The average quotation of industrials during 1941 (up to December 20, 1941) stood at ¥71.23, down by ¥9.99 or 12 per cent compared with the corresponding period in 1940 while that of the Tokyo Stock Exchange (new) was ¥18.00 or 15 per cent lower than the 1940 average. The high for industrials at ¥79.56 in mid-December, however, was the highest price quoted since August, 1940, while the mid-December quotation of the Tokyo Stock Exchange (new) at ¥148.90 was the highest level reached since January, 1940.

Share Price Control Measures (1) Measures for Maintaining Share Prices: In view of the unfavorable influences to be brought about to the progress of the industrial productivity expansion by the sharp decline of share prices, and the consequent difficulty in the accommodation of industrial funds, unsmooth circulation of funds due to the fall of the value of securities in the form of stock as well as the fluctuations of the basis for appraising the assets of industrial concerns, the Government came to adopt strong measures for checking the excessive decline of the prices of shares. Those Government measures included the following:

a) **Establishment of Japan Mutual Securities Corporation:** This company was established in March, 1941, with the Industrial Bank of Japan as the pivot, and started purchasing operations in the market in June, that year. With the Government deciding to finance the company positively in order to enable the concern to embark upon limitless purchasing activities, the stabilization operations conducted by the company became increasingly concrete and positive.

b) **Promulgation of Share Prices Control Ordinance:** The stock market, while having been temporarily stabilized because of such Government measures as well as whole-hearted cooperation by civil circles, was liable to be subjected to an increasing risk due to the mounting strains of international conditions. To cope with the situation, therefore, the Government resorted to two emergency measures, the Share Prices Control Ordinance and Emergency Treatment Ordinance Pertaining to the Appraisal of Shares Owned by Industrial Companies.

The Share Prices Control Ordinance, based on the provisions of Article 19 of the National General Mobilization Law, authorizes the Government, when necessary, to fix the lowest prices of shares. Members of the stock exchanges as well as securities merchants are prohibited to transact shares, for which the lowest prices have been fixed by the Government, at quotations lower than the lowest prices.

The Emergency Treatment Ordinance Pertaining to the Appraisal of Shares Owned by Industrial Companies is based on the provisions of Article 11 of the National General Mobilization Law, and provided for temporary exceptions in the appraisal provisions in the Commercial Code so that the Government might compensate for the losses which would be sustained by industrial companies through the decline of the value of shares owned in appraisal. By this measure, the Government aimed at preventing the sales of stocks by companies.

c) **The unit-trust investment system** initiated by the Nomura Securities Company and Nomura Trust Company in November, 1941, was also a measure aiming at absorbing floating purchasing power and accelerating the active supply of industrial funds through the control over floating shares.

(2) **Control Over Highest Share Prices:** The Government revised the Share Prices Control Ordinance in order to acquire an authority to specify the highest prices of shares in addition to fixing the lowest prices in view of the fact that the wild soaring of share prices since the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia was more or less too sudden and abnormal. By this measure, the Government aimed at checking the reactionary slump which might follow the limitless soaring, restraining excessive speculations and preventing the inflow of speculative funds into the stock market.

FLUCTUATIONS OF LEADING SHARE PRICES

Actual Quotations*

(In yen)

Average of	Average of 50 Leading Industrials	Tokyo Stock Exchange (new)
1937	87.05	153.49
1938	78.91	148.49
1939	79.50	136.54
1940 1st half	87.57	141.29
1940 2nd half	74.83	118.21
1940 average	81.20	129.67
1941 1st half	72.17	112.29
1941 2nd half	70.29	109.17
1941 average	71.23	110.73

Average Share-Price Indices**

(January, 1921=100)

Average of	Transporta- tion	Gas & Power	Mining	Textiles	Metals	Machinery
1937	108.5	173.1	152.0	84.9	209.3	149.2
1938	97.7	163.4	155.6	76.6	202.2	147.7
1939	121.4	188.6	155.3	82.0	193.6	153.2
1940 1st half	149.9	207.5	158.3	97.8	201.0	186.1
1940 2nd half	128.0	178.5	128.5	83.6	166.5	170.3
1940 average	138.9	193.8	143.4	90.7	183.8	178.2
1941 1st half	130.8	160.1	119.1	86.0	157.3	166.0
1941 2nd half	129.4	155.5	109.5	81.5	141.5	161.8
1941 average	130.1	158.0	114.7	83.9	150.1	164.1

Average of	Chemicals	Foodstuffs	Ceramics, etc.	Banking & Insurance	Total Average Index
1937	123.5	111.6	58.6	175.2	156.7
1938	115.9	105.8	61.5	173.6	150.4
1939	112.4	132.4	70.2	183.6	160.3
1940 1st half	112.5	151.5	83.8	205.7	185.3
1940 2nd half	98.6	120.6	76.5	188.0	158.2
1940 average	110.6	136.0	80.1	196.8	171.7
1941 1st half	88.5	144.5	74.4	187.9	152.4
1941 2nd half	81.3	119.8	69.4	187.8	144.7
1941 average	85.3	116.9	72.1	187.9	148.9

* 1941 2nd half and annual average covering period ending on December 20.

** 1941 2nd half and annual average covering period ending in November.

LEADING SHARE PRICES

(In yen)

	Average of 50 Leading Industrials	Tokyo Stock (New)	Kanegafuchi Spinning (New)	Imperial Rayon (New)	N.Y.K. (New)	Uraga Dockyard (New)	
1939 2nd half, High	91.66	170.30	128.20	126.70	107.00	96.90	
1940, Low	67.63	101.80	72.50	76.00	56.50	81.00	
March end, 1941	73.48	115.80	89.20	96.20	75.90	89.30	
July 26, 1941, Low	65.94	94.80	70.30	72.80	64.10	83.50	
July end, 1941, Low	67.20	102.90	74.40	74.20	67.90	86.00	
December 6, 1941	69.89	109.70	79.30	81.70	76.20	95.70	
December 11, 1941	76.11	145.00	100.00	100.00	94.00	102.40	
Middle decade, December, 1941, High	79.56	148.90	106.00	102.00	95.00	111.00	
Gain since December 6, 1941	9.67	39.20	26.70	20.30	18.80	15.30	
	Mitsubishi Heavy Ind. (New)	Japan Steel Tube (New)	Japan Oil (New)	Asahi Glass (New)	Japan Fisheries (New)	Toa Tobacco (New)	Nissan Norin (New)
1939 2nd half, High	110.90	98.40	87.50	163.50	70.00	106.10	72.00
1940, Low	70.80	60.10	62.50	117.50	42.20	69.30	33.70
March end, 1941	77.00	68.50	64.30	125.90	45.80	81.60	65.00
July 26, 1941, Low	71.20	55.00	57.00	107.30	40.40	71.30	56.20
July end, 1941, Low	70.50	56.20	58.90	112.50	41.60	75.60	56.00
December 6, 1941	76.40	57.70	62.60	120.00	40.60	83.00	53.00
December 11, 1941	87.50	70.00	74.90	131.00	54.30	100.60	71.00
Middle decade, Decem- ber, 1941, High	89.20	77.50	79.50	133.50	54.30	106.90	74.00
Gain since December 6, 1941	12.80	19.80	16.90	13.50	13.70	23.90	21.00

Bond Market in 1941 Flotation of Bonds. The total amount of debentures of which the flotation was concluded up to December 20, 1941, aggregated ¥3,685,000,000, representing an increase of ¥1,132,000,000 or 44 per cent compared with the corresponding period in the preceding year. The sharp increase, despite the general curtailment policy of the Government, was principally due to the activities of the productivity expansion drive. The smooth flotation of the huge amount of debentures under more or less unfavorable conditions in the

bond market was attributable to a close cooperation among governmental offices concerned, bankers' syndicates and local banks on the basis of well-mapped-out consumption plans, as well as the mobilization of funds of local and savings banks and industrial associations.

Under the circumstances, the portion of debentures opened for public subscription steadily dwindled and stood at 33.8 per cent of the total amount floated compared with 68.6 per cent in 1939 and 49.1 per cent in 1940. Details follow:

BOND AND DEBENTURE FLOTATION CONTRACTS CONCLUDED IN 1941

(In Millions of Yen)

	Local Bonds	Banks	Special Companies	Ordinary Companies	Debentures with Man-choukuo	Concerned with China	Total	Opened for Public Subscription
1939 Total	89.2	135	372.2	532.0	824.0	110	2,062.5	1,415.4
1940 Total	—	725	465.0	366.0	742.0	255	2,553.0	1,235.9
1941:								
1st quarter	—	285	165.0	141.5	270.0	60	921.5	285.4
2nd quarter	—	304	209.8	116.5	180.0	100	910.3	319.0
3rd quarter	—	260	195.0	207.4	205.0	70	937.4	344.7
*4th quarter	—	230	230.0	199.5	181.5	75	916.0	295.0
1941 Total	—	1,079	799.8	664.9	836.5	305	3,685.1	1,244.1

Note: * Up to December 20.

Reflecting the stringency of the long-term funds, however, the consumption of debentures proved rather inactive, due principally to the tendency of successive future issues as well as the lower interest yields. Naturally, the sale of debentures was extremely unfavorable, except a few issues such as the South Manchuria Railway debentures or the Oriental Development debentures.

Perplexed with the increasing volume of debentures in possession, therefore, the underwriting securities companies sought the accommodations from the Industrial Bank of Japan on the one hand and encouraged the sales by marketing debentures of second-class companies with those of leading firms or at lower quotations.

The National Monetary Council in July, 1941, decided upon a five-point certain counter-measure in order to cope with the situation but without avail.

Reflecting the general depression in bond circles, the bond market was generally inactive. Particularly, the inac-

tivity was acute in about March, 1941, when even the leading bonds such as those concerned with China and Manchoukuo with Government guarantee were quoted in the market at quotations from 5 sen to 10 sen lower than the issue prices.

Interest-yielding Government bonds continued in a strong tone since the start of the year, the Ko-Goh 5 per cent Government bonds having advanced to ¥106 at the close of the first half of 1941 or a gain of ¥1.70 since the start of the year. Due to the advent of a fear for the possible increase of taxation, however, the quotation was subjected to a reactionary decline since July. The Ko-Goh 5 per cent ended the year at about ¥105.50 after successive ups and downs, as the industrial associations, mutual credit associations and other monetary organs which are exempted from taxation came forward to resort to purchasing operations. Market quotations of principal bonds and debentures in 1941 follow:

QUOTATIONS OF LEADING BONDS

Terms	Ko-Goh 5%	4% 1st	I-Goh 3.5%
1939	¥104.50	¥103.22	¥98.63
1940	105.64	103.33	98.70
1941 1st half	105.23	102.74	98.73
*1941 2nd half	105.34	102.71	98.88
*1941 Average	105.31	102.75	98.81

Note: * Up to December 20.

QUOTATIONS OF LEADING DEBENTURES

	Japan Power Generation and Transmission	Japan Iron Mfg. Company, 58th	Japan Mining Com- pany, 2nd-Ha Goh
Interest Rate per Annum	4.2%	4.3%	4.3%
Sale Prices	¥99.50	¥100.00	¥100.00
End of June 1940	99.40	100.10	99.90
End of December 1940	99.40	100.00	99.70
End of March 1941	99.35	99.90	99.35
End of June 1941	99.35	100.00	99.35
End of November 1941	99.35	100.00	99.35

Transition of Stock Transactions The reorganization of the security exchanges came to be hotly discussed since the fall of 1940 in order to cope with the economic new structure advocated by the Government. The actual reform, however, failed to make any substantial progress. However, the general market activities of the stock exchanges under the old structure came to be strictly restricted by the weight of surrounding circumstances.

Ever since the outbreak of the China Affair, the share dividends have come to be considerably restricted due to the enforcement of different control regulations such as the Extraordinary Industrial Funds Adjustment Law, the restrictions over dividends as well as control over profits. Naturally, the charm of stock exchange speculations greatly dwindled. Particularly, the market sentiment became further depressed in 1941 as a result of various discouraging factors such as the Ordinance Restrict-

ing the Fall of Share Prices, the control of short-selling by the Tokyo Stock Exchange, etc.

The daily total of futures transactions in the first eleven months of 1941 aggregated 96,000 long-term transactions and 169,000 short-term transactions, respectively, or decrease of 29 per cent for the former and 27 per cent for the latter compared with the corresponding figures in the preceding year. Spot transactions in the first eleven months, however, increased sharply, long-term transactions having gained by 45 per cent and short-term transactions by 42 per cent compared with the corresponding figures in 1937. The inactivity of futures transactions, a cardinal source of revenue for the stock exchanges naturally served to worsen the business results of the exchanges. With 1937 as the peak, therefore, the dividend rate of the Tokyo Stock Exchange continued downward and stood at 5.5 per cent for the second half of 1941.

TRANSACTIONS OF TOKYO STOCK EXCHANGE

	Share Transactions (Shares)			Bonds & Debentures (¥1,000)		
	Long-term	Short-term	Spot	Govt. Bonds	Govt. Bonds	Corp. Debentures
1937						
1939	198,569	592,736	46,832	538,128		
1940:	122,786	202,967	70,246	395,998		
1st half	144,279	212,162	62,716	419,157	5,093	2,958
2nd half	127,992	249,608	39,868	417,468	1,431	1,552
Average	136,136	230,885	51,292	418,313	3,262	2,255
					(Long-term)	(Short-term) (Spot)
					1,744	1,578
					2,592	1,968
						212
						682
						1,079
						723
						901

	Share Transactions (Shares)				Bonds & Debentures (¥1,000)		
	Long-term	Short-term	Spot	Total	Govt. Bonds (Long-term)	Govt. Bonds (Short-term)	Corp. Debentures (Spot)
1941:							
1st half	101,075	174,100	51,668	326,842	585	1,640	704
*2nd half	90,931	164,849	48,498	304,278	861	1,078	654
*Average	96,464	169,895	50,226	316,686	710	1,384	682
†December	240,998	459,691	128,097	828,697	908	1,019	446

Note: * Average for first 11 months.

† Average up to December 20.

2. Prices of Commodities

Low Price Policy and Production Increase Measures Ever since the outbreak of the China Affair, the Government has resorted to various measures in order to maintain the prices of commodities at a low level. For this purpose, the Government, particularly, has expanded the scope of application of official prices on the basis of the provisions of the Ordinance for Control of Prices, etc. However, the changing situation caused the disproportion of the prices of different commodities. Under the circumstances, opinions became rampant since the close of 1940 favoring the revision of the official price system based on the low-price policy. The elevation of prices to a certain extent came to be considered as inevitable for the sake of production increase. Even within the Government itself, the necessity of establishing a comprehensive price policy in order to change from the negative price policy of the past to a negative low-price policy pivoted on the expansion of productivity.

For this purpose, the Government in May, 1941 reorganized the Price Investigation Council and partially revised the organization of the Central Price Fixing Committee. On August 12, 1941, the third Konoe Cabinet sent an inquiry to the Price Investigation Council regarding the adjustment of the low price and productivity expansion. According to the Council's reply to the Government in response to that inquiry, thoroughgoing rationalization in various departments of production and distribution was demanded together with a positive support to the production of important materials and commodities so that the increase of production and the reduction in the cost of production and distribution might be adequately effected. The reply also stressed the need for the rationalization of national consumption

of commodities and the fixing of a minimum level of the national wartime standard of life through the strengthened restrictions over consumption.

The Tojo Cabinet, which came into power succeeding the third Konoe Cabinet, adopted the price policy of the outgoing Cabinet almost unchanged. In this connection, Nobusuke Kishi, Minister of Commerce and Industry, at the plenary session of the House of Representatives on November 17, 1941, clarified the Government policy favoring the revision of the existing official prices so as to encourage production increase of necessary commodities, while not altering the low-price policy, thus indicated the future trend of the price policy.

The Government also enforced the revision of the Ordinance Controlling the Prices, etc. on September 3, 1941, thereby extending the operation of the September 18 Price Suspension Ordinance of 1939 for the time being.

Low Price Policy and Absorption of Purchasing Power For the maintenance of the low-price policy and the prevention of the dangers of inflation, the absorption of purchasing power became a very important issue. With the production increase of consumption commodities making but slow progress and the convertible note issue expanding remarkably, the restrictions over consumption and absorption of purchasing power were required to be more positively pushed. For this purpose, the Government elevated the goal of the national savings for 1941 to ¥17,000,000,000 from the ¥13,500,000,000 for 1940. The National Savings Associations Law was also enacted by the Government as a means for increasing the national savings by the free will of the people.

In addition to the strengthening of national savings, the Government decided on the advance of railway freight

rates, increase of taxation and raise of the prices of Government monopolies for the purpose of absorbing the floating purchasing power. As a consequence, the prices of tobacco products were raised as from November 1 and the railway passenger fares were elevated by about 30 per cent, effective April, 1942.

In connection with taxation increase, the Government at the 77th Extraordinary Session of the Diet decided to effect an extraordinary increase in taxation, principally indirect taxes, by ¥635,000,000 in 1942 (¥173,000,000 in 1941). Taxes raised included the Sake tax, commodity tax, amusement tax, admission tax, building tax and transit tax. The Government also decided upon a comprehensive increase of the combined income tax, the juridical person profit tax and other direct taxes.

General Trend of Price Movement The prices of commodities continued the upward trend throughout 1941. However, as far as the price indices were concerned, the upward tone was greatly alleviated. Particularly, the advance of retail prices was short-margined. This was believed to be solely attributable to the expansion of the official price system.

a) Wholesale Prices: The rising rate

of the wholesale-price indices was extremely lower in the second half of 1941 than the first half, although the combined index for 1941 still continued upward. The wholesale-price index for November, 1941, stood at 3.0 per cent higher than the December index in 1940 and 70.3 per cent higher than the average index for 1936, preceding the outbreak of the China Affair. The average index for the first eleven months of 1941 represented 3.2 per cent gain compared with the corresponding index in 1940 and 68.4 per cent advance over the average index for the first eleven months of 1936.

Classified by items, metals recorded the greater increase, with the index in November, 1941, eclipsing the average for December, 1940 by 8.0 per cent. Raw materials for clothing ranked second with a 7.1 per cent gain while textiles came third with a rise of 5.7 per cent. Industrial chemicals rose by 1.8 per cent, building materials upped 1.6 per cent, fuel advanced 1.2 per cent and fertilizers increased marginally by 0.1 per cent. Cereals remained stationary while foodstuffs and spices recorded a 0.7 per cent recession. Relative figures follow:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDICES 1938-1941

(July 1937=100) -

Terms	Total Index	Cereals	Foodstuffs	Clothing Materials	Clothing	Building Materials
					Raw Materials	
1938 average	109.7	103.0	104.7	130.3	94.4	112.4
1939 average	121.0	126.5	113.3	153.6	110.3	113.9
1940 average	133.4	150.2	132.1	162.0	121.4	121.9
1941-January	135.4	152.4	137.0	160.0	125.2	125.2
June	138.0	149.8	137.0	167.2	125.9	125.9
November	139.2	150.7	136.9	171.2	127.0	127.0

Terms	Metals	Industrial Chemicals	Miscellaneous Industrial Items	Fuel	Fertilizers
1938 average	94.5	114.9	100.5	127.7	105.9
1939 average	88.6	139.2	110.9	133.3	115.4
1940 average	99.5	154.3	118.2	139.9	136.6
1941-January	100.5	156.3	120.1	144.1	141.5
June	102.3	159.2	124.3	144.1	141.5
November	107.6	158.0	123.1	145.9	141.6

b) Retail Price Indices: Parallel with the advance of wholesale prices, the retail prices continued upward. It is noteworthy, however, that the increasing rate of the retail prices in 1941 was extreme-

ly small-margined compared with the rising rate of the wholesale prices in contrast with longer strides with which the retail prices rose compared with the wholesale prices in 1940.

According to a survey by the Bank of Japan, the retail price index based on July, 1937, stood at 152.9 in November, 1941, representing an increase of 1.5 per cent compared with December, 1940, in contrast with a 151.2 or an increase of 8.6 in December, 1940 compared with the corresponding month in 1939 at 139.4. The retail price index in November, 1940, however, was a gain of 65.6 per cent compared with the average index for 1936, preceding the outbreak of the China Affair. The average index for November, 1941 also represented a rise of 1.0 per cent of the whole-year average of 1940, a noticeable decline compared

with a gain of 16.2 per cent in 1940, 11.9 per cent in 1939 and 14.6 per cent in 1938.

Classified by articles, the retail price index of miscellaneous items in November, 1941 recorded a gain of 3.8 per cent compared with December, 1940, while personal effects increased by 2.8 per cent. Fuel and light rose by 0.7 per cent. It is noteworthy that foodstuffs, which gained by 18.1 per cent in 1940 recorded a reactionary fall of 1.4 per cent compared with 1940 during the first 11 months of 1941. Relative figures follow:

RETAIL PRICE INDICES IN 1938-41

(July 1937=100)

Terms	Total Average	Foodstuffs	Light & Fuel	Personal Effects	Miscella- neous
1938 Average	115.8	112.2	127.0	125.0	113.5
1939 Average	129.7	127.2	130.6	141.3	127.0
1940 Average	150.6	150.3	138.1	162.6	148.0
1941-January	150.5	146.0	143.8	160.3	152.6
June	153.2	146.5	144.8	168.7	156.6
November	152.9	145.5	144.8	167.9	157.8

(See also the "Price Trend in Japan" elsewhere in this chapter, where price indices based on December 1929 are given.)

The increasing rate of the living cost index in 1941 was far wider-margined than the gain of the retail prices. The living-cost index compiled by the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics continued to advance. The living-cost index of the labor class in July, 1941 registered a 2.6 per cent increase compared with December in the preceding year, while the living-cost index of the salaried class

gained by 2.5 per cent in the corresponding period. With July, 1941 as the peak, the living-cost indices started to tend downward, and yet the January-November average index for the labor class represented a gain of 2.5 per cent and that of the salaried class 2.3 per cent, compared with the annual average of 1940.

LIVING-COST INDICES 1938-1941

(July 1937=100)

Terms	Salaried Class	Average	Food & Drinks	Labor Class Housing	Light & Fuel	Housing	Miscel. Expenses
1938 Average	109.5	110.1	110.3	103.0	123.1	123.1	104.4
1939 Average	119.9	121.2	123.3	107.3	150.6	150.6	106.9
1940 Average	140.8	143.4	152.8	115.3	185.9	185.9	116.7
1941-January	142.6	144.8	150.2	118.1	195.1	195.1	120.1
June	144.8	147.8	154.0	119.5	201.5	201.5	120.8
November	144.4	144.4	150.8	120.0	208.5	208.5	120.6

3. Capital Promotion in 1941

Cases of capital promotion during 1941 numbered 1,976 aggregating ¥5,365,863,000, according to a survey by the Bank

of Japan. The 1941 figures showed an increase of 240 or 14.0 per cent in number and ¥896,000,000 or 20.0 per cent in value as compared with the correspond-

ing figures in 1940, thus reflecting the smooth progress of the productivity expansion program under the wartime situation.

New establishments, increases of capital as well as flotations of debentures expanded without exception during 1941. Particularly, the increase was noteworthy with new establishments and debenture issues, the former gaining by 48.5 per cent and the latter rising by 31.6 per cent as compared with 1940. Fresh capital promoted during 1941 was divided into 24 per cent in the form of new

establishments, 44.5 per cent in the form of capital increases and 31.5 per cent in the form of debenture issues.

The monthly capital promotion during 1941 ranged between ¥200,000,000 and ¥500,000,000 with the exception of November when it reached the year's high of ¥1,189,000,000, representing 22.2 per cent of the total value of capital promoted during 1941. The November increase was principally due to the capital increases made during that month to the amount of ¥920,000,000 including ¥752,000,000 in power and gas industries.

CAPITAL PROMOTION DURING 1941

(Value in ¥1,000)

Items	1940		1941		1941 Increase over 1940	
	Number	Value	Number	Value	Number	Value
New Establishments	1,344	865,060	1,580	1,285,514	236	420,454
Capital Increase	339	2,316,933	293	2,385,399	*46	68,466
Debentures	53	1,287,500	103	1,694,950	50	407,450
Total	1,736	4,469,493	1,967	5,365,863	240	896,370

Note: The mark "*" denotes decrease.

CAPITAL PROMOTION IN 1941 CLASSIFIED BY MONTH

(Value in ¥1,000)

Months	New Establishments	Capital Increase	Debenture Issues	Total
January	41,522	193,184	85,000	319,706
February	66,720	90,390	155,500	312,610
March	89,216	346,200	138,300	573,716
April	135,364	74,017	160,800	370,181
May	137,969	185,386	113,000	436,355
June	37,147	235,755	90,000	362,992
July	129,475	45,925	258,000	433,400
August	226,166	37,120	103,500	366,786
September	39,010	26,389	135,000	200,399
October	22,442	920,657	246,350	1,189,449
November	22,800	25,653	138,500	186,953
December	119,277	22,500	71,000	212,777
1941 Total	1,285,514	2,385,399	1,694,940	5,365,863
1940 Total	865,060	2,316,933	1,287,500	4,469,493
1939 Total	2,824,463	1,384,140	1,384,140	5,308,405

Wartime industries such as manufacturing industries as well as power and gas accounted for the large part of the capital promotion during 1941. Particularly noteworthy was the expansion of capital in metals and machinery. On the other hand, transportation and com-

munications were subjected to a drastic recession due principally to the difficulties attending the progress of shipbuilding activities because of the scarcity of supply of raw materials and labor. Details follow:

1941 CAPITAL PROMOTION CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY

(Value in ¥1,000)

Items	1940			1941			1941 comp. with 1940	
	No.	Value	% of Value in Total	No.	Value	% of Value in Total	No.	Value
Financing	13	77,611	1.7%	9	4,759	0.1%	—	4 — 72,852
Mining	76	379,686	8.5%	57	319,936	5.9%	—	19 — 59,750
Mfg. Industries	806	1,715,807	38.4%	860	2,247,882	41.9%	+	54 + 532,075
Metals	141	367,385	8.2%	111	918,171	17.1%	—	30 + 550,786
Machinery	207	576,451	12.9%	228	604,688	11.2%	+	21 + 28,237
Chemical	139	593,011	13.3%	193	494,136	9.2%	+	54 — 98,875
Gas & Power	21	365,980	8.2%	31	1,141,409	21.3%	+	10 + 775,420
Agriculture, For- estry & Fishery	24	10,411	0.2%	34	53,125	1.0%	+	10 + 42,714
Transportation & Communi- cations	152	1,007,812	22.5%	197	459,640	8.6%	+	45 — 548,172
Commerce	535	388,091	8.7%	653	590,704	11.0%	+	113 + 202,613
Miscellaneous	109	524,095	11.8%	135	548,408	10.2%	+	26 + 24,313
Total	1,736	4,469,493	100.0%	1,976	5,365,863	100.0%	+	240 + 896,370

Note: (+) indicates increase; (—) decrease.

4. Production and Distribution

Production Situation and Production Increase Measures. Due to the increasing strain in the international situation, particularly since the Anglo-American freezing of Japanese assets, Japan's dependence on third countries became extremely difficult. Under the circumstances, the construction of a high-tensioned defense State by the total mobilization of the nation's strength has become a matter of absolute necessity. In order to cope with the situation, the production increase of important materials and commodities has become increasingly imperative. Despite various handicaps due to the difficulty to obtain raw materials particularly through imports, the production increase in 1941 made a remarkable progress in wartime industries with special emphasis on the heavy industries.

In August, 1941, the Government drafted the materials mobilization plan for the second quarter of 1941, aimed at the speedy strengthening of armaments, stabilization of the self-sufficiency structure within the East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, maintenance of the production of iron and steel and coal, guaranteeing of the minimum supply of living necessities of the nation, and harmonization between the materials mobilization plan and the marine transportation plan. The 1941 productivity expansion plan which was drafted shortly after called

for drastic revision of the old production increase schemes by attaching priority to the self-sufficiency of important defense materials and the maintenance of the supply power in the materials mobilization plan. The plan also placed stress on the acceleration of the development of cardinal defense resources, the nationalization of important machinery and tools and the promotion of the transportation capacity.

Major ordinances which were either newly promulgated or revised as measures for strengthening productivity during 1941 included the revised Japan Iron Manufacturing Company Law, revised Machinery and Tools Production Control Law and the new Major Machinery Production Law in the heavy industries, the new Imperial Fuel Company Law, revised Artificial Oil Production Law, revised Imperial Fuel Industrial Company Law and revised Japan Power Generation and Transmission Law in the fuel industry. In the agricultural department, the Sericultural Industrial Control Law, Farmland Development Law, Lumber Control Law and Rice Emergency Treatment Law were revised during 1941. In order to cope with the new labor situation, the National Labor Registration Law was enacted. Important measures devised in the financial field include the revision of the Extraordinary Industrial Funds Adjustment Law, the special bank laws pertaining to the Industrial Bank of Japan, Agri-

cultural and Industrial Bank and Hokkaido Colonization Bank as well as the Postal Savings Law and the Mutual Credit Associations Law. In the second half of 1941, the Government approved a special appropriation totalling ¥122,000,000 from the National Treasury for the encouragement of the coal production increase.

The enactment of the Industrial Equipment Corporation Law aimed at utilizing idle and non-working industrial facilities, increase of the rice production increase encouragement subsidy, expansion of the issue limit of the Government Rice Note and increase of the subsidy for maintenance of the supply of fertilizers also were emergency measures taken by the Government in 1941 for increasing productivity.

Agricultural Production and Foodstuff Measures The domestic production of rice in 1941 by the second forecast was estimated at 55,462,000 koku, representing a decrease of 5,410,000 koku compared with the actual crop in the preceding year. The wheat and barley crop in 1941 totalled 23,921,000 koku, dropping by 2,908,000 koku compared with 1940. With the domestic production of rice and wheat coming far behind the 1941 production increase goal, the rice production and rice-stocks brought forward to 1942 in Chosen and Taiwan combined increased by 4,000,000 koku, respectively.

The cocoon production in 1941 totalled 68,203,000 kwan or a decrease of 22.1 per cent compared with the preceding year, an inevitable result of the suspension of raw silk exports.

With the object of guaranteeing the necessary supply of foodstuffs under the wartime situation, and thereby stabilizing the national living, the Government, in September, 1941, decided upon the emergency foodstuff measure consisting of three cardinal items, namely: consumption restrictions, maintenance of the supply of protein and fat and storage of foodstuffs for emergency use. The proposed measure also called for the increase of production in 1942 by 6,000,000 koku for wheat, 33,000,000 kwan for sweet potatoes and 20,450,000 kwan for vegetables.

The Farmland Development Law enacted by the Government in 1941 for the purpose of increasing agricultural production provided for the expansion of farmland areas and the grant of a special subsidy for those cultivating new farm-

land or improving the existing one.

The Government also enacted the Agricultural Production Control Ordinance, on the basis of the provisions of the National General Mobilization Law, for exercising control over labor, agricultural implements as well as livestock working on farmland necessary for carrying out agricultural production plans drafted by agricultural associations. Thus, by the expansion of the State control system for farm products and the enactment of the production control ordinance, the Government placed agricultural production in this country under complete State control.

Distribution Control and Completion of Distribution System In view of the increasing necessity for controlling consumption and distribution in order to adjust the supply and demand of commodities and increase in productivity, the Government greatly intensified control over distribution during 1941. For this purpose distribution control regulations were either newly enacted or revised for charcoal for gas generation, raw materials for export articles, paper, molasses, paper-mulberry, edgeworthia chrysantha, old five-gallon tin, glass waste, raw fish and shell-fish, medical articles, manganese, hardened oils, scrap iron, sulphur, wheat and barley, tanning materials, meat, miso, soy, bittern, bittern salt, bromine, etc. Remarkable progress made in the distribution control of daily necessities was particularly noteworthy in 1941. The ticket ration system was also adopted for wheat flour, beer, sake, cooking oil, etc., during 1941.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry carried out a drastic reform of the Central Wholesale Market by abolishing all jobbers and introducing the registration system for the sale of fish and shell-fish. Thus, many measures were taken or studied for smoothing the distribution of daily necessities. The Government also attempted to organize all wholesalers and retailers throughout the country into wholesalers' or retailers' guilds. For this purpose, the Government, through the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, instructed the prefectural governors to draft suitable plans befitting the peculiar conditions of different prefectures for organizing such guilds.

To cope with the increase of the unemployed which is likely to result from such a reorganization of retailers and wholesalers, the Government strengthen-

ed the functions of the National Vocational Guidance Office, the National Labor Training Camp, the National Welfare Bank, etc.

5. Industrial Reorganization and Industrial Management

For the purpose of completing the wartime structure, all available materials, industrial funds, labor and equipments have been mobilized efficiently for the utmost attainment of the national totality power on the basis of various wartime plans drafted by the Government. This inevitably necessitated the execution of comprehensive and well-linked industrial plans centering round the reorganization of different industries. The situation consequently caused the advent of a new rationalization movement. To cope with the new requirements, different industrial control associations were established one after another on the basis of the leadership principle during 1941. Naturally, the adjustment and merger of industrial enterprises, reorganization of smaller and medium-sized enterprises and utilization of idle and non-working facilities became important problems.

Establishment of Industrial Control Associations Ever since the Government's decision on the economic new structure plan, the need of the establishment of industrial control associations had been eagerly urged in various circles. With the Major Industrial Organizations Ordinance legalizing the creation of industrial control associations promulgated on August 30, 1941, the sentiment for the creation of such industrial control associations became particularly active. According to the provisions of the ordinance, the proposed industrial control associations are required to engage in public undertakings as the pivot of wartime operations of planned economy. The activities of the industrial associations, as provided by the ordinance, included: participation in all Government plans affecting industrial production and distribution, control and guidance regarding production and distribution in industries concerned, adjustment and stabilization of the respective industries, promotion of efficiency and improvement of industrial facilities, etc. For this purpose, the proposed industrial associations are invested by the Government with certain extensive authorities on the basis of the so-called priority principle.

On October 30, the Government, through a Cabinet Ordinance, specified the industries to be affected by the Major Industrial Organizations Ordinance which include iron and steel, coal, motors, electric appliances, rolling stock, precision machines, automobiles, cement, mineral products, non-ferrous alloys, foreign trade and shipbuilding. On the basis of this ordinance, the Government ordered the creation of the industrial control association in the iron and steel industry on October 30, mineral products on November 20, electric appliances on November 29, cement on December 2 and motors on December 4.

Industrial Adjustment and Merger of Smaller and Medium-sized Industries To attain the highest efficiency of industrial facilities as well as raw materials and labor, the rational organization of industries became indispensable. This naturally lead to the adjustment and merger of various industrial enterprises, particularly in textile circles.

Parallel with the increasing importance of the construction of a high-tensioned defense State under the mounting strain of the international situation, the concentration of productive facilities, raw materials, labor and funds on important and highly-efficient industries grew more imperative, and stronger control came to be exercised over smaller and medium-sized industries. In connection with the reorganization of the smaller and medium-sized industries, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry on August 23, 1941, announced a special plan, and specified about 11,000 sub-contract factories on November 27.

Utilization of Idle and Non-Working Facilities As a measure to make the best use of idle and non-working industrial facilities, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry submitted to the 77th session of the Imperial Diet the Industrial Equipment Corporation Bill. The bill, which was approved at the session, provided for the creation of the Industrial Equipment Corporation, capitalized at ¥200,000,000, which engages in the purchase or sale of idle or non-working industrial facilities and also mediates for the utilization is also authorized to issue Industrial Equipment debentures to the extent of five times the amount of paid-up capital.

6. Supply-Demand of Labor

Adjustment of Labor Supply and Demand Due to the progress of the war-

time situation, the demand for labor became increasingly active. To cope with the situation, the Government enforced the National General Mobilization Law for properly adjusting the supply and demand of labor and adequately distributing labor.

On March 7, 1941, the Government promulgated the National Labor Registration Law in order to prevent the movement of labor through the distribution of "labor certificates" to 3,000,000 workers throughout the country. Thus, the optional movement of laborers from one factory to another in pursuit of higher wages became no longer possible.

In an attempt to further adjust the supply and demand of labor under the wartime situation, the Labor Adjustment Ordinance was promulgated on December 8, 1941, effective January 10, 1942. The Ordinance provided for the mobilization of the people behind the gun for munitions or productivity expansion industries or other wartime industries in order to stir up the progress of defense production.

Strengthened Control Over Wages
The Ministry of Welfare decided on a special wage-scale plan on the basis of a reply submitted in response to the ministerial inquiry by the Central Wage Commission. The plan fixed the maximum and minimum wages of different classes of laborers and also provided for the elevation of wages of efficient workers within the limit of the maximum average hourly wages in order that the wage control might not interfere with the efficiency of laborers. The control over wages, coupled with the labor registration system, apparently served to completely check the unnecessary move-

ment of labor.

National Universal Labor System In view of the urgent necessity of stabilizing the universal labor system as a means for coping with the strain of the international situation, particularly for adjusting the supply-demand of labor and having it manifest the maximum efficiency, the Cabinet Planning Board and the Ministry of Welfare, after close investigation, decided upon a eight-point labor plan, namely: 1) enhancement of patriotic spirit of labor, 2) adjustment of distribution of labor, 3) acceleration of vocational shift-over, 4) expansion of labor registration system, 5) strengthening of labor control, 6) systematization of labor service, 7) replenishment of housing for labor class, 8) cooperation of civil bodies with the Government. Simultaneously, the President of the Cabinet Planning Board issued a statement stressing the absolute necessity of mobilizing every one of the members of the Japanese nation for patriotic labor services under the wartime situation.

On September 12, 1941, the National General Mobilization Council, on the basis of the provisions of Article 5 of the mobilization law, approved the National Patriotic Labor Ordinance, which was promulgated on November 22 and took effect as from December 1. By the provisions of the foregoing ordinance, men over 14 years and under 40 years and unmarried women over 14 years and under 25 years were legally required to cooperate with the Government in general mobilization activities. For this purpose, about 13,000,000 people of Japan, including males from 16 to 40 years and females from 16 to 25 years, were registered.

GENERAL EMPLOYMENT SITUATION (May 1941)

Industries	a) Persons wanting workers	b) Persons acquiring employment	c) Persons against employment	a) against b)	c) against b)	c) against a)	c) against a) in Jan., 1941
Agriculture	20,290	4,311	4,053	21.2%	94.0%	20.0%	32.2%
Fisheries	47,239	20,085	16,785	42.5%	83.6%	35.5%	10.2%
Mining	26,002	5,682	5,242	21.9%	92.3%	20.2%	18.7%
Industry	335,378	145,607	89,235	43.4%	61.3%	26.6%	25.4%
Commerce	24,469	12,673	4,991	51.8%	39.4%	20.4%	21.2%
Transportation	19,030	12,120	5,063	63.7%	41.8%	26.6%	24.1%
Free Labor	35,112	21,238	8,246	60.5%	38.8%	23.5%	41.4%
Household Assistance	8,039	4,664	2,132	58.0%	45.7%	26.5%	16.3%
Total	515,559	326,280	135,747	43.9%	60.0%	26.3%	24.2%

Note: Survey by Employment Journal (Shokugyo Jihō).

7. Foreign Trade and Exchange

Trade Situation and Trade Policy
Japan's foreign trade, which had suffered considerable set back due to the strengthened ban on imports from Japan by the United States, the scarcity of bottoms and other trade obstacles, made a spasmodic improvement in the first half of 1941 because of the increase of exports of textile goods to the South-Seas regions as well as Near East. The complete suspension of the Siberian route, the one and only trade route left for Japan's exports to Europe following the outbreak of the German-Soviet War in the latter part of June and the freezing of Japanese assets by the United States, Britain, Canada and the Netherlands Indies on July 26, however, served to completely cut Japan from trade with the United States, the Philippines, the Netherlands Indies and Near East. Thus, Japan's foreign trade in the second half of 1941 was confined only to a few Central and South American countries such as Chile, Argentina and Peru, in addition to Thailand and French Indo-China. The importance of the South and Central American market also dwindled because of its geographical conditions and Anglo-American maneuvers. All those surrounding circumstances forced Japan's foreign trade to be swiftly reorganized within the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. At the same time, Japan's trade policy shifted its stress from the promotion of exports and the acquisition of foreign currencies to the balancing of the supply and demand of materials and commodities within the yen-bloc with the third-country trade as supplementary.

Important trade agreements concluded during 1941 included the Japan-French Indo-China Economic Agreement on May 6, the Japan-Soviet Agreement of Trade and Payment on June 11 and the Japan-Thailand 10,000,000-Baht Loan concluded on August 2. Particularly important was the Japan-French Indo-China Economic Agreement which was extremely extensive in scale, providing for the domicile, navigation, customs tariff and trade between the two contracting countries.

Despite great efforts on the part of Japan, the Japanese-Netherlands Indies negotiations ended in rupture in June, 1941. From then the anti-Japanese attitude of the Netherlands Indies became increasingly outspoken, culminating, on July 27, in the notification re-

garding the suspension of the Japan-Netherlands Indies monetary agreement, which had been in operation since the early part of 1941.

Under the circumstances, the interchange of materials and commodities among Japan, Manchoukuo, China, Thailand and French Indo-China became increasingly important. Particular stress was placed on trade among Japan, Manchoukuo and China, with annual plans drafted previously every year for those three countries. For four days starting October 7, 1941, the Japan-Manchoukuo-China Trade Liaison Conference was held at the Cabinet Planning Board to discuss the reorganization of the trade system, expansion of the list of commodities subjected to trade adjustment, adjustment of trade between the yen bloc and the third countries and adjustment of prices of articles exported to China from Japan.

The adjustment and merger of the small-scale and medium-sized traders continued in full swing since 1940, specially since the suspension of trade with third countries in the latter part of 1941. Close on the heels of the establishment of the Japan Trade Promotion Company and the Classified Commodities Purchasing Companies at the end of 1940, export promotion companies and import control companies, trade associations and federations of such associations, all trading with French Indo-China, Thailand, Burma, the Philippines, the Netherlands Indies, etc., organized the Southern Regions Trade Association on April 17. On July 12, the Government revised the South Seas Trade Adjustment Ordinance and authorized the foregoing association to serve as an exclusive export-import adjustment organ.

Parallel with the strengthening of Government compensations for losses resulting from the adjustment of exports. For the purpose, the Government on July 7, 1941, revised the Regulations for Enforcement of the Trade Control Ordinance and extended the limit of compensation from ¥20,000,000 to ¥70,000,000. It may be said that the State control structure of foreign trade was nearly consummated during 1941.

Foreign Exchange The increasing strains of the international situation, which served as a propelling force of the State control over foreign trade, also proved an important factor to stir up the State control over foreign exchange, inseparably related to foreign trade. The

revised Foreign Exchange Control Law approved at the 76th session of the Imperial Diet in the spring of 1941 indicated the first step toward the State control over the maintenance and utilization of Japanese property and assets overseas and the settlement of foreign accounts for smoothing economic operations with foreign countries. On June 1, 1941, the Government adopted a measure to concentrate sterling bills of exchange to the Yokohama Specie Bank for stabilizing sterling bill transactions and utilizing them on a planned basis. To compensate against losses caused thereby, the Government decided to appropriate ¥500,000,000. Effective July 1, 1941, the Government further extended the scope of application of the "concentration" system to all third-country bills totalling 21, exclusive of the Ruble and the Yen-linked currencies. Again on July 7, the Government extended the scope of application of the Europe-bound Exchange Bill Purchasing Licensing System to South and North America as well as the Philippines. Thus, all export bills with the exception of those bound for the Soviet Union and the Yen bloc were placed under State control.

Since the start of 1941, the Government made strenuous efforts to dispense with dependence on the U.S. Dollar in order to cope with the mounting strains of the international situation, particularly the aggravation of the American attitude toward Japan. For this purpose, efforts were directed toward the expansion of the exchange settlement system with the Yen-linked currencies as the pivot. The mutual liquidation agreement of the Yen and the Plastre concluded on the basis of the Japan-French Indo-China Economic Agreement on May 6, 1941, was the culmination of such efforts, and indicated the future policy of exchange settlement by Japan. The freezing of Japanese assets by Britain, the United States, Canada, and the Netherlands Indies in the latter part of July and the retaliatory application of the Foreigners' Transactions Control Regulations based on the Foreign Exchange Control Law and the consequent suspension of exchange relations with the countries linked with the Dollar and Sterling added a fresh impetus to Japan's efforts toward the stabilization of the exchange settlement structure within the East Asia So-prosperity Sphere.

With the Japan-Netherlands Indies

Monetary Agreement suspended by the freezing of Japanese assets by the Netherlands Indies, Japan, on August 2, 1941, concluded a contract with Thailand for a loan of 10,000,000 Bahts in order to avoid the possible effects of the freezing action.

On December 29, 1941, the Ministry of Finance fixed the exchange rates of the Yen against the foreign currencies, effective January 1, 1942, as follows:

Countries	Foreign Currencies	Yen Exchange Rate
Fr. Indo-China	100 Piastres	¥ 97.6
Thailand	100 Bahts	¥155.7
Germany	100 Marks	¥170.5
Italy	100 Liras	¥ 22.35
France	100 Francs	¥ 9.3
Switzerland	100 Francs	¥ 98.9
Sweden	100 Kronas	¥101.5
Portuguese	100 Escudos	¥ 17.3
Argentina	100 Pesos	¥101.8
Brazil	100 Milreis	¥ 21.8
Chile	100 Pesos	¥ 13.75
Peru	100 Sols	¥ 65.5

Meanwhile, the exchange rates of the Yen and Baht were brought to a par in April, 1942, by virtue of the Yen-Baht Parity Agreement concluded between Japan and Thailand.

3. Traffic and Transportation

Strengthened Control Over Land Transportation Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the volume of passenger and freight traffic has continued to sharply increase. This tendency became particularly conspicuous in 1941 due to the drop of the automotive transportation capacity because of the strengthened restrictions over gasoline consumption as well as the shift of marine transportation to land transportation because of the increasing shortage of bottoms.

In order to cope with the situation, the Government decided to strengthen control over transportation on the basis of well-planned diagrams. For the purpose, the National General Mobilization Council on September 12, 1941, deliberated upon and approved the revision of the Land Transportation Control Ordinance which had been enacted in February, 1940. The revision aimed at attaining four cardinal objectives, namely: 1) To strengthen control over transportation in order to attain efficient transportation through the adoption of the priority principle, 2) To utilize existing transportation facilities, 3) To adjust

and merge land transportation enterprises, and 4) To compensate losses caused by the transfer of enterprises or facilities. The revised ordinance, which affected private railways as well as bus and truck transportation enterprises, was promulgated and put into effect on November 20, 1941.

For the dual purpose of increasing the national revenue and absorbing the floating purchasing power, the Ministry of Railways projected a general increase of passenger fares in the latter part of 1941. This plan was approved by the Price Determination Council at the close of October and by the Freight Rates Council in November for enforcement in the early part of 1942.

Increasing Stringency of Bottoms and Progress of Shipping Control The demand for the construction of a high-tensioned defense State inevitably necessitated the communication with the continent while the progress of the European war caused the increasing stringency of bottoms in the world. In order to cope with the situation, the Central Shipping Control Association was created in November, 1941, as the executive organ of freight transportation plans. Thus, the wartime structure of Japan's shipping industry was consummated and the transportation efficiency was greatly improved.

Since the conclusion of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance, Britain and the United States and other anti-Axis countries resorted to various measures to check Japan's commerce and trade. As a result, ocean-going routes of Japan's merchant ships were completely suspended. On the other hand, the volume of transportation of important materials such as iron ore, coal, rice, etc., sharply increased, and an extreme scarcity of bottoms came to prevail in coastal waters. The proper change of the shipping routes of regular liners and tramp ships, adjustment of overlapped routes, mobilization of mechanized and sailing vessels, and other measures to utilize the existing facilities were adopted by the Government and the construction of new ships was greatly accelerated. Special types of ships were designed by the experts of the Ministry of Communications to increase the ship-building efficiency. On August 19, 1941,

the Government decided upon a special plan for State shipping control in order to stabilize the wartime structure of the national shipping industry as a means for speedily expanding the supply of bottoms. The plan called for the exclusive control of the State over shipping, members of the crew and ship-building so that the well-balanced mobilization of those three items might well cope with the wartime requirements. Thus, Japan's shipping control jumped the original autonomous control by the shipping industrialists to the exclusive State control through the medium of the semi-governmental control based on the control over the allotment of bottoms.

By virtue of the foregoing control plan, shipowners were to receive certain fixed charterages from a strongly-powered control organ to be established as a special juridical person in accordance with the provisions of Article 18 of the National General Mobilization Law while the shipping companies were to receive certain fixed commissions from that juridical person for their navigation operations which they execute by the consignment of the juridical person. As a result, the shipping industry as a profit-making enterprise for transporting the international commodities, stabilizing commercial rights and acquiring foreign currencies has come to lose its initial functions.

In order to take charge of the general supervision of shipping activities under the new control system, the Ministry of Communications created the Board of Maritime Affairs by elevating the status of the Shipping Control Bureau on December 19 with Vice-Admiral Kiyoshi Hara as first President.

Unification of Traffic Facilities In view of the absolute necessity of unifying the land, sea and air traffic policies in Japan, Manchoukuo and China as a means of stabilizing the East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere and constructing a high-tensioned defense State, a fundamental traffic policy was drafted and approved at a Cabinet meeting on February 14, 1941. For the same purpose, the portfolios of Communications and Railways were held concurrently by the same State Minister in the 2nd and 3rd Konoe Cabinet as well as in the Tojo Cabinet which succeeded the 3rd Konoe Cabinet.

CHAPTER XI

FOREIGN TRADE

NOMURA GOMEI KAISHA



Osaka, Nippon

Capital Paid-up - - - - - Yen 20,000,000

THE NOMURA BANK, LIMITED

Capital Yen 20,000,000 Reserve Funds Yen 19,469,000

Head Office: Osaka, Nippon Branches: Osaka, Tokyo, Nagoya, Etc.

THE NOMURA SECURITIES CO., LIMITED

Capital Yen 10,000,000

Head Office: Osaka, Nippon Branches: Tokyo, Nagoya, Kyoto, Etc.

THE NOMURA TRUST COMPANY, LIMITED

Capital Yen 10,000,000

Head Office: Osaka, Nippon Branches: Tokyo, Kyoto, Etc.

NOMURA LIFE INSURANCE CO., LIMITED

Capital Yen 2,000,000

Head Office: Tokyo, Nippon Branches: Osaka, Kyoto, Nagoya, Etc.

NOMURA SHOKUSAN BOEKI KAISHA LTD.

Capital Yen 10,000,000 Head Office: Osaka, Nippon

Branches: Tokyo, Heijo, Tientsin, Singapore, New York, etc.

N. V. Nomura Oost-Indische Cultuur Maatschappij

(NOMURA EAST INDIES DEVELOPMENT CO. LTD.)

Capital F 5,000,000 Head Office: Bandjermasin, Dutch Borneo

NOMURA & COMPANY, (S.S.) LIMITED

Capital Paid-up S. \$1,000,000 Head Office: Singapore

COMPANIA AGRICOLA NOMURA LIMITED

Capital Paid-up 2,000,000\$00 Head Office: Estado Do Parana Brasil

THE CHOYA SHIRTS MFG. CO., LIMITED

Capital Paid-up Yen 500,000

Head Office: Osaka, Nippon Branches: Tokyo, Shanghai

NOMURA SHOE COMPANY, LIMITED

Capital Paid-up Yen 1,000,000

Head Office: Tokyo, Nippon Branches: Osaka, Fengtien

NOUVELLE CALEDONIE MINING CO., LIMITED

Capital Yen 5,000,000 Head Office: Tokyo

NOMURA MINING COMPANY, LIMITED

Capital Paid-up Yen 10,000,000 Head Office: Tokyo

Nomura Securities Co., Limited of Manchoukuo

Capital Yen 1,000,000

Head Office: Fengtien Branches: Dairen, Hsinking

LA SOCIETE LE FUEL

Capital F. 5,000,000 Head Office & Mill: French New Caledonia

NOMURA STEEL PRODUCTS CO., LIMITED

Capital Yen 2,500,000

Head Office: Tokyo Works: Ichikawa, Funabashi, (Chiba Pref.)

NITTO SEIKO COMPANY, LIMITED

Capital Yen 1,500,000 Head Office: Osaka Works: Hiroshima

MUKDEN METALLIC INDUSTRY CO., LTD.

Capital Yen 300,000 Head Office & Works: Mukden

CHAPTER XI

FOREIGN TRADE

Japan's foreign trade for the last 70 years can be divided into five periods, the first, before the Sino-Japanese War; the second, after the Sino-Japanese War to the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War; the third, after the Russo-Japanese War to the outbreak of the World War; the fourth, the period following the World War and the fifth, the period after 1937. (For further historical explanations see the Japan Year Book, 1937, pp. 409, 410).

Foreign Trade of Japan in 1939

General Trend of Foreign Trade
Japan's foreign trade in 1939 increased greatly despite the many and various economic control measures taken by the Government. The total trade volume of the Japanese Empire, inclusive of the colonial trade with foreign countries, increased by 23.1 per cent over 1938 and amounted to ¥7,060,000,000, thus almost nearing the 1937 mark of ¥7,270,000,000, which is a remarkable advance after the depression of 1938.

Exports in 1939 aggregated ¥3,930,000,000, far exceeding the total of the preceding year and establishing a new record in the history of Japan's foreign trade, while imports gained by 10.2 per cent over 1938 to ¥3,127,000,000, thus almost nearing the 1937 level. The trade balance thus improved from an export excess of ¥60,000,000 in 1938 to one of ¥805,000,000. This striking improvement in the trade balance was certainly an abnormal phenomenon for Japan, where ordinarily an import excess is the rule, and where trade has been placed under various control measures since the outbreak of the China Affair, but it has to be reorganised that the success was largely attributable to a notable expansion of the Empire's exports to the yen bloc, which might be termed quasi-domestic trade.

The extent of this trade with the yen bloc is well testified to by the fact that the balance of Japan's trade with the bloc in 1939 recorded an export excess of ¥1,080,000,000 while the trade with third countries resulted in an import excess amounting to ¥408,000,000, though

trade with third countries did make a noteworthy advance, rising by 20.1 per cent in the case of exports and 6.5 per cent in that of imports; the import excess dwindled by ¥168,000,000. Since the outbreak of the China Affair, import control has been steadily strengthened, with the object of improving the balance of international accounts and facilitating imports of munition materials. Consequently, imports of non-urgent and non-necessary materials as well as raw materials for the manufacture of export articles have been strictly controlled, though the Government has made great efforts for a smooth distribution of supplies for the manufacture of export goods as a positive means of promoting exports and fostering import capacity, but restraints resulting from various control measures have been inevitable.

It should be noted, however, that the remarkable expansion of the trade volume of the Empire in the face of the various handicaps of wartime control certainly emphasizes the strength of Japan's national economy. As long as Japan has to depend on third countries for the supply of her principal raw materials, however, the export promotion policy should be emphasized from the standpoint of maintaining the balance of accounts in trade with third countries. The urgent necessity of developing Continental resources is also being keenly appreciated in this connection.

Japan's Trade with the Yen Bloc and Third Countries
Japan's trade with the yen bloc, that is, with Manchoukuo, the Kwantung Leased Territory and China, in 1939, amounted to ¥1,747,000,000 in exports and ¥683,000,000 in imports, the former gaining by ¥581,000,000 and the latter by ¥119,000,000 over the 1938 figures. The export trade with Manchoukuo expanded parallel with the progress of resources development operations in that State and the resultant increase in the demand for productive and consumption materials. The progress of construction and pacification activities in China served to re-

markably raise the demand in that territory for Japanese goods. The advance of Japan's imports from the yen bloc was a result of a steady increase in the arrivals of beans and bean-cake from Manchoukuo and raw cotton, wool and coal from China.

The trade with third countries in 1939 was divided into ¥1,529,000,000 in exports and ¥2,235,000,000 in imports, the increase over the preceding year amounting to ¥305,000,000 in the former and ¥136,000,000 in the latter. The import excess in trade with third countries declined from ¥575,000,000 in 1938 to ¥406,000,000 in 1939. This noteworthy expansion of Japan's exports to third countries was partly attributable to an increase in international purchasing power due to worldwide prosperity accompanying the progress of national-defense industrial operations in leading countries after the second half of 1938 and the return of a business boom in the United States, and partly to the sharp gain in export prices caused by a sudden and noticeable rise in the demand for materials in different countries after the outbreak of the European hostilities. Various export promotion measures adopted by the Government also played an important part.

Among major import articles, imports of wheat, wool, sugar and 'others' dwindled sharply on account of import restrictions. On the other hand, imports of raw materials for producing export articles, such as raw cotton, as well as materials needed for productivity expansion operations rose markedly.

Changes in Organization of Trade
As long as import restrictions aim at facilitating imports of munition materials and commodities for emergency requirements within the country's limited importing capacity, it is quite natural that priority should be given to importations of these wartime materials. On the other hand, the stabilization of the domestic supply of raw materials for manufacturing export articles has become an important problem from the standpoint of accelerating and promoting exports as the basis of increasing import capacity. In this connection, the Government has endeavored to cope with the situation by adopting the link system, which deserves special mention for the part it has played in the remarkable results of the trade of 1939.

Japan's imports in 1939 increased in general, except in wholly manufactured articles. The increasing rate of imports of 'manufactures for further use in manufacturing' was the most remarkable. It is also noteworthy that imports of raw materials, which account for more than 48 per cent of the total import trade, rose by 9.1 per cent over 1938. Of those raw materials, imports of raw cotton, heavy oil, iron ore, etc., and hides and leathers, grouped under the list of 'manufactures for further use in manufacturing,' made notable gains. Machinery and tools, included among wholly manufactured goods, also rose conspicuously. This tendency clearly reflects the progress of the productivity expansion measure and the export promotion plan in operation. At the same time, the increase of imports of peas and beans in the foodstuffs group, and coal and oil-cake in the raw materials group, is noted to be indicative of the progress of the Continental resources development activities.

A general advance marked exports in 1939. The increasing rate was specially noteworthy with exports of raw materials and foodstuffs. The ¥40,000,000 gain in the exports of aquatic products and the ¥39,000,000 rise in tinned and bottled foodstuffs were largely attributable to the outbreak of the European War. On the other hand, wheat flour, which had gained in exports in 1938 over 1937, receded both in quantity and value because of the Government control over shipments to the yen bloc in 1939. The biggest gain in exports in the raw materials group was in lumber, due to the increase of shipments to the yen bloc. Exports of other raw materials, however, were generally depressed. Exports of partly manufactured goods rose both in volume and value, principally because of the increase in raw silk, cotton yarns and other fibrous materials. The remarkable expansion in raw silk exports reflects the business boom in the United States, and the phenomenal rise in raw silk export prices.

Exports of wholly manufactured goods, accounting for nearly 60 per cent of the total exports of the nation, recorded an advance amounting to nearly ¥370,000,000. Of these, papers, iron manufactures, machinery and tools, principally catering for the yen bloc, sharply advanced, the increase in these three items alone aggregating more

than ¥100,000,000 or nearly one-third of the total increase of the exports of wholly manufactured goods. Of fibrous industrial manufactures, artificial silk tissues increased most, exports gained both to the yen bloc and to third countries. Exports of cotton tissues slightly fell back as a result of the Government's control over shipments to the yen bloc, but the fact that they dropped by only ¥290,000 clearly shows that exports to third countries made a striking increase, this being attributable partly to various export promotion measures adopted by the Government, including the link system, though this served to reduce the unit export prices of yarns and grey tissues as cotton merchants hastened to make speedy sales in order to quickly get supplies of raw cotton under the link. The quantity of cotton tissues exported last year increased by as much as 260,000,000 square yards while the value made a slight decline; since the outbreak of hostilities in Europe, however, export prices have taken an upward turn again.

Progress of Export Promotion Measures Since the spring of 1939, the promotion of the export trade as a means of increasing imports of munition materials has become an important item of the wartime trade policy. Originally, export promotion measures were confined largely to a limited field of trade activities, such as for stabilizing the supply of raw materials for manufacturing export goods or for smooth trade financing. As the margin of commodity prices in Japan and in overseas markets steadily widened, however, it became difficult even to prevent the steady decline of exports through the stabilization of raw material supplies. Export promotion; then, came to be studied and discussed as a link in national economic policy, and the price policy has to be examined not only as a means of stabilizing the national living but also from the viewpoint of export trade promotion.

(1) Stabilization of Supply of Raw Materials for Manufacturing Export Goods:

(a) **Commodity-classified link system:** This system recognizes imports of raw materials against the exports concerned, mostly fibrous materials and certain miscellaneous goods. Great importance has been made in the system since it was originally introduced, but various marked defects still exist

as, for instance and as mentioned above, in the case of cotton tissues linked with raw cotton.

(b) **Special link system:**

This link system, in operation since January 10, 1939, as a substitute for the composite link system, has been applied to 24 items, including beer. This system differs from the commodity-classified link system in that it permits the importation of raw materials necessary for manufacturing or finishing the certain export products concerned in advance of their actual exportations. The basis of the special link system is the value of the export products and import raw materials, whereas the commodity-classified link system is based on the quantity of manufactured products to be exported and raw materials to be imported. The term of obligatory exportation of the products manufactured from imported raw materials is fixed at from six months to one year. Because of various technical difficulties involved in the application of the special link system, the number of articles to which the system is now applied, namely, 24 items, is not likely to be increased.

(c) With the object of further facilitating and stabilizing the supply of raw materials for manufacturing export goods, the Government has given special consideration to raw materials technically difficult to subject to the link system. In this connection, companies specializing in the distribution of raw materials for manufacturing export articles have been established in eight principal cities, including Tokyo, their task being to accelerate the supply and distribution of raw materials to small-scaled and medium-sized manufacturers. At present, 34 export articles are handled by these companies, which are control companies financed by public corporations to the extent of about 50 per cent. A steady expansion is predicted for them in the future.

(d) The foreign exchange fund was established by the Government under the charge of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry in July 1938, the object of the fund being to find the necessary finance for the purchase of raw materials to be used in the manufacture of export products. The conditions for getting loans from this fund were loosened on February 3, 1939, to enable small-scaled and medium-sized industrialists specializing in the production of export articles to get easier access

to raw materials. As from that day, the interest rate on loans from the fund was reduced from 2.5 per cent to 2.0 per cent, and the loan term was extended from four months to six months.

(2) Trade Financing Operations:

Major trade financing measures adopted during 1939 were the revision of the system for compensating losses on export advances, the revision of the regulations for enforcing the Export Compensation Law, and the adoption of a system for compensating losses on advances to manufacturers of export goods. The system for compensating losses on export advance has been in operation since August 1938, and was revised to cope with the new developments of the trade situation on March 13, in 1939. The revision expanded the scope of those qualified for utilizing the fund.

(3) Adjustment of Exports to Yen Bloc:

In the second half of 1939, the Government decided to restrict exports to the yen bloc for the reason that sales to yen-bloc markets were little effective for acquiring foreign currencies. The Government had already taken various measures for restricting exports thence, but the restrictions were further strengthened parallel with the enactment of an ordinance fixing prices at the September 18 level, the Government enforcing an ordinance for adjusting exports to Manchoukuo, Kwantung and China as from September 25, 1939. Despite such governmental efforts, however, shipments of Japanese goods to yen-bloc markets steadily increased. In this connection, experts consider it necessary to strengthen restrictions over the consumption of Japanese products in the yen bloc parallel with the similar measures in operation in Japan.

Major Trade Problems in 1939 Parallel with the increasing strains of the international political situation and strengthened trade control measures adopted by foreign countries, the adjustment of trade relations with foreign powers has become further necessary. Toward the end of March 1939, the Anglo-Indian Trade Agreement was concluded favorably toward the British side, at least in so far as cotton tissues were concerned. Because Japanese cotton fabrics compete with British cotton tissues on the Indian market, close attention is being paid to the progress of the third Anglo-Japanese com-

mercial negotiations now under way. The third Japanese-Australian Commercial Agreement was concluded on June 27, 1939. That agreement provided that Japan was to import two-thirds of her total annual imports of wool from Australia and to export to Australia cotton and artificial silk tissues to an amount not exceeding 51,250,000 square yards. The application of the intermediate tariff to Japanese cotton and artificial silk tissues imported by Australia was also provided for in the agreement. Following the outbreak of the European War, the Commonwealth Government of Australia promulgated a wool export control ordinance, but has agreed to license shipments of wool to Japan amounting to about 300,000 bales annually. In the early part of the second half of 1939, a Japanese-German Commercial Agreement was concluded to increase the dependency of the two contracting parties on each other for supplies of principal goods. This agreement, however, was nullified in fact as a result of the outbreak of the second European War.

On July 26, 1939, the United States Government suddenly notified to the Japanese Government its intention to abrogate the American-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, concluded in 1911. As the reason, the Washington Government stated that the trade relations between the two countries had undergone a substantial change since its conclusion and that the provisions of the treaty had come to require new consideration. The abrogation was given at a six-month notice. In those six months no positive step was taken by either of the two countries for concluding a new treaty to replace the old, and the treaty lapsed on January 25, 1940. In its notification, the United States Government stated that the abrogation of the treaty became necessary to allow it to cope with new developments and protect and promote American rights and interests. At the same time, it may be taken that the step was taken as a political gesture on the part of the Washington Government to the American public, for, in view of the extremely favorable balance to the U.S. of trade with Japan, it is quite plain that the abrogation hardly aimed at adjusting trade relations with Japan. Political developments in the United States as well as in the Far East will prove a deciding factor in future com-

mercial dealings between Japan and the United States.

European War and Japan's Foreign Trade In view of the fact that the phenomenal expansion of Japan's export trade at the time of the first World War came in the third year of hostilities and that the present European War, expected to be more or less prolonged, is still in its initial stage, it would be difficult to predict the possible extent of the influence of the present war on Japan's foreign trade. The time is not sufficiently ripe for the advent of a wartime trade boom in this country. The general trend of the export trade during the last five months of last year (the five months directly following the outbreak of the war), however, serves to give an inkling of the situation. In the last half of 1939, while shipments to the belligerents in Europe fell off sharply, a noteworthy increase was noted in exports to British India, the Dutch East Indies, Australia, the United States, Central and South America, etc., different factors accounted for the rise. For example, the increase in exports to the United States was largely attributable to the price advance of raw silk.

In this connection, close attention should be paid to the rise in unit export prices of major export items in the latter half of the year. In December, exports of raw silk totalled 3,569,100 kin or 25 per cent less in quantity than in the corresponding month of 1938, but amounted to ¥70,357,697 in value, or 75 per cent more than in the same month of the previous year. The unit export price rose 133.7 per cent in that one year. The rise in unit prices of the major export items in the last five months of 1939 is shown by Table B, and reflects the general upward tendency of prices in the international market. Figures in that table show that unit export prices of tinned or bottled foodstuffs at the end of 1939 rose by 79.4 per cent over a year ago, and those of raw silk jumped by as much as 133.7 per cent, those of cotton and rayon tissues, some of Japan's most important export items, also gained markedly. Thus, it is noted that the expansion of Japan's exports after the outbreak of the European War, principally to the non-belligerent countries, failed to make any noteworthy quantitative increase, but was mostly attributable to the gain in unit export prices.

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE EMPIRE (Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Exports	Imports	Excess of Imports
1930	1,518,574	1,680,314	161,740
1931	1,179,212	1,319,406	140,193
1932	1,457,296	1,524,521	67,206
1933	1,932,069	2,017,504	85,435
1934	2,258,081	2,400,495	142,414
1935	2,603,152	2,617,910	14,758
1936	2,797,599	2,927,975	130,377
1937	3,318,820	3,954,726	635,905
1938	2,896,770	2,836,334 (Exp. exc.)	60,436
1939	3,932,926	3,127,460 (Exp. exc.)	805,466
1940	3,972,400	3,709,035 (Exp. exc.)	263,365

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports over Exports
1900	204,429	287,261	491,691	82,831
1901	252,349	255,816	508,166	3,467
1902	258,303	271,731	530,034	13,428
1903	289,502	317,135	606,637	27,633
1904	319,260	371,360	690,621	52,099

FOREIGN TRADE

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports over Exports
1905	321,533	488,538	810,071	167,004
1906	423,754	418,784	842,539	4,970
				(Export exc.)
1907	432,412	494,467	926,880	62,054
1908	378,245	436,257	814,503	58,011
1909	413,112	394,198	807,311	18,913
				(Export exc.)
1910	458,428	404,233	922,662	5,804
1911	447,433	513,805	961,239	66,371
1912	526,981	618,992	1,145,974	92,010
1913	632,460	729,431	1,361,891	96,971
1914	591,101	595,735	1,186,837	4,634
1915	703,306	532,449	1,240,756	175,857
				(Export exc.)
1916	1,127,468	756,427	1,883,896	371,040
				(Export exc.)
1917	1,603,005	1,035,811	2,638,816	567,139
				(Export exc.)
1918	1,962,100	1,668,143	3,630,244	293,956
				(Export exc.)
1919	2,098,872	2,173,459	4,272,332	74,587
1920	1,948,394	2,336,174	4,284,569	387,780
1921	1,252,837	1,614,154	2,866,992	361,317
1922	1,637,451	1,890,308	3,527,760	252,856
1923	1,447,750	1,982,230	3,429,981	534,479
1924	1,807,034	2,453,402	4,260,437	646,367
1925	2,305,589	2,572,657	4,878,247	267,068
1926	2,004,727	2,377,484	4,422,212	332,756
1927	1,992,317	2,179,153	4,171,471	186,836
1928	1,971,955	2,196,314	4,168,270	224,359
1929	2,148,618	2,216,240	4,364,858	67,621
1930	1,469,852	1,546,070	3,015,923	76,218
1931	1,146,981	1,235,675	2,382,656	88,693
1932	1,409,992	1,431,461	2,841,453	21,469
1933	1,861,045	1,917,219	3,778,266	56,174
1934	2,171,924	2,282,601	4,454,526	110,677
1935	2,499,072	2,472,235	4,971,307	26,837
				(Export exc.)
1936	2,692,976	2,763,681	5,456,657	70,705
1937	3,175,418	3,783,177	6,958,595	607,759
1938	2,689,677	2,663,440	5,353,117	26,237
				(Export exc.)
1939	3,576,370	2,917,666	6,494,036	658,704
				(Export exc.)

RATE OF TRADE EXPANSION OF JAPAN PROPER AND
KARAFUTO IN THE PAST 5 YEARS

	Export Amount in ¥1,000	Rate of Increase as compared with the Previous Year	Imports Amount in ¥1,000	Rate of Increase as Compared with the Previous Year	Excess of Imports(—)or Exports(+)
1935	2,499,073	15%	2,472,236	9%	(+) 26,837
1936	2,692,976	7.5	2,763,681	11.8	(—) 70,705
1937	3,175,418	17.9	3,783,177	36.9	(—) 607,759
1938	2,689,677	(—) 15.3	2,663,440	(—) 29.5	(+) 26,237
1939	3,576,370	32.2	2,917,666	9.5	(+) 658,704

YEARLY COMPARISON

361

RATIO OF EXPORTS CLASSIFIED BY CONTINENTS

Japan Proper and Karafuto (In ¥1,000)

Continents	1938			1939		
	Value	Ratio to Total Exports		Value	Ratio to Total Exports	Ratio to Exports of 1938
Asia	1,664,625	61.8%		2,320,265	64.8%	139.3%
Europe	261,037	9.7		238,256	6.6	91.2
North America	440,404	16.3		658,730	18.4	149.5
Central America	29,415	1.0		43,657	1.2	148.4
South America	60,151	2.2		67,111	1.8	111.4
Africa	137,336	5.1		152,909	4.2	111.3
Oceania	96,610	3.5		95,443	2.6	98.7
Total	2,689,677	100.0		3,576,370	100.0	132.5

RATIO OF IMPORTS CLASSIFIED BY CONTINENTS

Japan Proper and Karafuto (In ¥1,000)

Continents	1938			1939		
	Value	Ratio to Total Imports		Value	Ratio to Total Imports	Ratio to Imports of 1938
Asia	1,023,585	38.4%		1,181,001	40.4%	114.4
Europe	376,269	14.1		309,935	10.6	82.3
North America	1,006,565	37.7		1,128,415	38.6	112.1
Central America	7,314	0.2		3,481	0.1	47.5
South America	91,235	3.4		115,730	3.9	126.8
Africa	60,621	2.2		92,788	3.1	153.0
Oceania	97,850	3.6		86,317	2.9	88.1
Total	2,663,440	100.0		2,917,666	100.0	109.5

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF JAPAN PROPER AND KARAFUTO BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES

(In ¥1,000)

Group Number	Merchandise of Exports	1937	1938	1939
I	Plants and animals			
II	Grains, flours, starches & seeds	4,226	4,131	6,231
III	Beverages, comestibles & tobacco	45,963	74,735	78,989
IV	Skins, hairs, bones, horns, teeth, tusks, shells etc. & manufactures thereof	203,159	226,842	360,983
V	Oils, fats, waxes & manufactures thereof	21,979	13,405	13,167
VI	Drugs, chemicals, medicines compounds or preparations thereof & explosives	75,391	52,330	88,264
VII	Dyes, pigments, coatings & filling matters	70,149	73,652	107,502
VIII	Yarns, threads, twines, cordages & materials thereof	20,531	21,315	37,060
IX	Tissues & manufactures thereof	598,346	474,630	694,867
X	Clothing & accessories thereof	1,000,019	731,240	808,151
XI	Papers, pulp & paper manufactures	229,912	145,012	168,466
XII	Minerals & manufactures thereof	60,389	80,937	120,104
XIII	Potteries & glass	23,949	24,564	33,534
XIV	Ores & metals	87,544	66,383	75,679
XV	Metal manufactures	125,422	121,004	139,031
XVI	Clocks, watches, scientific instruments, firearms, vessels, vehicles & machinery	98,813	100,113	147,826
		227,699	267,237	370,323

		1937	1938	1939
XVII	Miscellaneous articles	203,676	170,778	264,051
	Mail-matters	34,375	30,231	50,047
	Re-exported goods	43,877	11,157	12,097
Group				
Number	Merchandise of Imports	1937	1938	1939
I	Plants & animals	3,194	1,647	2,038
II	Grains, flours, starches & seeds	208,981	177,191	212,446
III	Beverages, comestibles & tobacco	85,115	50,768	50,647
IV	Skins, hairs, bones, horns, teeth, tusks, shells, etc. & manufactures thereof	69,734	39,827	47,669
V	Oils, fats, waxes & manufactures thereof	297,878	326,934	262,518
VI	Drugs, chemicals, medicines compounds or preparations thereof & explosives	251,841	181,768	170,578
VII	Dyes, pigments, coatings & filling matters	30,580	9,351	9,961
VIII	Yarns, threads, twines, cordages & materials thereof	1,208,359	571,657	592,307
IX	Tissues & manufactures thereof	17,341	5,632	2,564
X	Clothing & accessories thereof	1,515	319	175
XI	Pulp for paper making, papers, paper manufactures, books & pictures	14,259	48,364	60,249
XII	Minerals & manufactures thereof	128,020	121,137	162,027
XIII	Potteries, glass, & glass manufactures	4,739	4,240	3,633
XIV	Ores & metals	901,131	661,895	848,500
XV	Metal manufactures	12,019	8,430	5,175
XVI	Clocks, watches, scientific instruments, firearms, vehicles, vessels & machinery	243,292	313,362	288,212
XVII	Miscellaneous articles	160,904	123,595	178,524
	Mail-matters	11,274	5,885	7,195
	Hand-baggages of travellers	1,134	494	886
	Re-imported goods	6,857	11,047	12,326

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS IN 1939
COMPARED WITH 1938

Japan Proper and Karafuto

EXPORTS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Articles		1938		1939		Increase or Decrease	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Comestibles			300,214		431,958		131,744
(1) Crude			49,199		105,268		56,069
Rice & paddy	100 kin	138,599	2,265	335,504	5,825	196,905	3,560
Beans & peas	"	646,939	6,972	565,190	8,417	-81,749	1,445
Marine products	"	1,119,680	21,931	1,940,074	61,867	820,394	39,936
Others			18,031		29,159		11,128
(2) Manufactured			251,015		326,690		76,675
Wheat flour	100 kin	4,758,869	60,715	3,449,266	54,190	-1,309,603	6,525
Tea	"	280,002	12,063	391,166	23,461	111,164	11,398
Refined sugar	"	2,267,853	23,654	1,860,848	28,676	-407,005	5,022
Comestibles in tin and bottle	"	2,526,234	92,819	3,037,301	192,037	511,067	39,218
(Tin included)							
Others			61,764		88,326		26,562
Materials			105,185		183,382		78,197
(1) Raw			6,103		7,149		1,046
Insecticide	100 kin	77,032	10,147	669,131	9,665	-77,350	-481
Coal	Long ton	746,481	46,887		128,157		81,270
Wood			42,047		38,410		-3,638
Others							

BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES

363

1939
264,051
50,047
12,087

1939
2,038
12,446
50,647

47,669
62,518
70,578
9,961

12,307
2,564
175

40,249
12,027
3,633
5,500
175

212
524
155
856
226

44
10
15
4
5

12
44
10
15
4
5

12
44
10
15
4
5

12
44
10
15
4
5

Articles		1938		1939		Increase or Decrease	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
(2) Manufactured							
Vegetable oil	100 kin	388,188	672,232		948,882		276,650
Raw silk	"	477,471	8,572	682,178	18,946	293,990	10,370
Cotton yarns	"	315,795	364,124	386,029	506,844	-91,442	142,720
Rayon yarns	"	166,606	39,355	626,249	71,094	310,454	31,739
Copper	"	113,456	17,888	277,760	29,349	111,154	11,461
Brass	"	18,741	8,636	142,651	10,122	29,195	1,486
Others	"		1,812	11,822	1,089	-6,919	-723
Manufactured goods			231,849		311,438		79,593
Silk tissues 1,000 sq. yd.	90,652		1,569,597		1,939,305		369,708
Rayon tissues	"	337,122	49,357	59,666	47,395	-30,986	-1,957
Cotton tissues	"	2,518,081	115,762	309,971	137,360	-27,151	21,598
Woollen tissues	"	28,071	404,240	2,445,538	403,948	264,728	-292
Knitted goods 1,000 doz.	14,379		46,845	26,001	51,821	-1,970	4,976
Hats, caps & bonnets	"	2,154	40,818	13,796	40,237	-583	-581
Buttons	1,000 gross	23,260	11,092	2,196	14,326	42	3,234
Paper	100 kin	2,483,851	9,730	27,902	11,700	4,642	1,970
Cement	"	8,190,534	52,127	3,171,316	77,945	687,465	25,818
Potteries			6,411	11,642,755	11,548	3,452,221	5,137
Glass & manufactures			40,477		48,624		8,147
Iron manufactures			25,886		27,055		1,169
Gum tire	100 kin	78,902	52,231		76,256		24,025
Machines			7,799	107,984	9,545	29,082	1,746
Toys			156,475		209,340		52,865
Others			24,991		22,019		-2,972
Miscellaneous articles			525,361		750,186		224,825
Total of Japanese produce & manufactures			31,292		60,718		29,426
Re-exported articles			2,678,520		3,564,245		885,725
Grand total of exports			11,157		12,096		939
			2,689,677		3,576,341		886,664

IMPORTS

Articles		1938		1939		Increase or Decrease	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Foodstuffs							
(1) Crude produce							
Rice & paddy	100 kin	378,275	199,246		230,729		31,483
Wheat	"	1,104,416	157,444		183,782		26,338
Beans & peas	"	13,884,618	2,808	729,441	6,288	351,166	3,480
Others	"		9,557	539,116	4,091	-565,300	-5,466
(2) Products			102,076	13,727,013	123,576	-157,605	21,500
Sugar			43,003		49,827		6,824
Fresh beef	100 kin	639,858	41,802		46,947		5,145
Others	"	120,211	5,241	13,690	140	-626,168	-5,101
Materials			4,414	107,227	4,163	-12,984	-251
Oil yielding materials			32,147		42,644		10,497
Crude rubber	100 kin	3,167,080	1,295,659		1,414,089		118,430
Sulphate of ammonium	"	784,372	28,790	2,672,233	31,998	-404,847	3,208
Phosphorite	"	4,930,390	51,374	717,202	57,491	-87,170	6,117
Oil cake	"	9,402,824	31,710	1,372,313	8,240	-3,558,077	-23,470
Raw cotton	"	11,264,409	19,281	13,049,847	25,410	3,647,023	6,129
Hemp & other	"	9,378,454	60,112	15,508,103	103,957	4,243,694	3,845
Wool			436,835	10,093,418	462,008	714,964	5,173
Vegetable fiber	"	881,889	94,426	801,688	72,590	-80,201	-21,836
	"	1,261,597	27,306	1,411,347	38,209	149,750	10,903

FOREIGN TRADE

Articles	Long ton	1938		1939		Increase or Decrease	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Coal		3,682,531	67,217	3,794,710	78,361	112,179	11,144
Wood			28,178		32,325		4,147
Wheat bran	100 kin	2,115,583	8,932	1,752,476	8,412	—363,107	—520
Others			441,498		495,088		53,590
Manufactures for materials			702,009		859,903		157,894
Hides & skins	100 kin	489,384	27,826	507,469	30,574	18,085	2,748
Synthetic color	"	4,216	2,838	5,751	3,445	1,535	607
Pulp	"	2,386,181	41,059	2,834,434	56,538	448,753	15,479
Others			630,286		769,346		139,060
Wholly manufactured articles			447,904		390,655		—57,249
Printing paper	100 kin	55,266	718	263	8	—55,003	—710
Machines			236,354		249,870		13,516
Others			210,832		140,777		—70,055
Miscellaneous articles			7,473		9,993		2,520
Total of foreign produce & manufactures			2,652,291		2,905,369		253,078
Re-imported articles			11,046		12,325		1,279
Grand total of imports			2,663,337		2,917,694		254,357

Note:—Figures may slightly differ from those in other tables, because this table is compiled by the Finance Ministry, while figures in other tables are based on the report of the Trade Bureau, Ministry of Commerce and Industry.
(100 kin=One picul)

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥1,000)

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Raw silk	407,118	864,124	506,845	U.S.A.	22,139	2,407	10,162
U.S.A.	325,225	297,882	437,611	Chile	7,951	4,289	8,772
Great Britain	31,430	26,175	36,920	Aden	9,891	6,285	8,550
France	26,111	24,631	16,180	Anglo-Egyptian			
Australia	8,132	6,461	9,381	Sudan	12,108	10,162	7,505
Switzerland	433	177	1,375	Burma	—	6,313	6,991
British India	8,460	1,520	581	Philippine Is.	12,057	1,963	5,985
Italy	269	351	214	Egypt	10,509	3,346	5,811
Cotton tissues	573,065	404,240	403,946	Straits			
Yen Bloc	96,470	79,308	20,672	Settlements	12,231	5,053	5,451
China	11,296	23,911	10,908	Venezuela	5,401	2,694	4,554
Kwantung L.T.	29,426	17,388	5,216	Honduras	2,222	1,344	3,603
Manchoukuo	55,748	38,009	4,548	Ceylon	2,641	3,621	3,578
Third Countries	476,595	324,932	383,274	Sweden	3,286	2,717	3,537
British India	63,041	67,876	62,364	Dominica	4,050	1,865	3,251
Dutch E. Indies	85,704	39,485	53,156	Argentina	29,196	13,130	3,177
Iran	2,231	4,160	17,574	Germany	4,048	3,115	3,012
Kenya Uganda				Mozambique	3,919	2,784	3,003
& Tanganyika	23,003	15,882	16,686	Arabia	3,273	3,863	2,981
Iraq	10,875	9,796	15,487	New Zealand	3,044	2,493	2,721
Australia	13,528	15,070	15,118	Ecuador	1,901	504	2,523
French Morocco	10,821	13,788	14,799	Uruguay	4,833	2,028	2,160
Thai-Land	16,089	14,905	14,163	Palestine	2,690	3,045	1,881
Syria	10,614	9,840	11,784	Porto Rico	1,929	102	1,814
Union of South Africa	10,214	7,124	10,646	Belgium & Luxemburg	2,269	917	1,799
Hongkong	9,346	4,587	10,527	Peru	1,347	1,331	1,741

CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED

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	1937	1938	1939
Norway	1,567	1,149	1,545
Panama	1,243	968	1,490
Costa Rica	1,896	1,380	1,251
Great Britain	4,776	2,677	1,147
Machines and accessories	109,881	156,475	209,206
Yen Bloc	85,570	142,116	201,894
Kwantung L.T.	46,584	75,807	101,015
Manchoukuo	14,835	30,384	63,896
China	24,152	35,925	36,982
Third countries	24,311	14,359	7,312
British India	6,443	5,794	3,305
Dutch E. Indies	2,113	1,038	888
Philippine Is.	1,073	817	375
Brazil	436	270	276
Rayon tissues	154,860	115,762	137,353
Yen Bloc	19,519	44,155	52,002
Kwantung L.T.	15,612	20,243	25,304
Manchoukuo	2,574	17,029	22,954
China	1,334	6,883	3,745
Third Countries	135,341	71,607	31,356
British India	32,466	11,627	19,581
Australia	10,667	17,303	18,375
Dutch E. Indies	11,490	7,202	9,411
Union of South Africa	7,168	3,475	4,255
New Zealand	4,621	3,318	3,487
Straits Settlements	3,632	2,207	2,690
Hongkong	7,673	2,150	2,598
U.S.A.	1,515	624	1,621
Thailand	3,522	1,569	1,392
Canada	997	911	807
Philippine Is.	5,500	2,096	694
Uruguay	3,663	1,217	684
Kenya, Uganda & Tanganyika	1,295	543	672
Mozambique	1,360	510	647
Great Britain	1,537	1,034	586
France	205	98	160
Germany	398	153	165
Holland	248	180	107
Aquatic products	21,916	21,931	61,935
Yen Bloc	11,398	16,760	50,906
Kwantung L.T.	7,402	9,230	26,294
China	3,418	6,552	19,260
Manchoukuo	578	978	5,352
Third Countries	10,518	5,171	11,028
U.S.A.	3,972	3,370	9,025
Hawaii	802	710	764
Philippine Is.	697	314	193
Hong Kong	2,016	134	177
Wheat flour	30,746	60,715	54,228
Yen Bloc	29,478	60,712	54,227
Kwantung L.T.	11,669	21,901	24,510
Manchoukuo	2,560	15,748	23,293
China	15,249	23,063	6,424
Third Countries	1,268	3	1
Woolen tissues	50,082	40,845	51,821
Yen Bloc	19,526	32,688	33,726
Manchoukuo	3,800	11,651	18,406

	1937	1938	1939
Kwantung L.T.	11,903	11,529	11,384
China	3,823	9,508	3,936
Third Countries	30,556	14,156	18,095
British India	9,884	3,460	2,512
Egypt	4,071	1,458	2,084
Cement	6,836	6,411	11,549
Yen Bloc	437	2,440	8,031
Kwantung L.T.	286	904	3,341
Manchoukuo	13	625	2,757
China	128	911	1,923
Third Countries	6,399	3,971	3,528
Dutch E. Indies	1,046	1,150	1,044
Straits Settlements	877	352	528
Kenya, Uganda & Tanganyika	277	149	150
Philippine Is.	102	658	146
Potteries & porcelain	53,971	40,477	48,624
Yen Bloc	5,721	10,916	17,687
Manchoukuo	2,222	3,821	6,516
Kwantung L.T.	2,353	4,643	5,597
China	1,146	2,453	5,574
Third Countries	48,251	29,580	30,936
U.S.A.	19,460	8,696	11,115
Dutch E. Indies	3,109	2,714	2,992
British India	2,240	2,580	2,553
Australia	2,599	2,915	2,264
Union of South Africa	1,259	1,009	1,318
Canada	1,038	1,235	1,230
Brazil	1,036	576	916
Philippine Is.	1,431	628	620
Great Britain	1,171	888	613
Straits Settlements	1,174	307	516
Holland	542	607	514
Cotton yarns	54,906	39,355	71,090
Yen Bloc	10,782	4,226	10,671
Manchoukuo	8,334	3,232	6,671
Kwantung L.T.	1,423	368	3,999
China	1,025	626	1
Third Countries	44,124	35,129	60,419
British India	19,846	20,502	28,959
Dutch E. Indies	13,790	7,419	14,094
Hong Kong	3,625	716	5,010
Philippine Is.	1,761	1,134	1,247
Thailand	543	269	790
Australia	235	372	410
Iron manufactures	54,116	52,231	76,253
Yen Bloc	20,545	39,556	61,915
Kwantung L.T.	12,590	22,786	32,027
Manchoukuo	5,288	10,413	19,135
China	2,668	6,357	10,753
Third Countries	33,571	12,675	14,337
Dutch E. Indies	7,774	2,857	4,976
British India	6,221	2,728	3,585
Philippine Is.	2,262	651	457
Thailand	1,534	561	453
Straits Settlements	2,027	279	390

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Union of South Africa	845	364	376	Kwantung L.T.	2,839	4,049	4,914
Kenya, Uganda & Tanganyika	877	190	196	China	68	655	2,012
Australia	493	337	195	Third Countries	68,986	43,154	34,114
Mozambique	516	388	180	Great Britain	9,518	9,023	7,541
Hong Kong	657	105	158	U.S.A.	11,531	8,282	7,413
Papers	38,708	52,127	77,946	British India	13,838	7,896	5,416
Yen Bloc	26,685	44,400	69,815	France	1,673	1,515	2,716
China	6,940	16,149	27,663	Egypt	3,158	1,772	1,704
Kwantung L.T.	13,814	19,393	26,024	Australia	2,664	1,923	1,457
Manchoukuo	5,931	8,857	16,128	Germany	1,464	1,449	1,078
Third Countries	12,023	7,727	8,131	Union of South Africa	3,531	1,454	1,069
U.S.A.	1,773	1,497	1,797	Straits Settlements	4,597	1,122	656
British India	1,613	1,123	1,333	Dutch E. Indies	1,148	627	383
Dutch E. Indies	1,330	808	1,241	New Zealand	410	400	364
Australia	1,176	787	861	Holland	390	369	328
Thailand	921	572	547	Belgium	349	360	314
Hong Kong	1,777	718	535	Hong Kong	701	330	258
Great Britain	802	541	454	Argentina	1,882	620	207
Germany	372	529	294	Canada	222	174	188
Philippine Is.	404	328	208	Knitted goods	60,713	40,818	40,237
Straits Settlements	564	101	125	Yen Bloc	5,588	6,339	5,209
Timber	35,412	46,887	128,647	Manchoukuo	3,363	3,441	3,469
Yen Bloc	10,609	33,306	114,951	Kwantung L.T.	2,018	2,332	1,563
Kwantung L.T.	6,122	15,168	45,699	China	207	566	177
China	2,951	13,839	42,935	Third Countries	55,124	34,479	35,027
Manchoukuo	1,536	4,299	26,317	Dutch E. Indies	7,602	6,086	6,349
Third Countries	24,803	13,580	13,696	Philippine Is.	5,015	4,024	3,732
Great Britain	11,141	4,962	4,728	Union of South Africa	3,180	2,579	3,172
British India	1,533	1,242	1,382	Great Britain	5,967	3,203	2,748
Dutch E. Indies	1,687	1,636	949	U.S.A.	6,849	1,462	2,001
Holland	660	418	639	British India	4,560	2,366	1,732
Union of South Africa	1,169	534	462	Mozambique	1,083	969	1,030
Australia	383	355	254	Kenya, Uganda & Tanganyika	1,026	713	912
U.S.A.	622	159	230	Straits Settlements	1,401	695	627
Hong Kong	472	44	113	Egypt	1,030	272	178
Belgium	781	333	111	Australia	140	175	144
Straits Settlements	626	206	104	Hong Kong	426	82	118
Comestibles in tin and bottle	86,905	92,819	132,009	Rayon yarns	44,803	17,888	29,348
Yen Bloc	5,959	19,573	37,597	Yen Bloc	5,956	8,159	4,901
Kwantung L.T.	3,902	7,228	14,962	China	4,629	7,487	4,370
China	854	9,865	11,755	Kwantung L.T.	1,328	672	531
Manchoukuo	1,202	2,480	10,880	Third Countries	38,847	9,729	24,447
Third Countries	80,946	73,246	94,412	British India	23,154	4,550	14,163
Great Britain	29,122	30,832	40,991	Mexico	6,018	1,150	2,069
U.S.A.	21,940	12,212	31,991	Australia	518	550	1,201
Belgium	3,903	2,337	3,080	Refined sugar	18,577	23,654	28,677
Australia	2,489	2,464	2,534	Yen Bloc	17,783	23,650	28,677
France	2,722	1,675	1,732	China	8,298	7,309	13,446
Holland	1,635	1,072	1,661	Kwantung L.T.	7,770	13,081	9,371
Hawaii	1,755	1,747	1,643	Manchoukuo	1,715	3,259	3,860
Germany	673	495	338	Third Countries	794	4	—
Hong Kong	173	169	124	Glass & mfrs.	33,572	25,886	27,055
Silk tissues	72,286	49,352	47,397	Yen Bloc	3,711	5,470	7,822
Yen Bloc	3,300	6,198	13,283	China	1,161	2,013	2,935
Manchoukuo	393	1,494	6,356	Manchoukuo	1,370	1,820	2,518
				Kwantung L.T.	1,180	1,635	2,369

CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED

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	1937	1938	1939
Third Countries	29,861	20,416	19,233
British India	7,215	5,492	4,991
Dutch E. Indies	3,436	2,967	2,473
U.S.A.	4,543	1,857	2,471
Australia	1,412	1,367	880
Philippine Is.	1,991	1,130	732
Union of South Africa	1,070	663	687
Great Britain	890	963	445
Straits Settlements	1,337	260	412
Thailand	763	279	372
Mozambique	287	208	252
French Indo-China	234	120	147
New Zealand	446	462	112
Canea, Uganda & Tanganyika	258	129	102
Tea	23,181	12,063	23,463
Yen Bloc	478	1,356	2,716
Kwantung L.T.	313	489	2,716
Manchoukuo	143	391	—
China	22	476	—
Third Countries	22,703	10,707	20,747
U.S.A.	7,750	4,316	7,742
Canada	1,226	641	1,375
British India	862	599	322
Hawaii	62	74	101
Toys	42,295	24,991	22,020
Yen Bloc	1,200	1,322	1,784
Manchoukuo	436	671	872
Kwantung L.T.	426	381	464
China	339	270	449
Third Countries	41,095	23,668	20,236
U.S.A.	16,521	6,093	7,068
Great Britain	7,036	5,504	2,979
Australia	2,276	2,187	1,738
British India	2,787	1,715	1,402
Canada	1,669	1,262	897
Dutch E. Indies	1,132	500	804
Holland	844	879	755
Union of South Africa	1,067	638	600
Brazil	378	331	432
Philippine Is.	567	314	320
Straits Settlements	631	135	214
Belgium	440	289	204
Egypt	366	178	182
Argentina	562	406	104
New Zealand	551	434	103
Lamps & accessories	21,950	14,748	17,745
Yen Bloc	3,028	5,753	8,596
Kwantung L.T.	1,916	2,949	4,018
China	520	1,613	2,546
Manchoukuo	592	1,191	2,032
Third Countries	18,922	8,995	9,149
U.S.A.	4,238	1,737	3,167
Dutch E. Indies	1,801	811	1,028
British India	1,584	718	864
Great Britain	2,895	1,453	662

	1937	1938	1939
Canada	666	383	390
Australia	565	345	291
Straits Settlements	597	57	113
Soap	5,531	7,837	17,413
Yen Bloc	3,727	7,302	16,989
Manchoukuo	2,141	3,713	7,924
China	432	1,500	5,169
Kwantung L.T.	1,154	2,090	3,896
Third Countries	1,804	535	424
Straits Settlements	317	96	122
Vegetable oils	23,662	8,572	17,254
Yen Bloc	543	936	278
Kwantung L.T.	310	431	278
China	159	411	—
Manchoukuo	74	94	—
Third Countries	23,119	7,636	16,976
U.S.A.	18,956	5,638	9,679
Germany	966	376	670
Great Britain	639	219	610
Hats and caps	26,337	11,092	14,327
Yen Bloc	3,730	2,593	5,466
Manchoukuo	1,192	973	2,785
Kwantung L.T.	655	820	1,350
China	1,884	801	1,331
Third Countries	22,607	8,498	8,860
U.S.A.	8,479	3,081	4,421
British India	1,736	536	643
Dutch E. Indies	693	397	419
Union of South Africa	768	401	393
Great Britain	1,603	429	345
Australia	311	221	217
Mozambique	263	142	143
Clothing and accessories	15,535	10,167	11,707
Yen Bloc	641	698	1,151
Manchoukuo	212	254	669
China	106	121	482
Kwantung L.T.	321	323	—
Third Countries	14,894	9,469	10,556
U.S.A.	3,132	1,369	3,369
British India	4,048	3,515	2,566
Great Britain	827	762	529
Australia	558	460	490
Buttons	13,737	9,730	11,701
Yen Bloc	864	1,107	1,503
China	318	380	801
Manchoukuo	393	507	525
Kwantung L.T.	153	220	178
Third Countries	12,873	8,622	10,197
Great Britain	3,047	1,837	1,930
Holland	710	522	936
British India	1,432	808	826
U.S.A.	575	343	739
Australia	669	516	723
Dutch E. Indies	653	482	514
Argentina	620	506	469
Belgium	680	445	413
Germany	353	457	350

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Canada	116	133	189	Yen Bloc	1,275	3,568	3,716
Brazil	271	96	118	Manchoukuo	821	2,547	2,731
Cotton towels	8,935	6,961	9,835	Kwantung L.T.	235	957	930
Yen Bloc	709	894	667	China	219	64	58
Kwantung L.T.	321	357	667	Third Countries	6,817	2,753	4,012
Manchoukuo	344	442	—	Thailand	951	502	745
China	44	95	—	Dutch E. Indies	356	270	273
Third Countries	8,226	6,067	9,168	Philippine Is.	251	95	158
Union of South				Canea, Uganda			
Africa	872	985	1,273	& Tanganyika	391	163	135
Australia	904	861	957	British India	1,610	40	126
Thailand	311	409	469	Insecticide	7,693	6,103	7,149
Dutch E. Indies	593	288	362	U.S.A.	6,879	5,275	6,247
Straits Settlements	387	100	152	Great Britain	57	80	189
Hong Kong	221	40	100	Camphor	4,774	3,723	5,868
Coal	9,927	10,147	9,665	U.S.A.	1,490	1,040	1,989
Yen Bloc	363	2,610	5,417	British India	1,447	1,405	1,923
China	290	2,514	5,417	France	269	252	244
Manchoukuo	72	96	0	Great Britain	116	45	223
Third Countries	9,564	7,537	4,248	Australia	154	135	157
Hong-Kong	3,564	3,216	2,013	Rice & paddy	2,306	2,265	5,826
Straits Settlements	3,388	1,948	1,690	Yen Bloc	601	936	1,764
French Indo-China	80	235	250	Kwantung L.T.	282	453	1,764
Rubber tyres	12,983	7,799	9,562	China	156	285	—
Yen Bloc	6,632	5,427	5,648	Manchoukuo	163	198	—
Kwantung L.T.	3,449	2,853	2,649	Third Countries	1,705	1,329	4,062
Manchoukuo	1,052	1,323	2,021	Canada	694	736	617
China	2,132	1,251	978	Hawaii	797	368	423
Third Countries	6,351	2,372	3,913	U.S.A.	89	102	205
British India	1,099	767	1,172	Fish and whale			
Dutch E. Indies	1,503	403	488	oils	15,414	7,027	5,802
Beer	5,686	10,019	8,602	Yen Bloc	844	663	479
Yen Bloc	3,232	8,204	6,608	China	248	43	314
China	944	6,034	5,148	Kwantung L.T.	562	578	165
Kwantung L.T.	1,980	1,646	1,096	Manchoukuo	34	42	—
Manchoukuo	308	525	364	Third Countries	14,570	6,364	5,323
Third Countries	2,454	1,815	1,994	U.S.A.	1,456	1,886	2,998
British India	753	639	787	Great Britain	1,531	1,116	771
Hawaii	397	380	320	Germany	6,314	1,857	272
Dutch E. Indies	126	62	119	Australia	254	141	139
Beans	9,330	6,972	8,419	Plaits for hat			
Germany	1,700	1,808	3,150	making	7,876	5,901	5,666
Great Britain	4,739	2,706	2,797	U.S.A.	4,780	3,640	3,743
Isinglass	6,761	6,201	8,144	France	643	679	335
Yen Bloc	420	645	1,278	Great Britain	526	402	135
Kwantung L.T.	216	264	626	Belgium	95	96	119
China	145	185	485	Menthol	6,116	4,381	5,313
Manchoukuo	59	196	167	U.S.A.	3,276	2,688	2,650
Third Countries	6,341	5,556	6,866	British India	656	387	981
U.S.A.	1,236	1,152	1,536	Great Britain	161	218	351
Great Britain	898	574	1,297	Germany	479	289	235
Germany	1,080	1,201	1,123	France	544	373	152
France	875	601	628	Canada	95	65	105
Australia	188	295	444	Brushes	6,916	4,078	5,167
Dutch E. Indies	533	285	417	Yen Bloc	499	813	1,410
Straits Settlements	286	104	130	China	119	200	723
Cotton Blankets	8,092	6,321	7,731	Manchoukuo	232	412	687
				Kwantung L.T.	148	201	—
				Third Countries	6,418	3,265	3,757
				U.S.A.	2,715	830	1,028
				Great Britain	731	497	347

CHIEF COMMODITIES IMPORTED

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	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Holland	243	207	281	Umbrellas	3,714	1,463	1,675
Dutch E. Indies	244	228	277	Yen Bloc	168	247	415
British India	327	192	274	Manchoukuo	51	102	260
Matches	2,103	3,304	4,616	Kwantung L.T.	95	129	126
Yen Bloc	432	2,691	3,065	China	22	16	29
China	9	2,053	2,434	Third Countries	3,546	1,216	1,260
Kwantung L.T.	423	638	630	Union of South			
Third Countries	1,671	613	1,551	Africa	233	131	192
Hong Kong	574	64	186	Waste cotton and			
Silk handkerchief	5,638	2,738	2,940	silks	6,238	2,897	1,132
British India	834	359	744	Italy	1,567	735	116
U.S.A.	1,704	667	664	Yellow copper	5,899	1,812	1,089
Great Britain	899	569	403	Yen Bloc	2,343	1,652	749
Canada	148	101	143	Kwantung L.T.	666	1,222	439
Peppermint oil	2,975	2,168	2,584	China	1,513	83	159
Germany	1,133	981	963	Manchoukuo	164	346	150
Great Britain	297	131	713	Third Countries	3,556	160	340
France	876	808	461	British India	1,365	142	302

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES IMPORTED FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Japan Proper and Karafuto

(In ¥1,000)

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Cotton & ginned cotton	851,163	436,835	462,007	Union of South			
Yen Bloc	23,648	71,792	46,810	Africa	82,763	4,266	1,599
China	23,610	71,790	46,809	Argentina	17,713	5,946	686
Manchoukuo	38	2	1	Great Britain	1,073	677	618
Third Countries	827,515	365,043	415,197	India rubber &			
U.S.A.	306,388	166,414	148,640	gutta percha	99,218	51,374	57,490
British India	363,635	113,331	120,997	Straits			
Egypt	58,759	27,529	37,093	Settlements	41,566	25,184	18,999
Kenya, Uganda & Tanganyika	21,529	5,218	19,144	Dutch E. Indies	2,775	12,080	16,178
Dutch E. Indies	1,173	452	359	French			
Beans	92,547	102,176	123,576	Indo-China	8,371	1,364	405
Yen Bloc	88,777	101,744	122,956	Pulp for rayon	116,720	42,132	56,537
Manchoukuo	84,708	98,641	119,829	U.S.A.	49,181	15,111	18,767
China	3,635	2,184	2,515	Norway	17,072	5,400	9,387
Kwantung L.T.	435	918	612	Finland	9,497	3,339	5,776
Third Countries	3,770	432	620	Sweden	26,993	6,276	4,191
Dutch E. Indies	220	53	116	Canada	12,619	5,046	2,034
British India	3,234	72	105	Hemp, jute &			
Coal	59,224	67,217	78,364	Manila hemp	40,995	27,306	38,266
Yen Bloc	46,297	55,059	64,963	Yen Bloc	6,400	8,703	20,502
China	16,279	26,877	48,553	Manchoukuo	1,273	5,587	11,363
Manchoukuo	29,958	27,951	16,393	China	5,127	3,116	9,139
Kwantung L.T.	60	231	16	Third Countries	34,594	18,602	17,764
Third Countries	12,927	12,159	13,400	Philippine Is.	23,224	11,887	10,550
French				British India	8,344	3,768	5,766
Indo-China	12,832	12,108	13,306	Dutch E. Indies	1,279	399	264
Wool	298,407	94,426	72,590	Lumber	64,817	28,178	32,326
Yen Bloc	908	5,809	12,802	Yen Bloc	1,486	1,590	1,381
China	382	3,327	11,163	Manchoukuo	660	1,294	783
Manchoukuo	527	2,478	1,639	China	826	289	598
Third Countries	297,498	88,617	59,788	Kwantung L.T.	1	8	—
Australia	118,196	64,882	51,428	Third Countries	63,331	26,588	30,944
New Zealand	42,822	8,272	4,351	Philippine Is.	11,260	6,695	10,366
				U.S.A.	30,077	9,770	9,448
				Canada	11,517	3,803	5,171

FOREIGN TRADE

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
British Borneo	3,197	1,980	2,159	Australia	15,623	4,008	230
Dutch E. Indies	2,477	2,282	1,793	Synthetic colors	16,928	2,838	3,507
Thailand	3,102	1,236	1,083	Germany	12,313	1,711	1,873
Seeds for oil				Sweden	2,227	477	694
making	43,612	28,790	31,982	U.S.A.	1,932	355	538
Yen Bloc	33,306	24,065	27,832	France	418	261	353
Manchoukuo	19,206	17,069	25,469	Nitrate of soda,			
China	14,093	6,963	2,249	crude	3,630	2,558	2,865
Kwantung L.T.	7	33	113	Chile	3,032	2,272	2,554
Third Countries	10,306	4,725	4,150	U.S.A.	438	18	310
British India	2,459	161	1,256	Caustic soda,			
Dutch E. Indies	5,062	2,268	1,208	soda ash and			
Hides & skins	44,571	27,826	30,573	natural soda	6,534	1,973	2,246
Yen Bloc	11,307	4,672	13,497	Yen Bloc	186	210	673
China	10,070	3,083	13,248	China	177	0	486
Manchoukuo	1,039	1,564	249	Manchoukuo	9	210	187
Third Countries	33,265	23,154	17,077	Third Countries	6,348	1,763	1,573
U.S.A.	9,396	10,954	8,668	Electric motors			
Australia	5,023	1,265	2,316	& transformers	1,841	2,766	2,184
Argentina	5,871	6,883	1,877	U.S.A.	980	1,869	1,764
France	835	378	349	Germany	694	715	253
Phosphorite	30,810	19,281	25,412	Sweden	125	59	106
U.S.A.	7,760	4,725	7,370	Leather	7,520	1,875	1,695
Egypt	10,022	5,879	5,966	U.S.A.	1,061	175	142
Straits Settlements	4,186	4,148	3,965	British India	3,436	1,088	136
Oil cakes	45,310	60,112	104,639	Watches & parts	5,645	2,893	562
Yen Bloc	42,675	59,958	104,639	Switzerland	4,319	2,448	517
Manchoukuo	29,662	49,946	83,686	Sugar	18,806	5,241	140
Kwantung L.T.	6,870	8,056	15,359	Dutch E. Indies	17,724	5,189	132
China	6,143	1,957	5,594	Fats	1,949	431	117
Third Countries	2,635	154	0	Australia	1,147	301	117
Wheat bran	10,653	8,932	8,412	Woollen tissues	9,292	2,724	63
Yen Bloc	10,653	8,932	8,412	Italy	12	26	44
China	4,038	2,033	4,204	Great Britain	8,971	2,613	3
Manchoukuo	6,004	6,678	4,046	Cotton tissues	793	236	48
Kwantung L.T.	610	221	162	Yen Bloc	2	0	44
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	20,191	31,710	8,240	China	2	0	44
Yen Bloc	9,272	13,139	8,122	Third Countries	791	236	4
Kwantung L.T.	7,315	12,298	7,438	Great Britain	624	177	3
Manchoukuo	1,957	841	684	Printing paper	9,171	718	8
Third Countries	10,919	18,571	118	Germany	282	87	4
Great Britain	171	—	118	Canada	6,658	360	—
Rice & paddy	4,033	2,808	6,286	Norway	657	173	—
Yen Bloc	0	—	2,974				
China	0	—	2,974				
Third Countries	4,033	2,808	3,312				
Thailand	3,757	2,800	3,189				
British India	68	2	124				
Meats	6,878	4,414	4,162				
Yen Bloc	4,738	2,428	3,225				
China	3,958	1,654	2,889				
Manchoukuo	379	472	216				
Kwantung L.T.	400	303	120				
Third Countries	2,140	1,985	937				
Wheat	29,604	9,557	4,090				
Yen Bloc	2,139	2,633	2,603				
China	178	442	2,601				
Manchoukuo	1,961	2,191	2				
Third Countries	27,465	6,924	1,487				

Important Foreign Trade Countries

Great Britain Early in the Meiji Era Great Britain, China, the United States and France were the most important countries for Japan's export trade. In the import trade Great Britain, China, France and the United States were the principal countries, in that order. With a rapid gain in the export of raw silk in 1879, the importance of export countries was changed to the United States, China, France and Great Britain. As a result of the development of the so-called new order in East Asia in recent years, the largest buyers of Japanese goods in 1939 came to be the United

States, Manchoukuo, China, British India, Netherlands East Indies and Great Britain in the order named. A change came over the precedence in import countries in 1893 and British India became the largest exporting country to Japan, being followed by Great Britain, the United States and China in that order. This was due to the rapid growth of the Japanese spinning industry, for which Indian cotton was needed. But in 1939 British India became the fourth, biggest sellers being the United States, Manchoukuo, China, British India, Germany and Canada in the order named. Great Britain occupies the 16th place. When British India is included, however, she stands next to the U.S.A. both in buying Japanese commodities and in selling her goods to Japan among third Powers.

The U.S.A. America's economic condition and her financial and tariff policy have a direct bearing on Japan's export trade and domestic economy, for Japan's trade with the United States is far in excess of that with any other country. The close Japan-American trade relations trace back to the visit of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in the 6th year of Kaei, 1853. In the early stage the trade volume was less than that of Great Britain and France, but in 1879 Japan's exports to that country gained to more than ¥10,000,000, and America became Japan's largest customer, a position she has since retained. In 1904 Japan's exports to America reached the ¥100,000,000 mark; in 1915 they amounted to ¥204,000,000, in 1919 to ¥828,000,000, and the record amount was ¥1,006,000,000 in 1925. In the following year the amount went off to ¥860,000,000, but this, as compared with the exports of ¥4,000,000 in 1874, was an increase by 215 times and was 40 per cent of Japan's total trade volume. Raw silk, silk textiles, refined tea, straw-braid, fancy mats and porcelain have been the principal exports from the very beginning. Imports from America increased in consonance with exports. In 1874 the value of imports was just over ¥1,000,000, but by 1905 this had advanced to ¥100,000,000, and in 1920 the amount set an all-time record of ¥873,000,000. The 1926 figure of ¥680,000,000 was 680 times the 1874 trade volume and was 26 per cent of Japan's total import value of that year. Imports from America consist of raw cotton, kerosene oil, wheat, machin-

ery and iron. The most unique feature of the Japan-American trade in the past 68 years was that the trade balance was mostly in favor of Japan up to 1931. But a change came in 1932 and since that year the trade relations have shown a continuous unfavorable balance to Japan. In 1939 the total volume of Japan-American trade comprised 25.3 per cent of the total of Japan's foreign trade in that year.

China It is only natural that Japan, with its close proximity to China, should look to that country with its population of 400,000,000 persons and rich in natural resources as a market for its products and manufactures as well as for supplies of materials for its industries. The friction between this uncontrollable demand of Japan and the growing racial consciousness of the Chinese, however, brought about various political differences, and finally led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1894, the Manchurian Incident of 1931 and the Shanghai Affair of 1932. Boycotts of Japanese goods have been frequent.

Notwithstanding these political obstacles, the trade between the two countries steadily progressed and in 1925 the trade total reached the record amount of ¥701,000,000 including ¥486,000,000 in exports and ¥215,000,000 in imports, as viewed from the Japanese side. China thus became the second largest market for Japanese goods, the development of China as an important market for Japanese goods, as achieved by that time, may be illustrated by the following table:

CHINA'S SHARE IN JAPAN'S FOREIGN TRADE

	Proportion of Exports to China to Total Exports	Proportion of Imports from China to Total Imports
1894	8.0	9.9
1908	16.0	11.7
1912	21.8	8.9
1916	17.1	14.4
1921	22.9	11.9
1926	20.6	10.1

A strong anti-Japanese sentiment began to sweep China about this time and trade began to fall off until it reached its climax after the northern expedition of the Nationalist armies in 1930. An illustration of these changes may be obtained from the following table:—

	Exports to China	Imports from China
	(In yen)	
1926	421,861,000	239,410,000
1927	334,183,000	226,034,000
1928	373,141,000	234,556,000
1929	346,652,000	209,975,000
1930	260,825,000	161,666,000
1931	143,876,000	103,749,000

Even in 1930 when the northern expedition ended in success for the Nanking Government and the movement of the Chinese for their racial resuscitation was at its zenith, Asia still held an important position as a market for Japan's principal manufactures, chiefly cotton goods, consuming 42.6 per cent of Japan's total exports of this kind. In this consumption, China and the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hong Kong shared 24.7 per cent. Furthermore, almost all the remainder consumed in other parts of Asia was handled by Chinese traders.

The Manchurian Incident, 1931, enabled Japan to get the lion's share in the foreign trade of Manchoukuo, about 71 per cent in the imports of the new State during 1935 and 51 per cent in the exports during the same year, but on the other hand, combined with the Shanghai Affair, it intensified the anti-Japanese movement in China. Increases

in China's tariffs on Japanese goods were also effected in rapid succession, thus dealing a great blow to Japan's trade with China and at the same time furnishing a chance for the United States, Great Britain and Germany to recover their commercial influence of former years in that country. But the trade relation is improving since 1936 with the increase of Japanese influence in that country as a consequence of the China Affair. In 1939 it regained a normal status, indicating a rapid progress of the new order in East Asia.

TRADE WITH CHINA AFTER THE MANCHURIAN INCIDENT

	(In ¥1,000)		
	Export	Import	Balance
1932	129,478	77,175	52,303
1933	108,253	113,357	5,104*
1934	117,062	119,573	2,511*
1935	148,788	138,817	14,971
1936	159,690	154,837	4,853
1937	179,251	143,636	35,615
1938	312,900	164,611	148,289
1939	455,479	215,662	239,817

Note: The figures with asterisk under the heading of "Balance" denote excess of import while others denote excess of export.

For details see the chapter on China.

AMOUNT OF EXPORTS TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

	(In ¥1,000)				
Yen Bloc	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Kwantung L.T.	575,102	657,715	791,259	1,156,540	1,747,103
Manchoukuo	300,269	347,165	395,916	536,317	755,943
China	126,045	150,859	216,092	316,322	535,681
Third Countries	148,788	159,691	179,251	312,900	455,479
U.S.A.			2,384,159	1,524,137	1,829,267
British India	535,515	594,251	639,428	425,123	641,509
Dutch East Indies	275,637	259,108	299,367	188,040	210,995
Great Britain	143,041	129,495	200,051	104,045	137,802
Australia	119,458	147,309	168,297	134,988	132,085
Union of South Africa	74,793	68,763	72,080	69,388	72,101
Hong Kong	32,769	41,534	53,749	35,291	46,802
Thailand	49,731	58,445	49,650	16,754	30,578
France	40,258	43,028	49,382	39,269	26,024
Germany	42,467	43,475	47,208	36,814	25,934
Philippine Islands	26,766	35,054	43,261	33,015	24,991
Iraq	48,058	51,840	60,348	32,599	24,744
Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika	22,073	19,019	23,644	17,082	24,344
Burma	25,083	30,602	40,122	22,504	22,874
French Morocco	—	—	—	16,302	21,555
Straits Settlements	18,813	20,512	18,283	18,727	20,593
	48,536	58,770	67,433	20,696	20,426

BY COUNTRIES

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	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Iran	—	—	2,630	4,632	19,324
Canada	7,977	14,553	20,036	15,244	17,202
Syria	12,559	13,078	19,250	12,539	15,987
Egypt	53,800	40,907	32,772	13,997	15,666
Brazil	5,925	8,840	17,305	10,388	15,609
Ceylon	11,887	13,840	18,656	14,620	14,544
Chile	6,647	7,426	10,742	6,129	14,010
New Zealand	11,304	16,740	19,358	14,808	12,277
Holland	—	—	18,440	11,474	11,706
Mozambique	10,752	10,860	16,055	9,830	10,665
Belgium and Luxemburg	15,393	16,230	20,650	10,151	10,476
Aden	13,208	13,851	14,177	8,534	10,002
Sweden	6,784	8,821	11,545	8,277	9,314
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	13,034	11,915	15,811	11,895	8,923
Hawaii	7,242	9,299	11,155	9,774	8,627
Belgian Congo	1,720	7,649	16,474	6,927	8,593
Argentina	28,603	22,712	42,481	19,607	8,152
Panama	6,150	9,546	10,248	6,227	8,103
Venezuela	3,565	7,814	9,139	5,480	7,984
Mexico	5,464	7,190	14,622	5,317	7,940
Curacao	—	—	5,527	5,425	7,624
Peru	6,961	6,256	6,344	5,760	6,084
Italy	6,988	4,468	7,111	3,256	5,719
Honduras	—	—	3,203	1,783	4,916
Norway	—	—	8,901	4,561	4,845
Dominica	4,482	6,172	5,602	2,325	3,945
Uruguay	—	—	10,106	3,988	3,771
Arabia	5,676	7,891	4,827	4,979	3,748
Palestina	—	—	5,745	3,087	3,514
Paraguay	8,400	5,377	4,665	1,837	3,454
Switzerland	—	—	2,149	1,200	3,197
Ecuador	—	—	—	1,023	3,171
Nigeria	—	—	14,683	4,084	2,955
Cameroons	4,737	7,011	5,662	1,637	2,837
Bolivia	—	—	2,550	3,874	2,492
Costa Rica	—	—	2,911	2,134	2,054
Gold Coast	—	—	6,766	2,121	2,026
Porto Rico	—	—	2,554	363	2,018
British Malay	—	—	3,866	2,181	2,004
French Indo-China	—	—	4,624	3,182	1,981
Barren Islands	4,020	—	1,897	1,812	1,954
Trinidad and Tobaco	—	—	1,684	1,362	1,731
Denmark	—	—	1,899	1,361	1,711
French Africa	1,359	—	—	1,387	1,619
Finland	—	—	6,001	3,684	1,585
Gibraltar	—	—	2,257	1,842	1,488
Cuba	—	—	2,016	1,347	1,370
Portugal	5,047	—	1,519	1,225	1,252
Dutch Guiana	1,062	—	904	1,131	1,244
Jamaica	—	—	1,675	920	1,177
Eritrea	—	—	6	1,402	1,105
Angola	—	—	1,985	1,027	1,060
Marta	—	—	1,490	1,463	1,056
Rhodesia	—	—	697	641	994
British Borneo	—	—	1,041	950	959
New Guinea	—	—	1,321	700	936

FOREIGN TRADE

AMOUNT OF IMPORTS FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ₹1,000)

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Yen Bloc	350,339	394,253	437,905	564,206	682,973
Manchoukuo	191,005	205,567	249,071	339,271	405,561
China	133,817	154,838	143,636	164,612	215,062
Kwantung L.T.	25,517	33,848	45,198	60,323	61,750
Third Countries			3,345,272	2,099,234	2,234,693
U.S.A.	809,644	847,490	1,269,642	915,300	1,002,384
British India	305,646	372,009	449,486	172,231	182,263
Germany	120,817	115,500	176,363	171,170	141,003
Canada	52,531	73,179	104,692	91,260	126,022
Brazil	4,006	47,352	62,810	46,174	74,662
Dutch East Indies	78,186	113,546	153,450	88,249	71,629
Australia			165,252	82,875	71,026
British Malaya	28,495	39,125	47,795	46,801	69,006
Egypt	51,304	45,737	74,118	36,315	50,312
Philippine Islands	23,948	36,266	45,194	35,630	49,117
Straits Settlements	40,647	41,174	67,796	54,167	46,833
French Indo-China	15,011	20,155	27,012	20,301	26,651
Sweden	23,074	23,109	49,277	24,069	26,277
Great Britain	82,160	72,942	105,772	63,157	24,426
Norway	19,940	17,853	24,033	15,719	21,869
Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika	2,955	29,865	24,155	6,020	19,609
Belgium and Luxemburg	24,562	16,019	41,059	15,441	19,028
Switzerland	13,455	14,000	19,239	30,198	16,656
Austria	4,409	4,263	9,104	10,271	15,309
Burma	—	—	—	8,185	15,065
France	19,798	19,898	27,885	13,506	14,264
Argentina	16,370	29,989	42,018	24,356	11,860
British Borneo	—	—	18,776	13,832	11,354
Chile	4,472	9,953	14,719	11,152	10,230
Union of South Africa	4,762	22,561	88,852	7,807	8,249
Italy	5,831	3,766	4,416	5,843	7,062
Peru	11,414	13,000	6,277	1,975	6,956
Iran	—	—	1,589	369	6,587
Finland	5,053	6,576	9,643	3,472	5,828
Thailand	5,458	8,753	13,571	4,951	5,536
New Zealand	6,363	21,973	48,633	10,210	5,396
Ceylon	—	—	4,077	2,297	4,194
Eritrea	—	—	1,879	2,270	3,995
Ecuador	—	—	1,725	539	3,938
Society Islands	3,279	3,444	3,239	859	3,809
Iraq	1,258	2,882	9,028	6,114	3,691
Uruguay	4,494	9,528	33,926	4,158	3,398
Spain	4,548	2,147	2,432	614	2,890
New Caledonia	—	—	947	952	2,883
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	—	—	5,858	435	2,780
Gilbert and Ellis	—	—	3,053	1,981	2,746
Italian Somaliland	2,357	2,879	2,608	3,216	2,341
Denmark	—	—	1,449	1,232	2,339
Aden	—	—	1,357	547	2,292
Paraguay	—	—	163	17	2,218
Greece	—	—	603	1,096	2,106
Turkey	—	—	2,318	3,712	2,018
Bolivia	—	—	—	425	1,968

FOREIGN TRADE DURING THE FIRST HALF OF 1940

According to the report of the Finance Ministry the export trade for the first half of this year aggregated ¥2,018,980,000 and imports ¥1,856,729,000, with a favorable balance of ¥162,251,000. The figures indicate a gain of ¥403,446,000 or 25 per cent and ¥266,577,000 or 17 per cent in comparison with the corresponding period of 1939. The favorable balance is more than six times the corresponding figure for a year ago, showing an amazing improvement.

Marked advance was witnessed in exports to the yen-bloc area despite various stumbling blocks, including limitation on export to these areas applied to various kinds of goods. Exports of lumber, rayon yarns, pottery and machinery continued to quicken its upward pace. As to the outgoing shipments to

the non-yen bloc area, considerable briskness was made in cotton textiles, raw silk, silk textiles, woolen textiles, canned or bottled provisions, and rayon yarns.

According to the foreign trade experts, however, the jumping export business is interpreted as being attributable to the advanced prices.

Gain in quantity are far the less remarkable. Shipments of raw silk, for instance, suffered a drastic reduction of 31 per cent from a year ago, but made an appreciable increase of 16 per cent in value. The tendency is being solely attributed to the fact that the raw silk prices have been kept in the neighborhood of ¥1,736 in 1940 as against ¥1,032 per picul in 1939, a striking advance of 67 per cent.

VALUE OF FOREIGN TRADE OF THE EMPIRE DURING THE FIRST HALF OF 1940

(Including trade of overseas territories)

(In ¥1,000)

Jan.-June, 1940	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports
Increase over the same term of the previous year	2,018,980	1,856,729	162,250
	403,450	266,577	25,372

VALUE OF FOREIGN TRADE OF JAPAN PROPER AND KARAFUTO

(In the same period)

(In ¥1,000)

	Total from January to June	Amount	Increase as Compared with Same Term of the Previous Year
Exports	1,862,258	407,853	Percentage 28
Imports	1,712,730	234,350	16
Excess of Imports (—) or Exports (+)	(+) 149,528	(—) 23,975	

EXPORTS OF CHIEF COMMODITIES

(Japan Proper and Karafuto)

(In ¥1,000)

	1940, from January to June	Amount	Increase or Decrease as compared with the Previous Year
Cotton tissues			Percentage
Raw silk:	200,988	18,006	9
Value	193,618	26,997	16

FOREIGN TRADE

Quantity	1940, from January to June	Increase or Decrease as compared with the Previous Year	
		Amount	Percentage
	11,149,500kin	(—) 5,007,300 kin	(—) 31
Rayon tissues	66,318	4,169	7
Machineries	122,213	20,166	20
Comestibles in tin and bottle	42,061	88	1
Silk tissues	21,716	2,291	12
Knitted goods	19,917	1,301	6
Woollen tissues	21,728	(—) 6,271	(—) 23
Potteries and porcelains	31,172	11,455	58
Cotton yarns	26,264	(—) 4,201	(—) 14
Toys	9,198	(—) 138	(—) 1
Rayon yarns	32,810	21,399	188
Lumber	72,319	27,704	62
Others	1,002,956	285,025	40
Total	1,863,189	407,784	28

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE EMPIRE IN 1940

According to the report of the Finance Ministry, exports to Manchoukuo, the Kwantung Leased Territory and China during the twelve months of 1940 showed an appreciable increase over 1939, while those to other countries also more or less increased. Because of the second European war and other reasons, exports to Europe and Africa were behind in 1939. Exports to North and

Central America were, on the whole, on a par with 1939, but shipments to South America and the South Sea regions showed a striking increase. Exports valued at 3,972 million yen, increased one per cent and imports valued at 3,709 million yen increased 19 per cent over 1939, leaving an export excess of 263 million yen, as divided into each month as follows:

MONTHLY TRADE DURING 1940

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Month	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports(—) or Exports(+)
January	236,425	279,754	516,179	— 43,329
February	314,409	331,847	646,257	— 17,438
March	368,080	379,847	747,927	— 11,767
April	352,743	296,812	649,556	+ 55,931
May	403,801	300,601	704,402	+103,201
June	344,655	267,586	612,240	+ 77,070
July	359,169	281,943	641,112	+ 77,226
August	317,226	286,386	603,612	+ 30,840
September	277,203	281,614	558,817	— 4,412
October	316,567	314,734	631,301	+ 1,833
November	330,580	308,128	638,708	+ 22,452
December	351,546	379,784	736,000	— 26,000
Total (as adjusted for the year)	3,972,400	3,709,035	7,681,436	+263,365

As regards the 1941 foreign trade, see Chapter X, Commerce and Industry, Development and Tendency of the National Economy in 1941-42, "7. Foreign Trade and Exchange."

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CHAPTER XII

INSURANCE

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CHAPTER XII

INSURANCE

General Survey

Marine Insurance Comes First In Japan, as in most maritime countries, marine insurance preceded life insurance, but the margin of time separating the two was much narrower in Japan, for there was a difference of two years only. Following the Restoration in 1868, the feudal lords or daimyo were dispossessed of their domains, but the Meiji Government undertook to compensate them for the lands confiscated. The condition of Government finance, however, did not permit of the payment of large sums of cash to the daimyo and pension bonds were issued to them instead. Hachisuka, Ikeda, Daté and other powerful and rich lords searched for an outlet for their energies and surplus funds and, deciding on insurance, advanced a plan to form a marine and fire insurance business after the British system. A company was incorporated in Tokyo in January 1879, with Eichi Shibusawa as the person most intimately concerned with the consummation of the plan, and Yataro Iwasaki, the founder of the Mitsubishi interest, as his able lieutenant. The initial capital was ¥650,000. Marquis Hachisuka was president and Shibusawa and Iwasaki advisers.

Life Insurance Follows The late Taizō Abé was the originator of life insurance in Japan. Two years after the introduction of marine insurance he founded the Meiji Life Insurance Com-

pany in September 1881, with a capital of ¥150,000. The promoters of this company were mostly graduates of the Kelo Gijuku (present Kelo University). In 1888 the Teikoku Life Insurance Company was founded, and the Nippon Life Insurance Company was incorporated in Osaka in the following year. Zenjiro Yasuda was the founder of the Meiji Fire Insurance Company, the first of the kind in Japan.

The Present Status The home insurance business at present consists of 13 kinds, namely, life, life annuities, military conscription, accident, marine, fire including forest fire, transportation, automobile, burglary, glass, fidelity, engine and boiler and air insurance. Conscription insurance is interesting as it cannot be considered as pure insurance. The idea is to provide relief to the parents of young men who are called up to serve their time in the army. The insurance is taken out at any time from birth to 15 years of age, then, when the boy is conscripted at 20 years of age, the sum contracted for is paid to his parents. In case the boy is not called upon to serve his time in the army the premium only is repaid, and the assured persons who are enrolled in the army and participate in the forfeited and accrued interest of those not called up together with that of those who have died before being conscripted. It is 40 years since the business was first commenced and four companies engage in it.

INSURANCE COMPANIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)					
Business Year	Number of Concerns	Paid-up Capital and Funds	Liability Re- serves at End of Year	Contracts in Force at End of Year	
				No.	Amount
		(In ¥1,000 and 1,000 contracts)			
1931-32		122,170	1,637,178	22,693	27,649,633
1932-33	91	122,570	1,831,610	23,123	29,427,346
1933-34	89	150,925	1,985,929	25,443	33,108,786
1934-35	84	151,275	2,350,077	26,480	34,902,161
1935-36	84	150,273	2,442,402	28,599	37,480,869
1936-37	83	149,335	2,788,621	30,882	39,877,588
1937-38	81	149,735	3,093,085	31,917	43,170,731
1938-39	81	144,435	3,504,383	37,792	50,124,438
1939-40	80	348,860	3,530,132	41,855	55,378,774
	79				

INSURANCE

INSURANCE COMPANIES BY KINDS

1934-1939

(Amount in yen)

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund		Reserve Fund		
			Authorized	Paid-up	Liability & Current	Others	
Accident:	1934-35				1,045,697	61,589,100	
	1935-36				1,167,232	65,156,500	
	1936-37				1,289,332	71,707,000	
	1937-38				1,397,569	83,300,100	
	1938-39				1,506,235	90,782,437	
Fire:	1934-35				116,393,087	76,173,940	
	1935-36				121,867,964	80,393,011	
	1936-37				130,542,194	87,911,669	
	1937-38				139,004,327	95,814,154	
	1938-39				147,934,234	103,105,120	
Marine:	1934-35				80,132,896	72,028,475	
	1935-36				82,256,323	75,960,050	
	1936-37				87,131,618	82,933,553	
	1937-38				95,933,136	90,448,180	
	1938-39				106,272,740	97,209,143	
Transportation:	1934-35				2,176,179	71,174,239	
	1935-36				2,207,836	75,006,785	
	1936-37				2,403,721	82,177,828	
	1937-38				2,707,573	89,365,455	
	1938-39				2,970,210	95,770,918	
Fidelity:	1934-35				93,000	18,514,800	
	1935-36				94,000	23,568,500	
	1936-37				112,400	25,159,000	
	1937-38				137,800	26,431,100	
	1938-39				138,000	27,228,200	
Engine & Boiler:	1934-35	1934-35	51	329,900,000	128,762,500	44,096	63,560
	1935-36					53,363	66,585
	1936-37					65,662	68,655
	1937-38					71,960	72,055
	1938-39					80,187	76,605
Automobile:	1934-35	1935-36	49	323,500,000	126,110,000	2,530,498	53,494,800
	1935-36	1936-37	48	323,000,000	126,772,500	3,002,076	57,226,800
	1936-37					3,195,539	60,919,500
	1937-38					3,434,369	72,220,900
	1938-39					4,621,379	84,554,737
Burglary:	1934-35	1937-38	48	323,000,000	126,772,500	242,784	42,291,000
	1935-36	1938-39	47	322,400,000	126,622,500	259,932	44,906,000
	1936-37					265,598	48,691,000
	1937-38					261,799	58,542,000
	1938-39					248,237	62,990,500
Glass:	1934-35					62,398	34,385,000
	1935-36					57,091	36,590,000
	1936-37					72,185	39,560,000
	1937-38					72,805	43,160,000
	1938-39					72,571	46,445,000

BUSINESS CONDITIONS

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Fund Others	Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund Authorized	Paid-up	Reserve Fund	
						Liability & Current	Others
	Air:	1937-38				106,500	28,786,000
	Life:	1938-39				1,082,288	89,296,661
1,589,100		1934-35	1934-35	33	45,800,000	22,512,500	1,798,822,750
5,158,500		1935-36	1935-36	33	45,750,000	22,462,500	2,004,828,537
1,707,000		1936-37	1936-37	34	45,700,000	22,412,500	2,255,641,100
8,300,100		1937-38	1937-38	33	46,050,000	22,962,500	2,480,308,044
7,882,437	Conscription:	1938-39	1938-39	33	37,150,000	17,812,500	2,795,566,245
		1934-35					
1,173,949		1935-36				201,530,031	6,126,596
3,393,011		1936-37				226,582,775	7,748,113
911,689		1937-38				307,867,211	9,374,577
814,154		1938-39				369,609,679	11,781,641
105,120	Life Annuity:					443,855,622	66,849,158
		1934-35					
108,475		1935-36				14,551	—
360,050		1936-37				25,511	—
333,533		1937-38				34,194	—
48,180		1938-39				39,157	—
09,143						35,413	—
74,239							
96,733							
7,825							
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INSURANCE

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Conditions of Business Earnings			Total
		Premiums	Interest	Others	
Engine & Boiler:					
	1934-35	88,116	10,107	10,680	108,903
	1935-36	99,458	10,952	8,480	118,890
	1936-37	114,608	13,506	42,654	170,768
	1937-38	125,768	11,865	14,039	151,672
	1938-39	141,619	11,303	6,607	159,529
Automobile:					
	1934-35	1,984,624	5,791	24,221	2,014,636
	1935-36	2,675,503	60	35,198	2,710,761
	1936-37	3,030,928	—	35,416	3,066,344
	1937-38	3,446,369	—	38,084	3,484,453
	1938-39	3,408,756	—	56,205	3,464,961
Burglary:					
	1934-35	60,119	—	3,031	63,150
	1935-36	73,219	—	1,303	74,522
	1936-37	65,215	—	2,149	67,364
	1937-38	46,088	—	2,412	48,500
	1938-39	54,984	—	1,876	56,860
Glass:					
	1934-35	11,825	—	877	12,702
	1935-36	12,925	—	1,371	14,296
	1936-37	11,295	—	1,480	12,775
	1937-38	15,906	—	2,058	17,964
	1938-39	18,586	—	2,701	21,281
Air:					
	1397-38	10,250	—	58	10,308
	1938-39	303,643	—	2,313	305,956
Life:					
	1934-35	419,803,582	101,842,188	31,067,876	553,713,646
	1935-36	449,716,033	110,642,695	27,523,541	587,864,269
	1936-37	519,508,056	120,886,258	40,677,759	681,072,073
	1937-38	594,410,101	136,185,764	39,875,260	770,471,125
	1938-39	700,901,524	151,816,801	40,186,330	892,904,655
Conscription:					
	1934-35	30,471,839	12,283,255	8,145,974	50,851,068
	1935-36	34,503,310	14,379,890	7,205,263	56,088,463
	1936-37	41,712,449	15,772,258	6,229,088	63,713,795
	1937-38	49,779,269	18,399,985	6,831,729	75,010,983
	1938-39	22,594,861	22,594,861	11,188,418	56,378,140
Life Annuity:					
	1934-35	14,140	—	—	14,140
	1935-36	13,626	—	—	13,626
	1936-37	12,646	—	—	12,646
	1937-38	9,173	—	—	9,173
	1938-39	5,000	—	—	5,000

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Conditions of Business Expenses			Others	Total
		Claims Paid	Payment by Contract Other than Claims	Business Expenses		
Accident:						
	1934-35	547,659	80,880	337,063	64,459	1,030,061
	1935-36	613,722	28,527	391,090	29,474	1,062,813
	1936-37	596,722	76,218	370,327	22,784	1,066,051
	1937-38	566,156	53,599	371,145	37,921	1,028,821
	1938-39	577,623	38,423	411,936	7,999	1,035,981

BUSINESS CONDITIONS

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Total	Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Conditions of Business				Others	Total
			Claims Paid	Expenses	Payment by Contract Other than Claims	Business Expenses		
108,903	Fire:	1934-35	41,534,912	11,834,873	57,592,514	5,862,325	116,824,624	
118,690		1935-36	32,184,327	13,709,218	61,210,976	5,999,436	113,103,957	
170,768		1936-37	30,073,003	14,276,932	63,721,188	6,334,542	114,405,665	
151,672		1937-38	25,944,771	15,592,563	69,082,276	7,426,040	118,045,590	
159,529		1938-39	30,441,257	16,821,796	78,896,218	11,429,680	137,588,951	
2,014,636	Marine:	1934-35	24,243,554	2,360,659	7,497,025	5,596,146	39,697,384	
2,710,761		1935-36	23,137,480	2,676,831	8,497,886	5,841,181	40,153,378	
3,066,344		1936-37	20,402,964	2,538,977	8,852,945	7,031,607	38,826,493	
3,484,453		1937-38	21,576,081	3,785,595	10,241,525	11,074,666	46,677,867	
3,464,961		1938-39	30,367,256	2,948,279	12,774,359	18,189,245	64,279,139	
63,150	Transportation:	1934-35	336,789	118,777	241,623	8,572	705,761	
74,322		1935-36	254,156	121,637	279,620	4,958	660,371	
67,364		1936-37	180,859	142,133	303,106	31,830	657,928	
48,500		1937-38	254,329	165,385	331,166	8,893	760,773	
56,690		1938-39	351,733	220,547	444,291	22,259	1,038,830	
12,702	Fidelity:	1934-35	21,600	976	26,256	128	48,960	
14,260		1935-36	28,382	1,100	29,601	173	59,256	
12,775		1936-37	25,091	4,837	34,583	194	64,705	
17,964		1937-38	15,062	8,053	38,750	577	62,442	
21,281		1938-39	21,529	9,113	37,306	208	68,156	
0,308	Engine & Boiler:	1934-35	—	390	80,905	5,720	87,015	
5,956		1935-36	—	735	84,428	7,446	92,609	
3,646		1936-37	525	530	90,057	42,960	134,072	
2,689		1937-38	1,550	1,174	100,193	18,112	121,029	
073		1938-39	557	2,259	109,224	10,344	122,384	
125	Automobile:	1934-35	877,095	293,041	554,454	20,751	1,745,341	
653		1935-36	983,425	393,349	781,127	59,058	2,216,959	
568		1936-37	1,076,888	473,007	876,753	50,505	2,477,153	
85		1937-38	1,376,661	551,583	1,007,451	13,394	2,949,089	
53		1938-39	1,376,803	535,651	1,057,832	12,051	2,989,337	
44	Burglary:	1934-35	18,176	1,299	24,185	169	43,829	
0		1935-36	29,814	2,737	28,952	1,685	63,138	
6		1936-37	17,988	4,721	23,579	3,332	49,620	
5		1937-38	14,007	11,938	14,862	593	41,400	
0		1938-39	17,320	4,954	19,371	523	42,168	
0	Glass:	1934-35	5,139	561	2,929	15	8,644	
6		1935-36	5,111	929	4,076	40	10,156	
5		1936-37	6,430	493	3,441	39	10,403	
0		1937-38	6,217	1,611	4,584	22	12,434	
0		1938-39	7,936	2,072	5,242	28	15,328	
0	Air:	1937-38	21,901	31	1,109	2	23,243	
0		1938-39	174,972	1,243	18,642	9,144	204,001	
0	Life:	1934-35	139,890,791	91,552,425	96,970,690	27,910,235	356,324,141	
0		1935-36	143,817,994	68,480,705	102,427,574	30,667,198	345,393,471	
0		1936-37	167,531,843	71,344,489	108,933,815	38,718,528	386,528,675	
0		1937-38	192,705,499	75,855,960	122,001,416	40,212,825	430,775,700	
0		1938-39	243,313,700	80,860,924	136,431,903	60,575,600	521,182,129	

INSURANCE

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Claims Total	Payment by Contract Other than Claims	Business Expenses	Others	Total
Conscription:	1934-35	2,283,129	6,684,205	13,547,886	5,028,983	27,544,203
	1935-36	2,802,208	7,024,635	13,409,799	6,985,700	30,221,712
	1936-37	4,058,583	7,826,972	15,945,841	4,515,734	32,347,130
	1937-38	4,262,315	7,700,177	17,713,749	6,426,046	36,102,287
	1938-39	6,482,120	7,838,941	22,340,422	14,874,626	51,536,109
Life Annuity:	1934-35	1,432	28	—	—	1,460
	1935-36	3,480	—	—	—	3,480
	1936-37	4,476	—	—	—	4,476
	1937-38	6,391	—	—	—	6,391
	1938-39	5,309	—	—	—	5,309

Conditions of Business

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	New Contracts		Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year	
		Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Accident:	1934-35	186,198	204,813,000	174,057	160,728,000
	1935-36	178,675	243,433,000	162,173	182,989,000
	1936-37	165,477	263,794,000	134,696	179,284,000
	1937-38	141,686	276,290,000	119,073	194,971,000
	1938-39	161,587	306,490,000	133,745	217,008,000
Fire:	1934-35	20,856,048	28,678,717,000	17,064,927	21,321,758,000
	1935-36	21,314,830	29,742,490,000	18,023,182	22,223,679,000
	1936-37	21,301,471	30,041,467,000	18,305,746	22,286,504,000
	1937-38	21,378,750	31,860,709,000	18,042,103	22,790,755,000
	1938-39	25,580,648	35,667,513,000	21,831,149	26,054,153,000
Marine:	1934-35	5,983,524	9,676,112,000	975,081	2,056,947,000
	1935-36	6,470,590	10,543,046,000	1,088,088	2,079,711,000
	1936-37	6,838,623	10,906,507,000	1,270,835	2,387,322,000
	1937-38	6,793,531	13,326,855,000	1,284,529	2,865,262,000
	1938-39	7,182,396	14,434,316,000	1,599,168	3,447,604,000
Transportation:	1934-35	1,921,886	6,067,066,000	96,020	295,399,000
	1935-36	2,068,014	6,688,453,000	99,010	347,746,000
	1936-37	2,228,642	7,506,516,000	119,224	438,599,000
	1937-38	2,484,973	7,774,507,000	116,442	476,016,000
	1938-39	3,571,411	9,104,245,000	99,853	586,365,000
Fidelity:	1934-35	4,123	6,734,000	3,883	6,124,000
	1935-36	4,416	7,385,000	4,285	7,126,000
	1936-37	4,323	8,545,000	4,125	7,855,000
	1937-38	4,671	9,404,000	4,371	8,478,000
	1938-39	5,054	10,912,000	4,775	8,620,000
Engine & Boiler	1934-35	1,302	4,455,000	1,288	4,313,000
	1935-36	1,534	4,770,000	1,502	4,713,000
	1936-37	1,848	5,643,000	1,786	5,353,000
	1937-38	2,091	6,135,000	2,060	6,064,000
	1938-39	2,576	7,883,000	2,307	7,011,000
Automobile:	1934-35	100,792	95,712,000	60,474	63,088,000
	1935-36	271,115	128,996,000	184,896	85,428,000
	1936-37	164,382	142,758,000	120,243	98,440,000
	1937-38	179,741	153,713,000	138,996	110,464,000
	1938-39	201,062	165,408,000	151,846	122,226,000

BUSINESS CONDITIONS

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	Kind of Insurance	Business Year	New Contracts		Contracts in Force at the End of Business Year	
			Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Burglary:		1934-35	4,596	12,100,000	3,829	9,537,000
		1935-36	5,588	15,793,000	4,852	13,518,000
		1936-37	7,421	22,580,000	6,412	19,262,000
		1937-38	3,546	9,572,000	2,761	6,348,000
		1938-39	4,982	12,078,000	3,869	8,654,000
Glass:		1934-35	397	199,000	391	192,000
		1935-36	471	236,000	443	219,000
		1936-37	509	225,000	472	213,000
		1937-38	546	750,000	501	280,000
		1938-39	574	353,000	538	330,000
Air:		1937-38	25	328,000	15	253,000
		1938-39	1,863	15,516,000	1,579	11,451,000
Life:		1934-35	1,286,437	2,144,302,000	6,702,346	10,049,122,000
		1935-36	1,429,087	2,443,231,000	7,486,937	11,495,614,000
		1936-37	1,627,357	2,800,491,000	9,170,139	13,247,858,000
		1937-38	1,802,630	3,168,452,000	10,232,485	15,309,734,000
		1938-39	2,209,986	3,893,526,000	11,669,164	17,977,765,000
Conscription:		1934-35	317,963	249,392,000	1,398,454	934,593,000
		1935-36	311,961	233,551,000	1,544,160	1,040,126,000
		1936-37	346,947	262,159,000	1,749,053	1,207,198,000
		1937-38	381,495	300,690,000	1,974,551	1,397,038,000
		1938-39	500,589	426,377,000	2,294,454	1,683,246,000
Life Annuity:		1934-35	4	1,663	5	2,095
		1935-36	5	1,385	10	3,480
		1936-37	2	1,661	12	5,141
		1937-38	4	811	14	5,068
		1938-39	1	593	14	5,309

Note: Business year covers the period from April 1 to March 31 of the following year. Most companies have several kinds of insurance and accordingly capital is not given here separately.

INVESTMENTS OF INSURANCE COMPANIES

(The Insurance Year Book by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)
(Amount in ¥1,000)

Advances

Year	Num-ber of Com-panies	Mort-gages on Real Estate	Mort-gages on Factories, etc.	Mort-gages on Vessels	Loans on Securi-ties	Loans on Com-pa-nies' Policies	Loans to Public Bodies	Other	Total
1934-35	84	77,377	76,675	10,900	105,885	242,695	54,676	4,180	572,386
1935-36	82	70,819	83,037	10,152	112,583	257,602	109,071	7,338	650,602
1936-37	81	66,838	84,331	11,092	109,876	280,644	131,262	4,667	688,710
1937-38	81	69,714	83,703	14,641	155,124	307,969	156,621	4,008	791,781
1938-39	80	66,072	75,267	12,581	157,139	322,825	168,747	11,878	814,509
1939-40	80	58,512	72,194	9,263	226,241	323,685	164,253	18,699	872,639
1940-41	79	52,706	88,401	8,708	267,414	319,316	213,137	33,929	983,611
1942(Mar.)	—	44,102	128,290	—	368,788	324,728	244,221	64,973	1,175,104

INSURANCE

	Government Bonds	Local Govern- ments Bonds	Securities Deben- tures	Shares	Foreign Bonds, etc.	Total	Deposits with Banks	Grand Total Including Advances & Others
1934-35	177,674	101,904	564,989	594,279	49,529	1,488,375	340,372	2,401,133
1935-36	218,694	87,537	600,732	696,931	53,850	1,657,744	360,320	2,668,666
1936-37	238,291	88,375	667,748	887,565	56,412	1,938,391	350,743	2,977,844
1937-38	293,412	79,564	676,828	1,081,530	86,381	2,217,714	321,780	3,331,275
1938-39	405,521	83,492	718,410	1,273,622	53,479	2,534,524	347,053	3,349,033
1939-40	611,209	78,160	780,418	1,453,209	140,643	3,063,638	382,178	4,318,455
1940-41	1,046,541	78,484	876,245	1,664,422	257,680	3,923,372	419,259	5,326,242
1942 (Mar.)	1,315,214	69,936	1,600,910	964,706	270,428	4,221,194	172,184	6,090,044

Note: Figures for 1939-40 and 1940-41 are estimates.

INSURANCE BUSINESS

New Business Written During the Year

At the End of	Life	Conscrip- tion	Casualty	Fire	Marine	Transporta- tion	Others*
1937	349,737	55,425	33,893	7,746,191	3,532,487	1,093,733	41,866
1938	512,925	81,081	45,013	9,996,096	4,464,901	1,565,840	51,056
1939	685,351	134,035	47,666	12,421,785	6,213,820	1,987,563	51,069
1940	767,891	173,070	122,899	15,694,789	5,557,970	2,137,883	69,867
1941 (Oct.)	839,737	35,523	45,601	18,327,303	5,268,320	2,291,882	53,232

Amounts in Force at the End of the Year

(In ¥1,000)

At the End of	Life	Conscrip- tion	Casualty	Fire	Marine	Transpor- tion	Others*
1937	15,441,914	1,397,038	241,533	38,611,781	5,912,559	547,418	156,346
1938	18,172,905	1,683,246	277,325	44,428,090	7,228,090	758,988	187,970
1939	22,322,400	2,173,276	303,207	58,548,390	8,774,306	1,352,633	241,416
1940	27,759,293	2,950,837	347,577	90,300,675	10,645,566	1,553,912	393,605
1941 (Oct.)	32,142,860	3,593,316	580,937	116,019,990	11,969,271	1,844,156	339,398

New Business Written
During the YearAmounts in Force at the
End of the Year
(In ¥1,000)

At the End of	Postal Life	Postal Annuity	Postal Life	Postal Annuity
1939	1,698,786	11,541	6,759,548	44,302
1940	2,592,157	20,855	9,065,614	63,999
1941	2,688,701	39,540	11,413,323	102,010
1942 (April)	474,757	4,209	11,848,444	106,028

Note: Compiled by Bureau of Post Office Life Insurance, Ministry of Communications, Tokyo, for postal insurances, and by Bureau of Insurance, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Tokyo, for other insurances. Figures includes Japan proper and Saghalien. (*) Including credit, boiler, automobile, theft and window glass insurances.

IMPORTANT INSURANCE COMPANIES

Grand Total Including Advances & Others																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																								</
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Nippon Marine	Est'd. 1896	Nissan Fire and Marine	1911	Nomura Life	1895	Osaka Marine and Fire	1883	Sumitomo Life	1907
Taihei Fire and Marine	1919	Taisho Marine and Fire	1918	Telkoku Fire	1912	Telkoku Life	1888	Telkoku Marine and Fire	1893
Tokyo Fire	1887	Tokyo Marine and Fire	1878	Tokyo Movables Fire	1917	Toyo Fire	1920	Yasuda Life	1894
Yokohama Fire and Marine	1897								

Post Office Life Insurance and Annuities

Post Office Life Insurance With a view to promoting the welfare of the middle and lower classes of the community, the Post Office Life Insurance Law (Law No. 42) and the Post Office Life Insurance Special Account Law (Law No. 43) were promulgated on July 8, 1916, the former being put into effect on October 1 and the latter on August 20 of the same year. The main features of the life insurance schemes may be summarized as follows:

1. This insurance is the work of the Government and is to be dealt with at the post offices.
2. The amount of insurance for a person will be from ¥50 up to ¥700.
3. The insured need not be subjected to any physical examination.
4. If the insured die within one and a half years from the conclusion of the insurance contract by some causes other than the calamities or the infectious diseases specified in law, a portion of the amount insured will not be paid.
5. This insurance is divided into Whole Life, Endowment and Infantile. Endowment policies are divided into four kinds of the terms of 15 years, 20 years, 30 years and 40 years. Infantile policies are, at present, either 15 years or 20 years endowment.
6. The age of a person to be newly

insured must be between 1 and 60 years.

7. The Mortality Table constituting a basis for the computation of premium was compiled by adding 20% to the Male Mortality-Rates of the Japanese Population Table No. 2 published in 1912 by the Government Statistics Bureau. The rate of interest assumed is 3½% per annum.

8. The premiums are to be paid monthly. Reduced premiums are prescribed for the cases in which monthly premiums are paid in a lump sum in advance.

9. The period within which premiums should be paid is fixed at one month, and two months' grace is allowed.

10. Within one year after the lapse of the policy, it may be revived.

11. When, after the conclusion of the contract, the insured either loses one or both of his limbs or becomes blind of both eyes, future premiums need not be paid.

Whenever a policy has been in force for a period of thirty years and the insured person has reached the age of 70, the policy holder concerned may propose to have his future premiums paid up.

12. When, after the lapse of five years from the conclusion of the contract, the payment of the insured sum or the repayment of the paid-in premium is made, the beneficiary shall receive an additional sum as a dividend.

13. A loan may, on the application of the policy-holder, be granted within the limits of the amount which is to be paid back on the cancellation of the insurance contract, provided, however, that such loan shall not exceed 50/100 of the amount of insurance.

14. In order to maintain and promote the health of the insured, 240 Health Consultation Stations have been established so far in pursuance of the Health Consultation Service Regulation, 1922, in the principal cities.

15. Beneficiaries or policy-holders are required to ask the judgment of the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry prior to legal action against the Government for their contracts.

Post Office Life Annuities While the history of the Post Office Life Annuities may be traced to as far back as 1897, the authorities concerned thought it wise to introduce Post Office Life Insurance first and see how this would work. In 1926, changed social conditions and with the maturing of the first Post Office Life Insurance Endowment Policies gave favorable indications that the Annuity business would be successful, and a bill was introduced into and approved by the Diet in March.

It came into operation as from October 1 of the same year. The Post Office Life Annuity Law as amended (Law No. 47) which provided for several new kinds of annuities was put into effect as from September 1, 1939.

The main features of the system may be summarized as follows:—

1. The annuity business is to be administered by the same system as that of the Post Office Life Insurance.

2. The Annuities that may be purchased are divided into:

- (1) Immediate Life Annuities.
- (2) Immediate Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments.
- (3) Deferred Life Annuities.
- (4) Deferred Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments.
- (5) Temporary Annuities.
- (6) Group Annuities.

3. Immediate Life Annuities may be purchased either with or without provision for return of the purchase money. Deferred Life Annuities and Deferred

Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments not yet in commencement of payment and Temporary Annuities are with, and Immediate Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments without, refund of the purchase money.

4. The Guaranteed Number of Payments in the case of Deferred Life Annuities is 20, and that of Immediate Annuities is 30 if the annuitant is under the age of forty, 20 if under the age of 65, and 15 if over the age of 66.

5. If not less than ten employees of a corporation, a factory, etc. constituting not less than 70% of all eligible employees (or not less than 70% of all members of a group or class determined by conditions pertaining to the employment) enter into a contract of Deferred Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments, premiums in respect of which are payable at such amount and time as they please (convenient premium payment plan), premium abatement of not more than 10% is granted to the purchasers.

6. The ages of persons entitled to become annuitants under this system must fall, in the case of Immediate Life Annuities, between 40 and 80 inclusive, in the case of Immediate Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments between 20 and 75 (purchasers under the age of 40 are limited to widows and disabled persons), in the case of Deferred Life Annuities and Deferred Life Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments between 12 and 60, and in the case of Temporary Annuities between 1 and 18.

7. The premium rates are calculated on the mortality rates worked out by deducting 20 per cent for males and 30 per cent for females from the general mortality rate (in the case of Temporary Annuities 20 per cent from the male mortality rate) of the Japanese population.

The rate of interest allowed in the calculation of the value of annuities under the instalment payment plan is 3.5 per cent and under the single payment plan, such rate shall be determined, from time to time, by the Minister of Welfare upon the basis of the current market price of public bonds. The rate is fixed at 3.7 per cent for the present.

The reserves to be maintained against policies are worked out by the net premium method.

8. The maximum annuity that can be purchased on the life of any one person is ₹2,400 and the minimum is ₹100 under the instalment premium plan and in the case of Temporary Annuities or ₹30 under the single premium plan and convenient premium payment plan.

9. Premiums are payable in a single sum, by instalments or under the convenient payment plan; in the case of instalments the premium may be paid yearly, half yearly, quarterly (excluding Temporary Annuities) or monthly (Temporary Annuities only). All premiums are payable either at any post office designated by the purchaser or at his residence to the collector.

10. In the case of Immediate Annuities, payment of annuity will begin on the date of premium payment and will continue until the death of the annuitant. In the case of Deferred Annuities, payment of annuity will begin on the date of the annuitant's attaining the age of 50, 55, 60 or 65 and will continue until the death of the annuitant. In the case of Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments, the deceased family (annuitant in succession) receives the annuity of the same amount for the unexpired period of guaranteed payments. And finally, in the case of Temporary Annuities, payment of annuity will commence on the date of their attaining the age of 12, 15, 17 or 20 and will continue for five or ten years, as the case may be, provided that they are alive.

11. Annuitants may, subject to certain conditions, claim a change in their contracts, if applied for before commencement of annuity payment.

12. Should events stipulated as a reason for return of the purchase money actually occur, such return is to be made according to prescribed conditions.

13. Should the annuitant die as the result of war or similar incidence within a certain specified period of time, special refundment of the purchase money along with the ordinary one shall be made to the beneficiary.

14. Provided a contract reserves the right for the purchaser, the annuitant or the annuitant in succession to claim refund of premiums paid, such person may avail himself of a cash loan of not more than a certain proportion of the premiums paid, provided that the sum is not less than ₹50 per contract, or, if the proceeds are to be applied to the payment of the premium, a sum equal to one year's premiums.

15. Purchasers, annuitants, annuitants in succession or persons entitled to receive the amount to be refunded are requested, before bringing a civil action against the Government in respect of their contracts, to submit their cases before the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry.

16. A special account is established for the management of this business.

POST OFFICE LIFE INSURANCE

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance,
the Ministry of Welfare

(Amount in yen)

New Contracts

Financial Year	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured
1931-32			
1932-33	2,800,819	2,453,427	388,633,808
1933-34	2,883,356	2,412,635	371,027,797
1934-35	3,096,872	2,647,667	417,989,686
1935-36	3,150,881	2,827,243	453,306,719
1936-37	2,939,911	2,777,355	479,154,048
1937-38	3,189,259	3,051,579	597,497,484
1938-39	3,597,328	3,554,071	748,573,890
1939-40	5,312,185	5,568,217	1,308,939,689
	6,417,250	6,872,800	1,698,786,332

INSURANCE

	Revivals			Death		
	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured
1931-32	166,531	129,941	22,318,260	200,888	168,270	27,915,317
1932-33	177,317	139,218	23,617,173	213,314	178,651	29,538,679
1933-34	114,736	93,231	15,618,365	238,634	201,423	33,086,754
1934-35	78,796	65,403	10,842,614	257,899	216,506	35,008,107
1935-36	61,723	52,211	8,583,431	288,684	243,699	40,123,337
1936-37	58,028	51,028	8,472,011	298,928	254,410	42,604,374
1937-38	46,616	41,383	7,073,416	349,208	299,826	51,925,011
1938-39	45,906	41,157	7,311,452	403,787	353,499	63,651,022
1939-40	54,177	50,169	9,566,722	494,974	444,589	85,639,703

Financial Year	Expirations			Surrenders, Lapses and from Other Causes		
	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured
1931-32	55,302	43,466	4,487,420	1,544,375	1,362,007	221,778,654
1932-33	113,022	105,125	10,719,540	1,344,635	1,174,803	194,729,177
1933-34	133,608	144,528	14,808,962	964,867	899,666	144,322,939
1934-35	202,282	249,120	25,283,853	804,643	762,455	129,779,382
1935-36	283,968	313,664	31,894,568	685,812	692,006	120,202,203
1936-37	329,062	318,499	33,960,055	620,786	639,997	118,416,447
1937-38	353,632	315,919	35,201,978	505,104	549,325	106,588,529
1938-39	404,546	398,053	44,627,626	466,086	494,384	103,145,936
1939-40	389,479	403,665	47,693,500	513,175	546,434	123,118,126

Financial Year	Net Increase			Contracts in Force at the End of Financial Year		
	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured	Number	Premiums	Sums Insured
1931-32	1,166,785	1,009,535	151,770,677	16,793,485	13,632,759	2,253,136,387
1932-33	1,389,702	1,093,274	159,657,564	18,183,187	14,726,033	2,412,793,951
1933-34	1,874,499	1,525,281	241,389,396	20,057,686	16,251,314	2,654,183,347
1934-35	1,964,853	1,664,565	273,477,991	22,022,539	17,915,879	2,927,661,338
1935-36	1,743,170	1,580,197	295,517,371	23,765,709	19,496,076	3,223,178,709
1936-37	1,999,434	1,889,701	410,988,619	25,765,143	21,385,777	3,634,167,328
1937-38	2,436,000	2,430,385	561,931,788	28,201,142	23,816,167	4,196,083,346
1938-39	4,083,672	4,363,437	1,104,826,557	32,284,114	28,184,593	5,300,960,730
1939-40	5,073,799	5,528,280	1,451,901,726	37,357,913	33,712,873	6,752,862,456

Note: According to the report of the P.O.L.I. Office the number of contracts in force on July 11, 1942, reached 50,000,000, while sums insured passed over the mark of 10,000 million yen. The premiums amounted to 2,184 million yen at the end of June 1942.

POST OFFICE LIFE ANNUITIES

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance,
the Ministry of Welfare

(Amount in yen)

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	New Contracts			Deaths		
		No.	Pre-minums	Amt. of Annuities	No.	Pre-minums	Amt. of Annuities
1935-36:	Immediate Annuities	5,868	5,435,903	383,765	851	788,337	71,509
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,467	4,179,067	864,840	1,414	217,169	73,493
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	18,364	962,777	2,491,939	710	27,488	86,496

P.O. INSURANCES

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Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Surrenders			Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes		
		No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities	No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities
1936-37:	Immediate Annuities	8,644	9,202,862	627,763	917	957,483	82,572
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	17,939	6,694,375	1,243,077	1,424	208,922	68,343
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	18,948	1,199,319	2,682,482	756	33,354	97,018
1937-38:	Immediate Annuities	7,711	6,797,075	448,230	1,213	1,184,345	102,935
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,298	5,088,666	839,190	1,643	283,899	86,038
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	12,785	836,174	1,762,548	1,023	40,962	123,833
1938-39:	Immediate Annuities	10,415	8,999,196	586,526	1,305	1,253,708	103,105
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	17,848	6,733,862	1,081,840	1,990	345,845	101,700
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	10,714	839,297	1,544,548	1,075	39,473	127,617
1939-40:	Immediate Annuities	8,584	8,768,082	582,657	1,682	1,656,677	137,263
	Immediate Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments	2,788	5,892,986	350,970	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	12,862	6,481,000	993,780	1,980	372,099	102,076
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Single Premium Plan	3,584	3,584,735	434,090	3	1,337	180
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	6,614	603,033	987,286	1,165	57,534	141,647
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Instalment Premium Plan	2,934	352,003	457,439	4	751	500
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Convenient Premium Payment Plan	1,284	*45,075 247,437	*4,604 27,372	1	143	12
	Group Annuities	16,160	*66,943 447,583	*9,657 57,958	5	104	15
	Temporary Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,078	8,472,901	2,170,514	19	6,678	2,060
	Temporary Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	42,085	2,640,630	5,478,998	87	4,233	10,344
1935-36:	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,630	266,116	81,672	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,246	175,965	617,640	2,727	53,671	335,142
1936-37:	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,430	214,907	60,388	—	—	—

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Surrenders			Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes		
		No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities	No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities
1937-38:	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	4,814	157,546	531,296	2,375	70,777	291,746
	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	1,072	232,837	54,717	—	—	—
1938-39:	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	3,591	116,415	373,215	1,846	58,785	228,159
	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	973	212,551	45,242	—	—	—
1939-40:	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	2,833	88,317	287,254	1,364	49,428	171,162
	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Immediate Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	816	267,616	83,489	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Single Premium Plan	6	2,896	350	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	2,453	72,670	244,425	1,540	59,354	192,077
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Instalment Premium Plan	12	1,009	1,960	7	525	910
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Conventional Premium Payment Plan	2	78	10	—	—	—
	Group Annuities	9	48	8	—	—	—
	Temporary Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	5	1,868	600	—	—	—
	Temporary Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	42	2,727	6,169	122	6,563	15,195
Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Increase (+) or Decrease (—) from other Causes			Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year		
		No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities	No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities
1935-36:	Immediate Annuities	+159	+117,048	+8,430	33,649	37,467,109	2,870,204
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	—88	—148,081	—21,859	187,986	30,432,578	10,197,216
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	—104	—222,721	—489,983	113,678	4,563,176	14,400,998
1936-37:	Immediate Annuities	+214	+158,711	+11,446	41,590	45,871,199	3,426,841

P.O. LIFE ANNUITIES

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Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	Increase (+) or Decrease (-) from other Causes			Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year		
		No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities	No.	Pre-miums	Amt. of Annuities
(In yen)							
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	-123	-152,189	-23,784	202,947	36,550,934	11,287,778
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	-138	-191,429	-462,428	124,543	5,299,320	15,700,872
1937-38:	Immediate Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	+248	+233,075	+16,462	48,336	51,717,005	3,788,598
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	-124	-216,153	-32,094	215,398	40,906,265	11,953,159
1938-39:	Immediate Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	-144	-221,230	-457,541	130,732	5,676,556	16,280,552
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	+196	+75,763	+2,578	57,642	59,538,532	4,274,597
	Immediate Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments	-140	-212,991	-29,570	230,143	46,868,740	12,858,498
1939-40:	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	-152	-208,164	-404,368	136,022	6,130,471	16,834,680
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Single Premium Plan	+227	+200,987	+14,143	64,771	66,850,925	4,734,133
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	+33	+17,886	+527	2,821	5,910,872	351,497
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Single Premium Plan	-173	-215,403	-29,558	240,036	52,494,621	13,667,150
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	+2	+1,339	+76	3,577	3,581,841	433,636
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payment under the Instalment Premium Plan	-129	-174,960	-293,901	137,349	6,368,986	16,949,915
	Deferred Annuities with Guaranteed Number of Payments under the Convenient Premium Payment Plan	+1	+13	+100	2,912	349,731	454,169
	Group Annuities	-2	-1,547	-92	1,279	290,744	31,861
	Temporary Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	—	+1	+1	16,146	514,375	67,592
	Temporary Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	—	+2,767	-232	15,054	8,467,122	2,167,622
		-4	-619	-1,252	41,830	2,626,487	5,446,038

Note: 1. * The figures indicate

Note: 1. * The figures indicate the amount of the second and subsequent premiums paid in and the amount of bought thereby. 2. Premiums under the Instalment Premium Plan indicate the amount of yearly payment.

INSURANCE

Loans and Investments of the P.O.L.I. Fund in 1940

	(In ¥1,000)	At the End of March 1940	At the End of Dec. 1940
Public advances		385,961	391,845
Advance against the insurance policies		143,373	138,635
Investments in Government bonds		394,593	481,920
Investments in local government bonds		675,817	764,314
Deposits at the Deposit Bureau		2,334	5,000
Short term investments		38,967	58,000
Cash on hand		4,348	27,012
Grand total including others		1,645,392	1,877,504

State Health Insurance

On March 31, 1936, the number of laborers holding policies in the State Health Insurance was 3,043,934, an increase of 717,240 as compared with the previous year. Of the total, 3,026,650 were compulsorily insured; the number of contracts under Government control was 2,096,657 as against 947,277 of contracts under the control of 370 health insurance associations.

In 1936-37, the amount paid out to the

beneficiaries reached ¥45,882,742 for 10,848,429 cases.

State Live-Stock Insurance

The live-stock insurance business is making steady progress. In March 1930 there were only 6 societies engaged in the live-stock insurance business, and only 1,304 head were insured for an aggregate amount of ¥127,622. The amount increased to ¥27,423,891 in March 1935, to ¥54,918,408 in March 1939 and to ¥70,420,558 in March 1940.

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CHAPTER XIII

AGRICULTURE



PURE CANE SUGAR

Raw and Refined—
Fuji Brand Cube and Granulated

ESTABLISHED 1900

CAPITAL Yen 64,200,000

TAIWAN SEITO KAISHA, LTD.
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TOKYO OFFICE: Yuraku Bldg., Marunouchi, Tokyo

CHAPTER XIII

AGRICULTURE

Farm Households and Arable Lands

Farm Households Number of farm households totalled 5,491,838 at the end of 1939, which is 40% of the total number of households in Japan proper. Comparison with that of the previous year indicates a decrease of 67,649 or 1.2 per cent.

As classified into those engaged wholly or in part in agriculture, the figure consists of 3,685,637 of the former, and 1,806,201 of the latter.

Farm households cultivating their own lands numbered 1,699,526; the number of tenant-farmers and households cultivating their own lands together with those leased being 1,460,953 and 2,331,359 respectively.

Classified by size of area cultivated, farm-households cultivating less than 0.50 cho number 1,853,610, a decrease of 16,142 from the previous year, those between 0.50 and 0.99 cho, 1,799,840, a decrease of 6,911, between 0.99 and 1.99 cho 1,325,805, a decrease of 3,411, and those over 1.99 cho, 512,583, a decrease of 1,178.

Owners of Arable-lands The number of owners of arable-lands totalled 5,081,874 at the end of 1939 decreasing from that of the previous year by 7,414. When classified according to area owned, those who own less than 0.50 cho

number 2,440,427, and those owning from 0.50 cho to under 0.99 cho number 1,329,483. In this way the greater the areas, the less number of owners, and so those owning 50 cho and over are only 3,034 (or 0.059 per cent) in number. In the light of the tendency during the previous 10 years general increase was traceable in the total number, but it turned to decrease in 1938, while by reference to the tendency of number fluctuation according to area owned, those under 3 cho are pursuing a steady upward course, those owning more than 3 cho showing the reverse trend.

Area of Arable-lands Area of arable-lands at the end of 1939 was computed at 6,078,729 cho, occupying 15% of the total area of Japan proper. This figure consists of 3,209,199 cho (53%) of rice-fields and 2,869,529 cho (47%) of up-land-farms. Comparison of these figures with those of the previous year indicates an increase of 945 (0.02%) in the former and a decrease of 499 cho (0.01%) in the latter.

Classified into those cultivated by owners of lands and those by tenant-farmers, area cultivated by the former was 3,297,345 cho (54%), an increase of 49,044 cho (1.4%), the latter being 2,781,383, cho (45%), a decrease of 48,598 cho (1.7%),

FARM HOUSEHOLDS AND ARABLE LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

FARM HOUSEHOLDS

Year (At the Year End)	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total	5,610,607	5,597,465	5,574,879	5,519,480	5,491,838
Households principally engaged in agriculture	4,164,035	4,176,422	4,180,672	3,704,316	3,685,637
Households partly engaged in agriculture	1,446,572	1,421,043	1,394,207	1,815,164	1,806,201
Classified by the mode of tenure of the lands					
Households cultivating their own lands	1,732,080	1,731,139	1,733,997	1,695,884	1,699,526
Tenant-farmers	1,518,181	1,517,701	1,500,994	1,462,276	1,460,953

AGRICULTURE

Year (At the Year End)	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Household cultivating their own lands to- gether with leased land	2,360,340	2,348,625	2,339,888	2,361,320	2,331,359
Classified by the size of agricultural area under operation					
Under 0.5 cho	1,908,642	1,896,357	1,884,575	1,869,752	1,853,610
0.50 cho—0.99 cho	1,919,073	1,914,018	1,905,425	1,806,751	1,799,840
0.99 " —1.99 "	1,254,817	1,262,106	1,262,814	1,329,216	1,325,805
1.99 " —2.99 "	322,583	320,615	318,182	314,004	314,405
2.99 " —4.99 "	127,920	126,540	125,539	133,302	122,065
4.99 cho and over	77,572	77,829	78,344	67,455	76,113

Excluding owners of arable-lands not engaged in cultivation.

OWNERS OF ARABLE-LANDS

Year (At the Year End)	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total	5,147,412	5,150,220	5,141,968	5,089,348	5,081,874
Under 0.50 cho	2,555,398	2,556,630	2,550,259	2,475,141	2,440,427
0.50 cho—0.99 "	1,304,482	1,305,400	1,304,924	1,307,577	1,329,483
0.99 " —2.99 "	905,956	909,933	909,035	927,548	937,408
2.99 " —4.99 "	221,245	218,851	219,346	221,994	220,884
4.99 " —9.99 "	111,128	110,549	109,799	109,973	107,848
9.99 " —49.99 "	45,788	45,580	45,353	43,914	42,790
49.90 cho and over	3,415	3,277	3,252	3,201	3,034

ARABLE LANDS

(In cho)

Year (At the Year End)	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total	6,058,753	6,085,887	6,098,435	6,078,282	6,078,728
Cultivated by owners of the lands	3,220,465	3,253,720	3,266,045	3,248,301	3,297,345
Cultivated by tenant-farmers	2,838,288	2,832,167	2,832,389	2,829,981	2,781,383
Rice-fields	3,219,326	3,217,686	3,217,929	3,208,254	3,209,199
Cultivated by owners of the lands	1,517,113	1,526,760	1,538,051	1,527,149	1,547,855
Cultivated by tenant-farmers	1,702,213	1,690,926	1,679,877	1,681,105	1,661,344
Upland-farms	2,839,427	2,868,201	2,880,506	2,870,028	2,869,528
Cultivated by owners of the lands	1,703,352	1,726,960	1,727,994	1,721,152	1,749,489
Cultivated by tenant-farmers	1,136,075	1,141,242	1,152,512	1,148,875	1,120,039

Rise in Land Value

In the past, a survey by the Industrial Bank was perhaps the one and only authentic source of information regarding selling and purchasing prices of farmland. Quite recently, however, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry made a minute survey of not only farmlands but also residential lands as well as plains. This survey, of which the result was recently announced by the ministry, consisted of a compilation of all statistical figures of land actually sold or purchased throughout the country during 1939. For the reason that this survey was the first attempt of the kind made by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, a yearly comparison

cannot be made. To make up for this defect, the following table showing the fluctuations of prices of farmland since 1932 as surveyed by the Industrial Bank of Japan is given with a comparison made between the prices surveyed by the bank and also by the ministry in 1939:

FLUCTUATIONS OF PRICES OF FARMLAND

(In yen per tan)

Year	Ordinary Paddy Field (Ta)	Ordinary Farm (Hatake)
1932	386	234
1933	387	234
1934	398	240

Year	Ordinary Paddy Field (Ta)	Ordinary Farm (Hatake)
1935	415	247
1936	435	249
1937	470	278
1938	519	304
1939	576	343
*1939	592	161
1940	687	422

* Survey by Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry: Others according to the Industrial Bank of Japan. (Figures for end of March).

A wide disparity in the average prices of ordinary farms (Hatake) as noted between the figures given by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and those by the Industrial Bank of Japan in 1939 in the foregoing table was due to the exceptionally low prices of farms in Hokkaido. In compiling the statistics, the Ministry took into account 70 per cent of the farm prices in Hokkaido whereas the bank referred to only 30 per cent of the prices of Hokkaido transactions. A wide difference in prices is also noted between prefectures because the productivity power as well as other special features such as farm rent and leases and similar profits from land have an important bearing on land prices in different prefectures. One of the principal features of the ministerial survey is the classification of sellers and purchasers according to classes to which they belong. In this respect, it is noted that the transfer and distribution of farmland are largely from landowners to independent farmers or independent tenants.

Value of Production

The total value of production by 5,491,838 farm-households in 1939 amounted to ¥6,847,808,862 (¥1,263 per household) including farms products, minor industries, live stock, cocoons, raw silk and forestry production. (For details of the last three items see following chapters.)

PRODUCTION BY FARMERS IN 1939 (In yen)

Rice	2,874,323,357
Barley and wheat	604,184,104
Vegetables	391,593,699
Fruits	156,459,188
Sweet potatoes	141,999,759
Other agricultural products	541,609,266
Live-stock production	380,303,480

Cocoons	882,946,776
Wood and bamboo	874,371,233
Total	6,847,808,862

Farm Products in 1940 The domestic production of agricultural products during 1940 totalled ¥6,315,467,000, not including the value of wood and bamboo, representing an increase of ¥265,645,000 or 4.4 per cent as compared with the 1939 production and ¥3,968,532,000 or 168 per cent as compared with the production in 1930, according to a survey by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. The 1940 production was also a sharp gain of ¥2,346,000,000 or 59 per cent as compared with the production in 1937 when the China Affair broke out, the ministerial survey revealed, thus indicating a remarkable progress of Japan's farm production as well as the sharp gain in the prices of farm products. While an increase in the quantity of production was noted in some agricultural products, the advance in the prices of agricultural products due principally to the increase of general commodity prices was the principal factor in zooming up the total value of agricultural production in Japan in the recent few years. The 1940 production of rice, the most important of farm products, totalled ¥2,554,000,000, representing a drop of ¥320,000,000 as compared with the 1939 output solely because of the poor rice crop. The 1940 rice production was also a decline of 8.2 per cent in quantity as compared with the 1937 crop but a gain of ¥482,000,000 or 23.3 per cent as compared with the same year. The production of cocoons in 1940 aggregated ¥862,455,000, receding both in quantity and value from 1939, but increasing by 1.8 per cent in quantity and twice as much in value as compared with the 1937 figures. The production of wheat, barley and rye during 1940 gained by 79 per cent as compared with 1937, due solely to the increased production since the outbreak of the China Affair. The 1940 production of fruits, tea and milk was more than doubled as compared with the 1937 output while a noteworthy gain was also noted in 1940 over 1937 in the production of wheat, barley, rye, food-stuff farm products, vegetables and flowers, straw products, meat, eggs, honey and beeswax. Thus, it is noted that the production of the majority of farm products, with the lone exception of rice, has been nearly doubled since the outbreak of the China Affair in 1937.

AGRICULTURE

The ratio of the total value of rice production against the combined value of farm production receded from 52.2 per cent in 1937 to 40.4 per cent. Details follow:

Farm Products	—1940—	
		Ratio in Total
Rice	2,553,564	40.4%
Wheat, Barley, Rye	725,738	11.5%
Foodstuff Agricultural Products	479,207	7.6%
Fruits	245,008	3.9%
Vegetables, Flowers	506,526	8.0%
Farm Products Used as Industrial Materials or Ornament	264,222	4.2%

Farm Products

	—1940—	
		Ratio in Total
Tea	71,870	1.1%
Straw Products	110,182	1.8%
Cocoons	862,455	13.7%
Meat	220,490	3.5%
Milk	78,472	1.2%
Eggs	195,215	3.1%
Honey and Beeswax	2,518	0.0%
Total	6,315,467	100.0%

Rice Statistics

Supply and Demand of Rice The supply and demand of rice in Japan proper for the past 10 years were as follows:

SUPPLY

(In koku)

Rice Year	Brought over from the Previous Year	Production of the Year Before	Imports including those from Territories	Total
1930	7,027,557	59,557,694	8,602,411	75,187,662
1931	5,719,241	66,875,535	11,521,639	84,116,415
1932	9,140,247	55,215,263	11,603,648	75,959,158
1933	8,907,430	60,390,098	12,747,714	82,045,242
1934	9,007,598	70,829,117	14,251,095	94,087,810
1935	16,430,872	51,840,182	13,020,173	81,291,227
1936	9,936,142	57,456,976	14,204,449	81,597,567
1937	8,006,500	67,339,699	11,879,389	87,225,588
1938	7,511,728	66,319,764	15,271,388	89,102,880
1939	8,493,300	65,869,092	9,780,412	84,142,804

DEMAND

	Exports including those to Territories	Carried forward to Next Year	Consumption	Total Population in Japan Proper	Per Capita Consumption
1930	558,367	5,719,241	68,910,054	64,051,000	1.076
1931	1,997,925	9,140,247	72,978,243	64,993,000	1.123
1932	677,652	8,907,430	66,374,076	65,904,000	1.007
1933	623,747	9,007,598	72,413,897	66,920,000	1.082
1934	936,785	16,430,872	76,720,153	68,805,000	1.131
1935	802,257	9,936,142	70,552,828	69,757,000	1.026
1936	557,048	8,006,500	73,034,019	70,763,000	1.047
1937	647,642	7,511,728	79,066,218	71,787,000	1.117
1938	587,185	8,493,300	80,022,395	72,827,000	1.115
1939	761,511	4,061,353	79,319,940	72,827,000	1.089

The rice year begins with November and ends with October of the following year, and hence the production of the year 1930 represents the crop in the autumn of 1929.

RICE CONDITIONS IN CHOSEN

Year	Production the Previous Year	Exports to Japan Proper (In 1,000 koku)	Consumption
1931	19,183	8,409	10,537
1932	15,873	7,569	8,392
1933	16,346	7,972	8,508
1934	18,192	9,425	8,710
1935	16,554	8,856	8,134
1936	17,884	9,460	8,508
1937	19,410	7,161	12,579
1938	26,797	10,702	15,787
1939	24,139	6,051	17,647

RICE CONDITIONS IN TAIWAN

Year	Production the Previous Year	Exports to Japan Proper (In 1,000 koku)	Consumption
1931	7,516	2,656	4,874
1932	8,072	3,338	4,676
1933	8,666	4,118	4,782
1934	9,088	5,045	4,270
1935	9,122	4,491	4,201
1936	9,558	4,787	4,634
1937	9,233	4,841	4,590
1938	9,816	4,800	4,832
1939	8,962	4,001	5,093

UTILIZATION OF RICE

According to Purposes, in Japan Proper
(From November 1, 1937 to
October 31, 1938)

(In 1,000 koku)

Used for	Amount used	Percentage
Seeding	844	1.05
The table	69,679	87.07
Saké brewery	3,874	4.84
Making "mochi" (rice cake)	3,754	4.69
Making Japanese sauce etc.	554	0.69
Making Japanese confectionaries and jelly	1,032	1.29
Paste	58	0.07
Others	227	0.28
Total	80,022	100.00

Rice in 1940

Price of Rice The standard price for 1941, or for rice cropped in 1940, was fixed at ¥39.00 minimum and ¥43.00 maximum per koku of unhulled rice in December 1940, in consonance with the rise of prices in general.
The standard prices for the years fixed according to Articles 2 and 3 of

the detailed regulation anent the Rice Control Law of 1933 have been as follows:

STANDARD PRICES OF RICE

(In yen, Per koku, Unhulled Rice)

Date of Announcement	Standard Price Minimum	Standard Price Maximum
Nov. 1, 1933	22.70	30.50
Dec. 19, "	23.30	30.50
Dec. 21, 1934	24.30	31.50
Dec. 21, 1935	24.80	33.20
Dec. 21, 1936	24.90	33.90
Dec. 23, 1937	27.30	35.40
Dec. 22, 1938	29.90	35.40
Aug. 26, 1939	"	43.00
Nov. 6, "	32.50	43.00
Dec. 23, 1940	39.00	43.00

Rice Crop in 1941 Rice crop in 1941 reached 55,000,000 koku according to an announcement made by the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry. Compared with crop obtained in the previous year this showed a decrease of 5,800,000 koku or 10.5 per cent and in comparison with the average for the preceding five years it meant a decrease of 10,800,000 koku or 19.6 per cent. Farm area covered with rice plants involved 3,178,220 chobu and the national average of crop per tan or 1/10 chobu amounted to 1.915 koku. a koku being equivalent of 5.11902 U.S. bushels.

Precipitation was wanting around the time for transplanting young rice shoots and water was insufficient, thus either delaying the transplanting work or entirely making it impossible. In July, however, the weather was generally favorable for the growth of the plant, excepting Hokkaido and a part of the north-eastern districts of the Main Land. The low temperature in the beginning of August hindered the proper growth of the plant to a certain degree.

The comparison of the last 6 years. is as follows:

RICE CROP IN 1936-1941
in Japan Proper

	Area Planted in cho	Rice Crop in koku
1936	3,206,963.0	67,339,699
1937	3,217,051.5	66,319,764
1938	3,220,729.0	65,869,092
1939	3,192,703.0	68,964,468
1940	3,178,220.2	60,874,252
Average for		
1936-1940	3,203,133	65,873,455
1941	3,183,000	55,087,000

VALUE OF CEREAL PRODUCTION IN JAPAN PROPER

(Area in cho, Value in yen)

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total Area	5,082,713	5,095,489	5,116,801	5,074,467
Production (Value)	2,226,310,331	2,500,520,303	2,615,554,064	3,528,621,083
Rice				
Area	3,206,963	3,217,051	3,220,729	3,192,703
Production	1,865,268,551	2,071,889,318	2,172,706,376	2,874,323,357
Wheat				
Area	688,959	724,602	725,101	745,552
Production	173,215,048	210,937,714	202,001,262	317,056,062
Oats				
Area	125,557	122,594	137,371	123,871
Production	12,600,640	17,224,780	22,477,540	19,810,411
Barley				
Area	340,773	330,182	357,609	353,890
Production	60,871,161	75,185,874	87,037,171	118,954,061
Rye				
Area	439,570	429,494	414,812	409,557
Production	84,165,931	100,130,993	93,676,993	148,323,679
Other cereals				
Area	280,891	271,566	263,177	248,894
Production	30,189,000	34,151,624	33,654,722	50,153,513

Other Farm Productions

Leguminous Plants Area of leguminous plants in 1939 was 583,123 cho and the production was value at ¥167,950,279. During the past decade the area planted has been pursuing a slow downward movement. Soya-beans and azuki (red) beans are predominant both in area and production. The area of plantation and the amount of production of these two articles in 1939 were as follows:

	(In cho)	(In koku)	(In yen)
Soya-beans	329,674	2,700,402	51,119,383
Azuki beans	97,392	701,048	29,770,625

Tuber and Root Crops Area cultivated with tuber and root crops in 1939 was 648,902 cho and the value realized from their production was ¥381,596,506 and both showed an increase as compared with preceding years. From the standpoint of area and production, sweet potatoes, 'daikon' (giant radish), satsumo and potatoes are predominant.

	(In cho)	(In kan)	(In yen)
Sweet potatoes	277,827	933,140,458	141,999,759
Daikon	109,446	662,360,067	69,081,274
Potatoes	161,558	492,816,846	50,967,490

Industrial Crops Area cultivated with industrial crops in 1939 amounted to 307,736 cho and the production was valued at ¥239,953,525.

Chief products are summarized below:

Tobacco	22,807,820 kan	¥85,837,932
Sugar cane	2,186,012,924 kin	17,071,057
Rapeseed	1,002,296 koku	25,902,028
Rushes	19,443,483 kan	22,923,632
Insecticide		
flowers	2,553,261 kan	18,340,191
Arum	15,733,471 kan	15,625,536

Vegetables Area under vegetables in 1939 was 221,392 cho and the value of the production was estimated at ¥188,983,431.

Chief products are given below:

	(In kan)	(In yen)
Water-melons	110,425,029	27,310,815
Tsukena	201,644,951	31,759,792
Egg-plants	113,771,386	24,814,567
Cucumbers	74,529,004	17,003,790
Negi (onion)	66,948,672	19,547,746
Pumpkins	83,098,868	15,484,575
Tomatoes	40,534,278	10,079,494

Fruits The production of fruits in 1939 was valued at ¥156,460,000, having increased by ¥41,356,629 as against the figure of the previous year.

Predominant are the following:

	(In kan)	(In yen)
Mandarin oranges	123,572,000	44,106,000
Persimmons	70,906,000	20,232,000
Japanese pears	44,203,000	19,849,000
Apples	55,925,000	32,247,000
Grapes	15,860,000	9,243,000

Tea Tea grown in 1939 was 15,325,273 kan in quantity and ¥46,665,475 in value. Review of the past decade indicates an unbroken rise in production as a whole, while fluctuations in values of production have been brought about by falling-off prices.

Livestock and Poultry (1) **Horses.** Horses at the end of 1936 numbered 1,431,920, consisting of 816,599 female and 615,321 male. Foals and horses died to the number of 127,316 and 27,218 respectively. The increase in number during the past decade has been very slow, often tending towards decline.

(2) **Cattle.** Cattle at the end of 1939 numbered 1,967,214 (female, 1,495,234, male, 471,980). Cattle died numbered 18,694. The tendency of the past ten years was a steadily increasing one.

(3) **Swine.** Number of swine at the end of 1939 totalled 1,069,732. During the year, swine died or killed numbered 175,352. The raising of swine has been showing a sharp advance during the past decade, the number at the beginning of the decade being nearly doubled by the close of the same period.

(4) **Sheep and Goats.** Sheep and goats at the end of 1939 numbered 149,003 and 286,702 respectively, the former increasing as compared with the previous year, and the tendency during the past ten years has been towards increase.

Generally speaking, the raising of sheep and goats is still on quite a small scale in spite of this marked progress.

(5) **Fowls.** The total number of fowls at the end of 1939 was 49,980,385 (valued at ¥54,774,472). During the past ten years the number has increased by 100 per cent.

Livestock Products (1) **Milk.** The quantity of milk obtained in 1939 amounted to 1,922,312 koku valued at ¥58,956,134. The number of cows milked was 122,911 at the year end.

(2) **Meat and Animals Slaughtered.** The number of slaughter-houses at the end of 1939 was 708 and number of animals slaughtered and the quantity of meat obtained were as follows:

Number of Animals Slaughtered	
Horses	44,707
Cattle	373,781
Calves	33,808
Swine	1,311,553
Sheep	3,439
Goats	39,149
Total	1,806,437

Quantity	of	Meat	Obtained
Horses			1,727,217 kan
Cattle			19,538,485
Calves			345,039
Swine			18,296,049
Sheep			17,190
Goats			92,729
Total			40,016,545

(3) **Dairy and Meat Products.** Dairy production in 1939 amounted to 62,432,435 kin valued at ¥39,986,778. Meat products totalled 7,155,878 kin valued at ¥6,577,476.

(4) **Eggs.** Number of eggs obtained during the year ending June 1939 was as follows:

	Number	Value
Fowls'	3,488,971,416	¥144,344,919
Ducks'	15,692,607	623,401

Tea Industry

Although the tea trade has become greatly depressed because of the aggravation of the world situation, tea occupied an important position in Japan's export articles prior to the outbreak of the China Incident. With raw silk, it was an important item of export to the United States.

Naturally, the reorganization of the domestic tea industry began to draw attention with the increasing strain in the relations between Japan and the United States as in the case of raw silk. Unlike the raw silk industry, however, no attempt has been made by tea producers to take necessary steps to cope with the new situation, principally because of the comparatively large domestic consumption of tea. More than 60 per cent of the domestic production of tea has been consumed in Japan, thus presenting a striking contrast with raw silk which depended on exports for about 90 per cent of the production.

Even after the outbreak of the China Affair, the exports of tea continued upward, amounting to 6,550,000 kwan in 1937, 6,260,000 kwan in 1939 and 3,170,000 kwan in the first nine months of 1940, although the increase was accounted for by shipments to the yen bloc countries which failed to yield any foreign currency. To cope with the situation, the curtailment of production has been advocated by the authorities concerned. Relative figures follow:

AGRICULTURE

TEA PLANTATIONS IN JAPAN

(In Chobu)

Year	Tea Gardens	Total Includ- ing Others
1930	26,482	38,088
1931	26,875	38,109
1932	27,251	38,352
1933	27,496	38,486
1934	27,887	38,880
1935	28,437	39,320
1936	28,944	39,707
1937	29,430	40,126
1938	29,637	40,134
1939	29,908	40,384
1940	30,368	41,022

(Source: Statistics of the Ministry
of Agriculture & Forestry)TEA PLANTATIONS IN JAPAN
BY PREFECTURES

(In Chobu)

Prefectures	1939	1940
Shizuoka	16,419	16,978
Kagoshima	3,119	3,235
Kyoto	1,517	1,520
Kumamoto	1,517	1,507
Miye	1,484	1,469
Miyazaki	1,293	1,368
Saitama	1,355	1,333
Fukuoka	1,183	1,271
Ibaraki	1,149	1,128
Others	11,347	11,213
Total	40,384	41,022

(Source: Statistics of the Ministry
of Agriculture & Forestry)

AVERAGE PRICES OF TEA

(In Yen per Kwan)

Year	Bolled Tea (Sencha)	Coarse Tea (Bancha)	Refined Green Tea (Gyokuro)	Black Tea (Kocho)	Others	Average
1936	2.458	0.936	9.212	2.256	6.487	2.212
1937	2.661	1.013	9.546	2.483	5.006	2.390
1938	2.250	0.926	8.778	1.606	2.787	2.002
1939	3.414	1.341	12.786	3.284	3.357	3.045
1940	5.124	2.430	16.085	5.119	4.884	4.628

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Agriculture & Forestry.

TEA PRODUCTION BY VARIETIES

(Quantity in 1,000 Kwan; Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Tea Producers		Gyokuro		Sencha	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1936	1,129,324	79.8	735.1	9,389.2	23,078.1	
1937	1,124,406	82.9	759.1	10,238.5	27,246.8	
1938	1,109,715	74.2	649.4	10,664.8	23,999.0	
1939	1,093,691	77.7	992.9	10,123.5	37,977.6	
1940	1,074,149	73.8	1,187.1	10,970.6	56,211.3	

Year	Bancha		Black Tea		Total (Including Others)	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1936	2,463.7	2,305.2	795.7	1,795.2	12,784.9	23,280.1
1937	2,712.5	2,746.8	1,235.9	3,068.6	14,376.8	34,356.5
1938	2,822.0	2,613.0	773.8	1,242.7	14,591.3	29,218.9
1939	3,027.8	4,051.3	514.3	1,689.4	15,325.3	40,665.5
1940	3,185.0	7,939.7	779.9	3,992.3	15,528.6	71,870.2

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

JAPAN'S TEA EXPORTS 1930-40

(Quantity in 1,000 Kwan; Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Green Tea		Black Tea		Others		Total	
	Quant.	Value	Quant.	Value	Quant.	Value	Quant.	Value
1930	2,399.7	8,243.4	—	—	57.6	114.1	2,457.3	8,387.4
1931	2,931.2	8,045.4	—	—	142.3	185.3	3,073.5	8,232.7
1932	3,414.9	7,987.3	—	—	175.4	185.8	3,572.4	8,173.0
1933	3,454.3	8,250.6	—	—	111.8	199.0	3,566.1	8,449.6
1934	3,787.5	8,497.4	—	—	355.3	1,059.8	3,842.8	9,557.1
1935	3,782.2	9,180.0	600.5	2,002.3	118.9	238.4	4,501.6	11,420.6
1936	3,255.2	9,459.8	974.7	3,347.4	148.5	322.8	4,378.4	13,129.9
1937	4,656.6	17,032.0	1,718.8	5,755.3	179.8	393.2	6,555.2	23,180.8
1938	3,243.1	9,135.2	834.5	2,245.0	402.4	683.1	4,480.0	12,063.2
1939	4,305.5	17,693.4	1,024.7	3,761.0	929.9	2,008.7	6,260.1	23,463.1
1940	2,218.9	13,105.2	272.0	1,888.1	679.3	2,708.6	3,170.2	17,701.9

Note: 1940 figures for the first nine months, January to September.

JAPAN'S EXPORTS OF TEA BY COUNTRIES

(Quantity in 1,000 Kwan; Value in ¥1,000)

Countries	1936		1937		1938		1939	
	Quant.	Value	Quant.	Value	Quant.	Value	Quant.	Value
Kwantung L.T.	103.2	242.3	139.0	313.2	222.8	489.3	762.1	2,715.8
Bri. India	193.5	587.7	218.2	862.0	246.7	599.4	72.1	322.0
Soviet Russia	—	—	603.0	1,867.9	—	—	—	—
U.S.A.	1,771.9	5,548.7	2,027.6	7,750.2	1,474.4	4,315.5	1,781.4	7,741.6
Canada	383.8	1,097.0	398.6	1,226.2	234.0	640.8	316.0	1,375.1
Hawaii	15.5	47.9	14.8	62.1	17.1	73.7	18.4	100.7
Others	1,911.3	5,606.4	3,153.9	11,099.2	2,285.1	5,944.5	3,310.1	11,207.9
Total	4,378.4	13,129.9	6,555.2	23,180.8	4,480.0	12,063.2	6,260.1	23,463.1

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Agriculture & Forestry.

Live-Stock Breeding in Japan

The index number of cattle being raised in Japan at the close of 1940 stood at 136 on the basis of 1931 while the index of milk cows was placed at 163 on the same basis. The number of pigs recorded a drastic decrease last year due principally to the large number of

animals which were slaughtered or fell dead.

The number of sheep at the end of last year increased by seven times and a half as compared with 1931 due to the Government encouragement of sheep breeding. Goats gained almost at the safe rate as cattle, although the number fell in 1938 and 1939. Figures follow:

NUMBER OF LIVE-STOCK IN JAPAN

(In 1,000 Head)

At end of	Cattle					Sheep	Goats
	Total	Milk Cows	Pigs				
1931	1,512.4	78.2	947.2		24.5	218.9	
1932	1,529.3	80.5	926.0		26.9	229.0	
1933	1,559.8	86.9	913.5		30.5	236.0	
1934	1,614.8	94.2	980.7		36.0	253.8	
1935	1,684.5	100.3	1,063.1		47.3	277.9	
1936	1,770.9	105.1	1,109.7		61.0	292.2	
1937	1,825.8	109.4	1,088.2		89.8	293.3	
1938	1,894.3	115.8	1,140.5		114.0	281.7	
1939	1,967.2	122.9	1,069.7		149.0	286.7	
1940	2,060.9	127.2	766.2		184.4	300.4	

AGRICULTURE

NUMBER OF HOUSES RAISING CATTLE OR PIGS

(In 1,000 Houses)

At end of	Houses Raising Cattle			Houses Raising Pigs		
	Numbering			Numbering		
	1	2-4	Over 5	1	2-4	Over 5
1931	1,065.3	147.9	10.0	304.3	159.4	23.0
1932	1,071.1	151.6	10.4	318.2	154.6	20.5
1933	1,081.3	158.0	10.9	325.7	153.9	19.1
1934	1,099.3	173.0	11.1	342.7	168.4	20.5
1935	1,120.6	192.1	11.8	365.7	184.9	22.5
1936	1,154.4	210.8	12.8	385.4	191.3	23.4
1937	1,186.6	221.4	12.7	378.8	187.4	22.5
1938	1,229.3	231.8	13.0	382.9	196.3	24.7
1939	1,279.4	238.6	13.3	377.9	221.7	22.5
1940	1,358.2	245.0	13.0	317.3	120.7	15.2

According to the latest report, the number of live-stock butchered during 1940 totalled 1,669,300 head, exclusive of horses. Due to the fixation of official prices which apply to six leading cities, there has been a tendency for the inflow of slaughtered animals into cities in the vicinity of butchering centers with the result that the supply of meat has become extremely unbalanced. With the

Japan Meat Merchants' Central Federation having fixed the allotment of butchered animals to respective prefectures under the supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, however, the supply and demand of meat is expected to be harmoniously balanced in the near future. The number of live-stock slaughtered follows:

NUMBER OF LIVE-STOCK SLAUGHTERED

(In 1,000 Head)

Year	Number of Butcheries	Cattle	Calf	Horses	Pigs	Sheep	Goats	Total	Meat* Supplied
1931	629	292.1	27.9	76.9	695.4	1.1	27.7	1,121.1	25,572
1932	665	331.6	29.2	80.4	986.7	1.1	28.7	1,457.7	31,631
1933	679	326.2	30.3	92.4	983.2	1.5	34.6	1,468.4	31,064
1934	696	297.0	28.7	89.8	974.1	1.4	42.6	1,433.6	30,223
1935	701	299.9	31.2	89.4	1,044.1	1.4	48.3	1,514.4	36,914
1936	734	300.6	33.7	95.4	1,239.6	1.4	50.4	1,721.0	35,676
1937	733	348.7	40.5	72.2	1,272.5	2.6	53.0	1,789.4	37,839
1938	716	365.6	35.0	40.8	1,218.0	3.1	45.8	1,708.3	36,933
1939	708	373.8	33.8	44.7	1,311.5	3.4	39.1	1,806.4	40,017
1940†	—	423.5	31.7	—	1,192.9	3.2	6.9	1,669.3	38,446

Note: * In 1,000 kwan; † 1941 total and meat exclusive of horses.

Honey and Bees-Wax

At the end of 1940, there were 47,464 houses raising honey-bees in Japan, representing an increase of 674 houses or 8.4 per cent as compared with the corresponding period in the preceding year, apparently due to the recent shortage of sugar and the advance in prices of honey-bees.

The domestic production of honey in

1940 amounted to 83,800 kwan valued at ¥2,416,000, or a gain of 102,000 kwan or 13.8 per cent in quantity and ¥729,000 or 43.2 per cent in value as compared with the preceding year. The production of bees-wax in 1940 increased by 10,000 kwan or 36.8 per cent in quantity and by ¥100,000 or 54.9 per cent in value as compared with 1940, thus contributing greatly to the economic life of the agricultural community. Details follow:

LIVE-STOCK

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NUMBER OF HOUSES RAISING HONEY-BEES

	Years	Houses Keeping			Total
		Less Than 10 Boxes	10-50 Boxes	More than 50 Boxes	
Pigs	1930		1,679		
	1931	37,957	1,679	297	39,933
Over 5	1932	41,896	2,096	392	44,384
23.0	1933	44,269	2,312	414	44,995
20.5	1934	45,613	2,380	400	48,393
18.1	1935	47,986	2,609	444	51,039
20.5	1936	48,826	2,541	424	49,072
22.5	1937	46,319	2,340	213	48,000
23.4	1938	45,173	2,390	407	45,833
24.7	1939	43,278	2,148	405	43,790
22.5	1940	41,386	1,999	516	47,464
13.2		44,418	2,530		

NUMBER OF BOXES OF HONEY BEES BY ORIGIN

	Years	Domestic Species		Foreign Species	Total
Federa	1930	74,496		92,885	167,381
of bunch	1931	82,097		104,266	186,363
fectures	1932	82,394		114,178	196,572
istry of	1933	82,174		114,669	196,843
ver, the	1934	85,796		123,464	209,260
expected	1935	85,545		124,872	210,417
ne near	1936	81,226		119,994	201,220
slaught	1937	84,234		119,795	204,029
	1938	76,310		113,386	189,969
	1939	74,090		109,191	183,281
	1940	85,620		138,439	224,113

PRODUCTION OF HONEY AND BEES-WAX

Years	Honey		Bees-Wax		Total
	Kwan	Yen	Kwan	Yen	Yen
1930	496,470	908,389	6,319	33,293	941,682
1931	532,292	881,465	6,612	32,574	914,039
1932	590,014	948,788	6,407	29,781	978,569
1933	634,069	1,028,173	6,247	38,583	1,056,756
1934	699,337	1,121,836	6,984	31,220	1,153,056
1935	688,677	1,112,245	7,684	34,374	1,146,619
1936	670,081	1,149,354	6,720	31,389	1,180,743
1937	753,078	1,287,675	6,810	25,493	1,323,168
1938	708,100	1,292,172	6,744	41,333	1,333,505
1939	736,183	1,686,903	7,836	65,919	1,752,822
1940	837,804	2,416,211	10,723	102,078	2,518,289

Promiculture in 1940

The production of fruits is subject to a sharp change in a greater degree than other farm products for the reason that fruit-trees are extremely sensitive to weather conditions. Fruit-trees themselves have a very peculiar characteristic of bearing a smaller number of fruits every other year. Thus, it is noted that the production of fruits drops almost without exception every other year. However, the fruit production in 1940 recorded a considerable gain due to a remarkable increase in the number of fruit-trees despite the fact that the preceding year had seen a very good crop. The 1940 production of fruits in Japan

totalled ¥245,000,000, representing an increase of ¥88,500,000 or 56.6 per cent compared with the 1939 production, or 2.6 times as much as the 1936 production preceding the outbreak of the China Affair.

Of the total 1940 production of fruits, mandarin oranges accounted for ¥71,000,000 or 29 per cent, gaining by ¥27,000,000 or 61 per cent compared with the preceding year. Apples, persimmons and Japanese pears followed in that order. Those four fruits accounted for 77 cent of the total fruit production in Japan during 1940. Plums, as military foodstuff, also increased greatly in 1940, the production in that year topping

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¥10,000,000.

Quantitatively, the 1940 production of fruits aggregated 382,000,000 kwan or 6.4 per cent more than the production in 1939.

The total area of orchards as at the end of 1940 aggregated 156,000 chobu, rising by 7.6 per cent as compared with the close of the preceding year. Relative figures follow:

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION OF FRUITS BY YEAR

Years	Number of Fruit Trees —1,000 trees—	Fruit Production —1,000 kwan—	Value of Production —¥1,000—
1931	72,241	254,610	61,261
1932	74,135	299,719	64,244
1933	76,405	300,655	74,292
1934	76,497	291,414	69,644
1935	80,989	347,030	77,566
1936	82,782	298,253	81,812
1937	84,398	340,769	92,115
1938	84,750	338,372	115,103
1939	87,112	375,893	156,459
1940	91,379	382,072	245,608

NUMBER OF FRUIT-TREES IN JAPAN

(In 1,000 Trees)

Fruits	1937	1938	1939	1940
Plums	5,716	5,853	5,960	5,984
Peaches	5,091	4,976	4,991	4,843
Cherries	430	430	428	410
Loquats	2,222	2,207	2,279	2,268
Japanese Pears	8,233	7,961	8,059	7,908
Foreign Pears	301	309	335	410
Apples	4,247	4,421	4,553	4,932
Persimmons	17,923	18,033	18,302	18,276
Grapes	6,163	5,888	5,651	5,319
Mandarin Oranges	26,547	26,955	28,506	33,199
Navel Oranges	1,671	1,742	1,708	1,703
Chinese Citrons	3,574	3,619	3,926	3,657
Other Oranges	2,280	2,350	2,414	2,470
Total	84,398	84,750	87,112	91,379

PRODUCTION OF FRUITS IN JAPAN

(In 1,000 Kwan)

Fruits	1937	1938	1939	1940
Plums	*343	*429	*422	*442
Peaches	12,354	12,412	12,382	13,151
Cherries	1,284	1,325	1,306	1,391
Loquats	5,595	5,636	5,215	6,017
Japanese Pears	42,743	43,269	44,203	44,414
Foreign Pears	1,082	1,114	1,237	1,700
Apples	41,572	49,226	55,945	59,957
Persimmons	61,528	66,297	70,906	74,332
Grapes	18,412	16,049	15,860	16,838
Mandarin Oranges	117,019	93,239	123,572	114,604
Navel Oranges	5,046	5,533	5,212	5,629
Chinese Citrons	17,131	22,798	19,073	21,713
Other Oranges	5,795	6,452	6,223	6,840
Total	**340,769	**338,372	**375,893	**382,072

Note: * Plums given in 1,000 koku. Converted into kwan at the rate of 1 koku for 35 kwan, the plum production amounted to 12,021,000 kwan in 1937, 15,022,000 kwan in 1938, 14,759,000 kwan in 1939 and 15,486,000 kwan in 1940. ** Total includes plum production in 1,000 kwan.

PRODUCTION OF FRUITS

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PRODUCTION OF FRUITS IN JAPAN

(In ¥1,000)

Fruits	1937	1938	1939	1940
Plums	5,258	6,725	8,302	10,772
Peaches	4,014	4,483	6,741	9,469
Cherries	908	1,120	1,352	1,792
Loquats	2,817	2,747	3,746	5,673
Japanese Pears	11,778	14,671	19,849	27,605
Foreign Pears	490	571	775	1,402
Apples	14,884	22,396	32,247	56,659
Persimmons	13,093	15,180	20,232	31,167
Grapes	6,480	6,618	9,243	14,071
Mandarine Oranges	25,367	32,891	44,106	71,155
Navel Oranges	2,170	2,452	2,684	3,773
Chinese Citrons	3,521	3,697	5,185	8,588
Other Oranges	1,345	1,551	1,995	2,823
Total	92,115	115,103	156,459	245,008

Village Societies

Agricultural Associations Agricultural associations are organized by local administrative bodies for the improvement of the agricultural industry. In 1939 there were 11,049 city, town and village agricultural associations, 547 county agricultural associations, 47 prefectural agricultural associations and 1 Imperial Agricultural Association in Japan proper. The Imperial Agricultural Association (Teikoku Nō Kai) is the central organ or the federation of 47 prefectural associations. The membership consisted of 8,426,173 farmers. The total expenditure of these associations amounted to ¥39,957,100.

Cooperative Societies The cooperative societies of this country have developed from the older credit societies.

The business of granting credits still forms the most important of the activities of the cooperative societies. There are at present about 15,000 of these societies throughout the country, which have a total membership of over 6,000,000. Of these institutions 13,700 are loan societies which are mostly located in agricultural villages, accommodating their members with industrial and economic funds and accepting deposits from their members and public organizations.

Of the 13,700 loan societies more than 749 are engaged only in supplying loans to members; but their number is gradually decreasing because the Government is, in line with a five-year cooperative expansion program, encouraging them to function as trading, purchasing and utilization associations as well.

VILLAGE COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Number of Cooperative Societies

(At the year end)

Societies	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Credit	1,511	1,313	1,117	895	749	706
Trading	332	301	300	297	267	248
Purchasing	332	314	301	270	257	255
Utilization	306	298	286	243	238	237
Trading and purchasing	263	258	239	170	187	176
Trading and utilization	264	256	247	201	188	172
Purchasing and utilization	144	152	162	174	174	173
Trading, purchasing & utilization	496	518	492	412	479	475
Credit and trading	166	157	140	71	41	44
Credit and purchasing	1,056	760	504	219	136	113
Credit and utilization	96	82	84	75	49	57
Credit, trading and purchasing	2,361	1,952	1,560	988	797	648
Credit, trading and utilization	32	33	37	34	12	13
Credit, purchasing and utilization	248	204	160	101	83	76

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Societies	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Credit, trading, purchasing and utilization	7,206	8,430	9,831	10,362	11,671	11,839
Classified by the organization						
Limited liability	5,973	4,499	3,062	724	728	726
Unlimited liability	971	934	934	830	809	775
Guaranteed liability	7,871	9,595	11,464	12,958	13,791	13,731
Total	14,815	15,028	15,460	14,512	15,328	15,232

Operation of Cooperative Societies

(At the end of March)

(Amount in yen)

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Number of societies investigated	13,616	13,864	14,140	13,743	14,301
Number of members	5,505,897	5,795,139	6,127,425	6,206,426	6,766,479
Capital					
Amount authorized	326,037,985	334,570,344	342,183,330	343,469,974	363,314,907
Amount paid up	250,856,520	259,996,044	263,540,430	264,759,483	279,112,453
Reserve fund	137,492,777	146,392,752	151,546,260	155,014,265	162,125,180
Loans	271,246,314	255,782,695	249,324,576	237,905,282	209,444,190
Credit societies					
Number of societies investigated	11,812	12,094	12,437	12,153	12,762
Number of members	4,261,000	4,494,000	4,785,662	4,914,655	5,488,765
Deposits	1,268,021,000	1,378,319,000	1,514,897,044	1,747,779,533	2,208,342,551
Advances	1,014,445,000	1,033,334,000	1,047,878,130	1,061,119,319	1,062,931,993
Trading societies					
Number of societies investigated	10,293	11,057	11,859	11,892	12,690
Number of members	3,857,000	4,199,000	4,624,881	4,692,671	5,426,538
Total amount of sales (for the year)	313,210,000	376,746,000	478,316,112	598,880,028	746,536,186
Purchasing societies					
Number of societies investigated	11,155	11,664	12,116	12,053	12,917
Number of members	4,108,000	4,374,000	4,879,540	4,937,494	5,702,461
Total amount of purchases (for the year)	196,126,000	249,296,000	281,541,238	353,868,062	432,922,783
Utilization societies					
Number of societies investigated	8,213	9,300	10,484	11,043	12,002
Number of members	3,308,000	3,822,000	4,378,065	4,652,454	5,335,749
Total amount of charges for utilization (for the year)	8,054,000	9,465,000	10,948,498	12,540,115	15,444,124

Village Cereal Warehouses At the time of the great crop failure which resulted from the unseasonably cold weather in the Tohoku or North-Eastern District in 1934, the Imperial House granted a large sum of money, in November of that same year, for instituting

some permanent system of mutual relief and rehabilitation for the farmers in the district.

Accordingly the Government, in order to comply with the Imperial wishes, decided upon establishing and popularizing 'Go-Kura' or village warehouses

for storing cereals against emergencies in those parts. It distributed an aggregate sum of ¥1,636,800 for the 1934 and 1935 financial years to the prefectures in the district, where 1,209 old cereal warehouses were enlarged and renovated and as many as 4,921 new ones established.

A warehouse association has been

formed in each village and each farmer-member of the association is required to store his crop of any particular year by the end of December. The aim is to complete full stocks of cereals in about five years. There are many villages where special community farms for the purpose are cultivated either by members themselves or by tenants.

NUMBER OF VILLAGE WAREHOUSES

	Total	Owners				Capacity	
		Public Bodies	Federation			For Cereals	For Cocoons
1934	6,834	6,724				23,540,000 (bales)	4,182,000 (kan)
1935	7,939	7,779	110			27,992,000	4,107,000
1936	8,513	8,304	160			30,430,000	4,541,000
1937	8,811	8,518	209			31,712,958	4,352,784
1938	9,313	8,943	293			33,512,943	4,534,446
1939	9,672	9,258	370			34,600,417	4,519,410
			414				

AGRICULTURE IN 1941-42

Agriculture and Foodstuff Problems
The smooth supply of foodstuffs under a prolonged war situation is an indispensable factor for the buttressing of the national strength. In this sense, the decreased rice crop in the 1940-41 rice years, created an acute problem in the agricultural community, but as this was a problem arising out of the various inconsistencies in Japan's agricultural economy, adequate measures began to be devised to improve the situation. They include measures for stabilizing the supply of cardinal foodstuffs by importing foreign rice and adopting a positive production increase policy of various foodstuffs. For this purpose, governmental functions concerned with foodstuffs under the competency of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry were unified and steps were taken to supplement the short supply of labor in the agricultural community due to the mobilization of farmers for the front. The Farm Implements Distribution Company and the Japan Fertilizers Company were established during 1941 by the initiative of the Government in order to facilitate the supply of necessary commodities for agriculture. Regulations for control of the distribution of rice, wheat, wheat flour, rice bran, starches, soya beans and miscellaneous cereals were promulgated for increasing the supply of staple foodstuffs, while restrictions over consumption were exercised by the encouragement of mixed foods or

substitute foods.

Production Increase Measures In pursuance of the policy of increasing the foodstuff production as a positive measure for maintaining the supply of wartime foodstuffs, the Government at the start of 1941 decided on a ten-year plan for expanding arable land by 500,000 chobu (including 200,000 chobu of irrigated fields and 300,000 chobu of upland fields), and enacted the Farmland Development Law for the purpose. This law which took effect on May 1, 1941, provided for the creation of the Farmland Development Corporation and the Upland Development Corporation. Those two bodies immediately upon establishment started cultivating 82,000 chobu of farmland by utilization of water facilities and developing 140,000 chobu of upland districts in the Tohoku prefectures, respectively. The Government also promulgated the Farmland Control Ordinance in an endeavor to check reckless conversion of farmland into residential zones on February 1, 1941. Measures were also taken by the Government to guarantee the smooth supply of labor in the farming areas to cope with the expansion of farmland. For this purpose, the Agricultural Production Control Ordinance was promulgated on November 7 in order to secure the supply of fundamental labor in the agricultural community. The total area of farmland in Japan in 1940 dropped by 0.2 per cent compared with the preceding year as follows:

FARMLAND IN JAPAN AT END OF 1940

(In 1,000 Chobu)

	Total Area	Farmland Expanded	Farmland Destroyed
Irrigated Fields	3,206 *(0.8%)	8 *(7.0)	13 *(18.6%)
Upland Fields	2,870 *(0.5%)	21 *(7.0)	21 *(8.5%)
Total	6,077 *(0.2%)	30 *(3.3)	34 *(11.4%)

Note: * Decrease compared with 1939 end.

** Increase compared with 1939 end.

Agricultural Organizations The merger of agricultural bodies took a step forward when the Central Agricultural Cooperative Association was created by the suggestion of the Government on May 3, 1941, through the amalgamation of seven leading organizations, namely: Imperial Agricultural Society, Central Federation of Industrial Associations, All-Japan Federation of Cooperative Associations, Imperial Dairy Association, All-Japan Federation of Sericultural Associations, Central Chamber of Tea Associations and Central Bank of Industrial Associations. Simultaneously with the creation of this cooperative body, the Government projected the adjustment of various functions of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry concerned with foodstuffs and established the Foodstuffs Control Bureau in the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. The Government also appointed the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry as Overseas Minister, concurrently, in order to facilitate the unification of foodstuff policies of the Central Government and colonial governments.

Distribution Control In view of the increasing necessity of controlling the distribution of farm products for the adequate maintenance of foodstuffs, the Government in 1941 positively strengthened the policy to control staple foodstuffs of the people. For this purpose, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry embarked upon the control of the supply and demand of rice, wheat and other principal cereals by the creation of the Foodstuffs Control Bureau on January 6, 1941. On February 6, the Government revised the Rice Supply-Demand Special Adjustment Accounts Law in order to expand the list of farm products to be purchased by the Government, thereby adding to the list soya beans, sweet potatoes, Irish potatoes, buckwheat, etc., to the originally-listed three items, namely: rice, wheat and wheat flour. The

Government also increased the amount of the Government purchasing fund by ¥1,400,000,000, and subjected to State control wheat, barley and rye sold by the farmers on May 17. New Wheat and Barley Distribution Control Regulations were promulgated on June 9 in order to distinctly classify distribution routes of wheat, barley and rye.

The adoption of the double-price system for rice decided upon on September 14, the grant of a Government subsidy for the maintenance of the production and acceleration of the supply of colonial rice and the adjustment of the prices of colonial rice approved by the Cabinet on October 3 were some of the important steps taken by the Government during 1941 to place rice under well-planned State control. The wartime foodstuffs storage plan approved by the Government on October 10 as an emergency measure for the absolute maintenance of the supply of foodstuffs was one of the most noteworthy Government steps taken to cope with wartime requirements.

The Government also took steps to restrict consumption of foodstuffs as a negative measure and for the purpose adopted the ticket ration system for the distribution of rice in six leading cities including Tokyo as from April 1, 1941.

Results of Foodstuff Measures Rice production in Japan proper during the 1940-41 rice year totalled 55,462,000 Koku (by the 2nd forecast by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, representing a decline of 5,355,000 koku due principally to unfavorable weather conditions. On the contrary, the rice crop in Chosen, estimated at 24,510,000 Koku by the second forecast, and in Taiwan, estimated at 9,300,000, greatly eclipsed the production in the preceding rice-year. The rice stock in Japan proper at the close of November 1, 1941, stood at 8,390,000 koku, increasing by about 4,000,000 koku compared with the preceding year. Detailed figures follow:

PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL CEREALS

(In 1,000 Koku)

Cereals	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Rice	66,320	65,869	68,964	60,818	*55,462
Barley	6,879	6,325	7,764	7,525	6,499
Rye	5,961	5,114	6,730	6,262	6,752
Wheat	9,996	8,972	12,113	13,114	10,670

Note: * by 2nd forecast by Ministry of Agriculture & Forestry.

AREA OF FARMLAND PLANTED WITH PRINCIPAL CEREALS

(In 1,000 Chobu)

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Rice	3,217	3,221	3,192	3,173	3,178
Barley	330	358	354	340	358
Rye	429	415	410	405	470
Wheat	725	725	726	841	826

Rice in East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere

Rice production within the East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, totalling 90,000,000 metric tons annually, accounts for 64 per cent of the world rice crop. Inclusive of the production in India, the total rice production in Asia aggregates 130,000,000 tons or 95 per cent of the world production.

Since, however, the supply sources and consumption centers of rice are confined to more or less the same areas, the movement of rice as an international commodity is not brisk in the world market. Naturally, Thailand, Burma and French Indo-China are the only countries exporting rice to other markets, the combined exports of those three countries averaging 5,000,000 metric tons yearly.

Within the co-prosperity sphere, China is the largest rice-producing country and is also a leading rice-importing nation, as her demand is larger than her supply. China's imports of rice during 1939 totalled 55,000,000 yuan corresponding to 4.1 per cent of the total imports of that country. In the following year, the total imports increased to 170,000,000 yuan or 8.5 per cent of China's total imports in 1940. Actual rice imports by China are believed to be larger than officially reported, as rice is one of the cardinal items of smuggling in that country.

Japan has been importing foreign rice since 1939 when the domestic rice crop was poor due to unfavorable weather conditions, imports in that year totalling 200,000 metric tons valued at ¥3,760,000. Malay Peninsula and the East Indies are the two other leading importers of rice

in the co-prosperity sphere.

Malaya usually imports rice to the amount of about 120 to 200 per cent of its production, principally from Burma and Thailand. With 1,328,000 hectares or 65.8 per cent of arable land in Malay devoted to rubber plantation, Malaya produces rice on only 305,000 hectares or 15.3 per cent of its arable land. With the supply of rubber within the co-prosperity sphere far exceeding the demand, however, the position of rubber in the industrial department of the co-prosperity sphere will be subjected to a drastic change and the rice production is likely to increase as long as self-sufficiency continues to be the guiding principle of the co-prosperity sphere. Rice imports among the East Indies are mostly from its outer colonies while Java including Madura is almost self-sufficient in rice. Java is the most highly civilized island among the East Indies, while the rest of the island are in various stages of primitive life. The extent of civilization in the East Indies is well shown by the density of population. In Java and Madura, the population density stands at 316 per 1 kilometer while it stands at 23 in Celebes, 18 in Sumatra and only 4 in Borneo.

The density of population in Java is the greatest in the world, eclipsing Japan's 190 per kilometer by 66 per cent. As the Javanese race has lived on rice for many thousands of years, the rice-planted area in Java is most highly developed. Java, inclusive of Madura, is only one-third of Japan in area, but the rice-planted area in Java is 25 per cent larger than that in Japan.

The Philippines usually import 80,000 to 90,000 metric tons of rice annually as arable land in the Philippines is largely

devoted to the plantation of sugar. With production of sugar exceeding consumption level within the East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, arable land in the Philippines would have to be shifted from sugar to either rice or raw cotton. The Philippines would therefore tend to become self-sufficient in rice production. Burma, Thailand and French Indo-China are not widely planted with rice, but as the population in those countries is small

there is always a sufficient quantity of surplus rice which can be exported to other areas.

The remarkable progress noted in intensive agriculture in Japan is demonstrated by the fact that the rice production per hectare in Japan amounts to nearly 4 metric tons while it scarcely exceeds 1.5 metric tons in other countries in the co-prosperity sphere. Relative figures follow:

RICE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS WITHIN GREATER EAST ASIA CO-PROSPERITY SPHERE

(In 1,000 Metric Tons)

1. Imports	1936	1937	1938	1939
Japan Proper	55.4	33.5	22.7	43.8
Chosen (1)	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
(2)	25.7	25.2	8.5	—
Taiwan (1)	0	0	0	0
(2)	0.9	0.9	2.0	—
Manchoukuo	107.1	73.4	57.9	—
China	310.4	345.8	406.1	320.2
Hongkong	431.1	509.2	492.6	442.4
French Indo-China	2.8	2.1	10.9	28.4
Philippines	91.6	74.0	9.4	83.6
British Malaya	731.2	727.6	831.9	877.5
British Borneo	55.7	51.5	55.9	57.4
Dutch East Indies	233.0	177.8	334.3	277.3
Java, Madura	8.6	8.6	22.5	33.6
Outer Territory	224.4	169.2	311.8	243.8
Burma	—	0.9	1.2	1.2
British India (3)	122.3	941.8	1,092.5	1,992.2
(4)	58.5	69.0	77.5	71.3
Ceylon	537.2	528.0	537.4	602.9

Note: (1) Imports from foreign countries. (2) Imports from Japan Proper. (3) By sea. (4) By land.

2. Exports	1936	1937	1938	1939
Japan Proper	10.4	9.8	8.3	20.1
Chosen (1)	6.1	5.5	45.7	99.6
(2)	1,200.5	1,054.2	1,176.4	—
Taiwan (1)	0.0	0.1	9.9	13.3
(2)	687.1	686.9	648.5	—
Manchoukuo	1.8	3.2	13.8	—
China	26.9	21.4	0.5	7.1
Hongkong	248.6	326.3	306.0	224.7
French IndoChina	1,585.4	1,363.4	942.0	1,497.9
Thailand	1,416.5	986.7	1,398.4	1,861.8
Philippines	0.5	2.1	0.3	0.1
British Malaya	185.4	141.2	206.0	168.6
British Borneo	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Dutch East Indies	23.1	30.4	16.7	21.9
Java, Madura	12.0	19.0	8.4	12.2
Outer Territory	11.1	11.4	8.3	9.7
Burma	—	1,981.9	2,796.4	3,401.3
British India (3)	1,349.9	703.9	267.7	281.6
(4)	23.3	23.7	21.3	19.2
Ceylon	0	0	0	0

Note: (1) Exports to foreign countries. (2) Exports to Japan. (3) Exports by sea. (4) Exports by land.

RICE IN EAST ASIA

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RICE-PLANTED AREAS, RICE PRODUCTION AND PER-HECTARE PRODUCTION IN CO-PROSPERITY SPHERE

1. Rice-Planted Areas (In 1,000 Hectares):

	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Japan Proper	3,180	3,190	3,194	3,166
Chosen	1,589	1,626	1,646	1,225
Taiwan	682	658	625	—
Total	5,451	5,465	5,465	—
Manchoukuo	289	316	359	390
China	18,140	—	—	—
French Indo-China	5,644	5,580	6,012	—
—Annam	1,075	939	1,107	—
—Cambodia	684	779	785	—
—Cochin-China	2,164	2,151	2,308	2,321
—Laos	400	480	444	—
—Tonkin	1,321	1,231	1,368	1,392
Thailand	2,226	2,943	3,129	3,189
Philippines	2,061	1,912	—	—
British Malaya	299	294	305	—
British Borneo	274	275	—	—
(a) Dutch East Indies	3,867	3,960	4,011	—
—Irrigated Fields	3,476	3,571	3,636	—
—Upland Fields	391	389	375	—
Burma	4,900	5,095	5,072	4,864
(b) Co-prosperity Sphere	25,011	25,849	—	—
Total	29,256	29,849	29,519	29,275
British India	340	320	320	—
Ceylon	54,820	55,710	56,730	55,800
(c) Asia Total	58,450	59,390	60,480	59,600
(c) World Total	—	—	—	—

Note: (a) Java and Madura alone; (b) Excluding China; (c) Including others.

2. Rice Production (In 1,000 Metric Tons):

	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Japan Proper	12,498	12,309	12,225	12,806
Chosen	3,631	5,013	5,480	2,664
Taiwan	1,774	1,714	1,822	1,688
Total	17,903	19,036	18,527	17,158
Manchoukuo	597	689	750	870
China	48,015	—	—	—
French Indo-China	6,316	6,039	7,133	—
—Annam	928	1,050	1,134	—
—Cambodia	524	779	796	—
—Cochin-China	3,050	2,519	2,853	2,635
—Laos	218	296	373	—
—Tonkin	1,596	1,604	1,977	1,956
Thailand	3,380	4,554	4,524	5,083
Philippines	2,396	2,279	—	—
British Malaya	502	470	536	—
British Borneo	165	188	—	—
(a) Dutch East Indies	5,917	6,257	6,137	—
—Irrigated Fields	5,585	5,900	5,780	—
—Upland Fields	331	358	537	—
Burma	7,196	6,973	8,169	7,107
(b) Co-prosperity Sphere	44,372	46,755	—	—
Total	42,737	40,737	36,337	38,532
British India	—	—	300	—
Ceylon	—	—	—	—

AGRICULTURE

	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
(c) Asia Total	87,450	88,050	85,050	85,000
(c) World Total	93,840	94,360	91,400	91,600

Note: (a) Java and Madura alone; (b) Excluding China;
(c) Including others.

3. Per-Hectare Production (In Metric Tons)

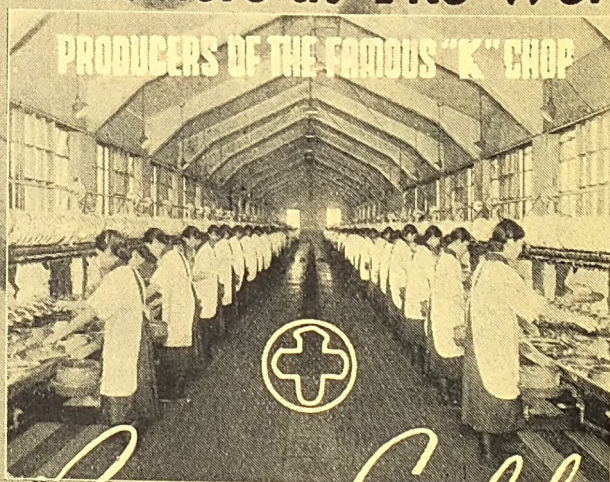
	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40
Japan Proper	3.9	3.9	3.8	4.0
Chosen	2.3	3.1	2.7	2.2
Taiwan	2.6	2.6	2.9	—
Total	3.3	3.5	3.4	—
Manchoukuo	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.2
China	2.7	—	—	—
French Indo-China	1.1	1.1	1.2	—
—Annam	0.9	1.1	1.0	—
—Cambodia	0.8	1.0	1.0	—
—Cochin-China	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.1
—Laos	0.6	0.6	0.8	—
—Tonkin	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4
Thailand	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6
Philippines	1.2	1.2	—	—
British Malaya	1.7	1.6	1.8	—
British Borneo	0.8	0.8	—	—
(a) Dutch East Indies	1.5	1.6	1.5	—
—Irrigated Fields	1.6	1.7	1.6	—
—Upland Fields	0.9	0.9	1.0	—
Burma	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5
(b) Co-prosperity Sphere				
Total	1.8	1.8	—	—
British India	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.3
Ceylon	—	—	0.9	—
(c) Asia Total	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5
(c) World Total	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5

Note: (a) Java and Madura alone; (b) Excluding China;
(c) Including others.

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	—	2.2
	—	—
	—	—
	—	2.2
	—	4.0
	—	39-10

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CAPITAL Yen 80,000,000.00

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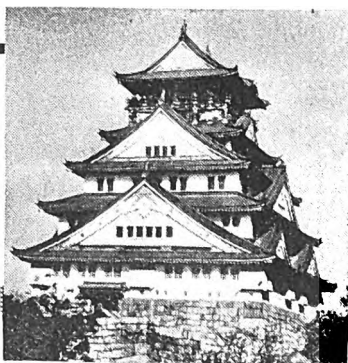
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The Osaka Castle

Trade



Mark

ESTABLISHED: 1917

GOSHO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

Head Office:

Gosho Building, Nakanoshima, Osaka, Nippon

Cable Address:

"GOSHO OSAKA"

Codes Used:

All Kinds and Private

P. O. BOX

Osaka Central 35

IMPORTS:

Cotton, Pulp and Miscellaneous Materials.

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Cotton, Rayon, Staple Fiber, Woolen Textiles
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Keijo, Kobe, Rangoon, Semarang, Sourabaya,
Shanghai, Tsinan, Tokio, Tientsin and Tsingtao.

CHAPTER XIV

SERICULTURE AND RAW SILK

History

Historical records show that the raising of silkworms has been practised in Japan for more than two thousand years. It is surmised that the industry was first introduced into the country from Korea or China, but for sometime it made but slow development, as the work was almost exclusively in the hands of the naturalized Koreans and Chinese. Following the introduction of Buddhism, and with the advance of civilization, the demand for silk gradually increased and the industry spread among Japanese farm households. After that, sericulture made steady growth until about 1,100 years ago, when, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, it made a sudden spurt and spread over half the Japan proper of those days, and in less than another century most of the remaining half of the country was engaged in silk production. Recent development made in the industry is outlined in the following table, showing the cocoon output for the past half a century.

Year	(In 1,000 kan)	Index Number
1880-1884	12,223	100
1930	106,469	871

1931	94,072	709
1932	89,550	732
1933	101,247	828
1934	87,199	713
1935	82,067	671
1936	82,892	675
1937	85,972	703
1938	75,256	615
1939	90,799	742
1940	87,546	716
1941	69,826	571

1941 Cocoon Output in Japan Proper

The domestic production of cocoons during 1941 totalled 69,827,000, representing a sharp decline of 17,720,000 kwan or 20.2 per cent as compared with the 1940 production, according to a survey by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. The ministerial survey revealed that the spring cocoons in 1941 receded by 14 per cent due principally to the frost damages as well as the adjustment of mulberry plantations. The further curtailment of the area of mulberry plantations and unfavorable weather conditions reduced the summer and autumn cocoons by 11 per cent, the ministerial report disclosed.

Details follow:

COCOON STATISTICS IN JAPAN

1937-1941

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
1. Number of Cocoon Raising-Houses (1,000 Houses):					
Spring Cocoons	1,678	1,533	1,492	1,479	—
Summer-Autumn Cocoons	1,599	1,576	1,569	1,558	—
Total	1,818	1,697	1,656	1,645	1,591
2. Egg-Cards Gathered (Million Grams):					
Spring Cocoons	66	59	59	55	50
Summer-Autumn Cocoons	77	69	74	73	65
Total	143	128	133	129	115
3. Cocoon Production (Million Kwan):					
Spring Cocoons	45.5	40.9	44.8	43.8	37.6
Summer-Autumn Cocoons	40.5	34.4	43.8	43.8	32.2
Total	86.0	75.2	87.5	87.5	69.8

4. Cocoon Production

(Million Yen):

Spring Cocoons	252.6	177.5	407.6	500.0	—
Summer-Autumn Cocoons	167.0	168.5	475.1	362.4	—
Total	419.6	346.0	882.7	862.5	—

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION OF COCOONS BY PREFECTURES 1941

Prefectures	Egg-Cards Gathered (1,000 grams)	Spring	Cocoon Production Summer-Autumn (1,000 Kwan)	Total	Decrease Compared with 1940
Hokkaido	14	5	0	5	3
Aomori	37	16	5	21	31
Iwate	896	461	178	641	435
Miyagi	1,394	320	571	891	691
Akita	197	78	44	122	76
Yamagata	3,053	791	1,086	1,877	550
Fukushima	4,377	842	1,729	2,571	1,813
Ibaragi	4,291	1,597	1,249	2,846	833
Tochigi	1,104	340	314	654	340
Gumma	11,089	3,410	2,689	6,099	1,653
Saitama	9,970	3,441	2,029	5,470	762
Chiba	2,463	898	621	1,520	563
Tokyo	2,099	683	648	1,151	382
Kanagawa	2,044	797	559	1,357	278
Niigata	2,135	770	526	1,296	264
Toyama	183	67	42	110	38
Ishikawa	431	179	111	200	89
Fukui	288	117	71	188	41
Yamanashi	8,276	2,338	2,136	4,974	626
Nagano	14,247	3,093	5,319	8,412	1,399
Gifu	4,583	1,748	1,147	2,896	660
Shizuoka	2,041	840	543	1,383	563
Aichi	7,248	2,307	1,958	4,266	163
Miye	3,017	1,448	944	2,392	640
Shiga	492	191	147	338	54
Kyoto	1,295	587	331	918	187
Osaka	18	9	4	14	4
Hyogo	1,455	730	273	1,003	140
Nara	676	216	213	420	136
Wakayama	652	272	186	458	127
Tottori	1,794	681	486	1,167	73
Shimane	1,720	657	464	1,120	64
Okayama	1,149	494	294	287	23
Hiroshima	740	317	183	500	16
Yamaguchi	299	116	77	193	31
Tokushima	2,468	858	571	1,429	300
Kagawa	508	178	136	309	30
Ehime	2,209	838	646	1,484	242
Kochi	1,691	604	502	1,106	271
Fukuoka	1,182	368	328	697	306
Saga	662	251	158	408	207
Nagasaki	847	294	226	521	133
Kumamoto	3,661	1,081	1,178	2,259	623
Oita	2,011	731	562	1,293	303
Miyazaki	1,274	451	418	869	233
Kagoshima	1,544	528	467	995	289
Okinawa	237	58	41	98	30
Total	115,262	37,595	32,231	69,827	17,720

Sericulture in Chosen

Climatically, Chosen is suitable for sericulture. Moreover, it has an abundant supply of labor and sufficient land. Naturally, sericulture has become a very appropriate side-line of farmers in the peninsula. However, the method of raising cocoons in Chosen was very primitive in the past. As a result, the quality of cocoons raised in Chosen was inferior and the production was not large. Under the circumstances, the Chosen Government-General devoted itself to the improvement of sericulture in the peninsula through the establishment of exhaustive research and experimental organs and also enacted the Chosen Sericultural Ordinance in 1919. In 1925, the Government-General drafted a production increase plan calling for advancing the cocoon production in Chosen to 1,000,000 koku within a period of 15 years by means of various encouragement measures including the grant of a special Government subsidy for the ex-

pansion of mulberry fields.

As a result of all those encouragement measures, therefore, the total area of mulberry-planted fields in Chosen in 1938 increased to 79,000 Chobu, cocoon-raising houses to 817,400 houses and the cocoon production to 701,835 koku, respectively, compared with 76,000 houses and 14,000 koku, respectively, at the time of the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen.

Parallel with the increase of the cocoon production, the Government-General also encouraged the establishment of large-size cocoon drying plants by provincial agricultural associations through the grant of a Government subsidy during the period from 1927 to 1935. Under the circumstances, the number of cocoon-drying plants subsidized by the Government came to total 53 with a combined 24-hour drying capacity of 8,300 koku. The cocoon-raising houses in the peninsula since 1930 increased as follows:

COCOON RAISING HOUSES 1930-1940

Years	Spring Cocoons	Summer-Autumn Cocoons	Ratio of Cocoon-Raising Houses Against Total Number of Farm Houses	
			Spring Cocoons	Summer-Autumn Cocoons
1930				
1935	720,813	352,255	25.1%	12.3%
1936	821,573	576,470	26.8%	18.8%
1937	826,109	588,221	27.0%	19.2%
1938	815,278	623,522	26.7%	20.4%
1939	817,476	632,466	26.8%	20.7%
1940	823,412	655,603	27.0%	20.8%
	841,132	688,494		

Parallel with the rise of sericulture in Chosen, mechanical reeling has greatly increased side by side with the advance of treadle machines. As in 1938, there were 80 mechanized reeling mills and 350,421 other reeling mills in Chosen. The raw silk production by mechanized mills, principally shipped to Japan for exports totalled 2,876,428 kilograms while the production by other mills amounted to 768,593 kilograms in 1938. To further rationalize the management of sericulture in Chosen through well-directed control and guidance, the Chosen Government-General in August 1935 enacted and promulgated the Chosen Sericultural Industrial Ordinance, which took effect from November 1 in the same year.

According to an announcement by the

Department of Agriculture and Forestry of the Chosen Government-General, the number of spring-cocoon raising houses and summer-autumn-cocoon raising houses in Chosen in 1940 increased by 2.2 per cent and 5.0 per cent, respectively, as compared with 1939. The same report also revealed that the production of spring egg-cards and summer-autumn egg-cards in 1940 gained by 3.0 per cent and 9.7 per cent, respectively, as compared with 1939, while the production of cocoons rose by 0.5 per cent and 32.0 per cent, respectively, compared with the preceding year. The 1940 production of spring cocoons was valued at ¥30,081,119 and that of summer-autumn cocoons ¥13,838,447, or reached a combined total of ¥43,919,566. Relative figures follows:

SERICULTURE AND RAW SILK

COCOON PRODUCTION IN CHOSEN 1935-40

(In 1,000 kilograms)

Year	Spring Cocoons	Summer-Autumn Cocoons	Total	Mixed Varieties in Total	Percentage
1935	14,697	6,622	21,319	20,787	97.5%
1936	14,883	7,688	22,572	22,042	97.7%
1937	14,760	7,778	22,538	21,983	97.5%
1938	14,246	7,647	21,893	22,372	97.6%
1939	14,083	6,483	20,566	20,074	97.6%
1940	14,157	6,556	22,713	22,333	97.9%

Raw Silk

Soon after the country's entry into foreign trade, the Tokugawa Shogunate put a restraint on the exportation of silk on the ground of its scarcity and of its being a prized national production. Notwithstanding such a restrictive policy raw silk exports from Yokohama increased by leaps and bounds, as enormous profits could be made by the exporters.

With the Restoration came the encouragement of home industries, the first among them to arrest the attention of the Government authorities being the silk industry, and ever since special efforts have been made toward developing this national industry. Unfettered financial help was extended to filatures in 1915, 1920, and again in 1930, and the Government has established facilities for the promotion of all phases of silk activities, schools, silk conditioning houses and various experimental stations.

The silk reeling and sericultural industry is represented by Nagano prefecture. Suwa is located in the central part of the prefecture and Okaya (Hirano Village) in Suwa district is the most thriving and largest silk reeling center. No other silk reeling district in the world can rival it, since Japan produces two-thirds of the world's entire silk production, and silk production in Nagano takes the foremost rank in Japan. Gumma prefecture is the next largest reeling center with Fukushima, Aichi, Saitama, Gifu and Kyoto following.

Production and Exports The production of raw silk of all kinds in 1939 amounted to 11,097,961 kan valued at ¥901,486,295, showing a decrease of

409,280 kan and an increase of ¥367,295,162 as compared with the previous year.

The number of silk filatures has kept falling for past 12 years, except 1930 and 1937. The Government was giving subsidy to filatures for encouragement of scrapping surplus basins in accordance with the silk reeling industry law, and the readjustment of medium-sized filatures made headway. But the total number of filatures in 1939 was 37,442, a decrease of 3,813 as compared with the previous year. The decrease was witnessed among small and medium-sized filatures as shown by the following table:

FILATURES CLASSIFIED BY THE NUMBER OF BASINS OPERATED

Those operating Less than 10 Basins	1938	1939	Comparison
10-49	39,435	35,648	(-), 3,787
50-99	816	828	(+) 12
100-299	398	387	(-) 11
300-499	451	425	(-) 26
500-999	103	94	(-) 9
1,000 and over	49	54	(+) 6
	4	6	(+) 2

Of the total, filatures using machines numbered 1,813, re-reeling filatures 32,433, and dupion filatures 3,196.

The total number of operatives was 262,883, divided by sex, 19,937 males and 242,946 females, decreasing 14,123 in the total, 942 males and 13,181 females.

In spite of the decrease in the numbers of filatures, basins, operatives and quantity of the output the value increased which was ¥901,486,295. Production of silk waste also made an increase as shown in the following table.

NUMBER OF FILATURES, BASINS AND OPERATIVES

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Establishments	Filature Worked by Machinery	Basins	Operatives
1935	45,703	2,708	297,657	347,513
1936	41,892	2,468	280,692	320,496
1937	43,422	1,892	256,115	295,148
1938	41,255	1,837	247,961	277,006
1939	37,442	1,813	239,013	262,883

SILK PRODUCTION

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Total Output		White Silk		Yellow Silk	
	Volume (kan)	Value ¥	Volume (kan)	Value ¥	Volume (kan)	Value ¥
1935	11,662,048	500,052,421	9,154,361	399,560,673	2,507,687	100,491,748
1936	11,287,329	517,246,143	9,621,836	442,153,148	1,665,493	75,092,995
1937	11,166,553	527,320,631	9,648,493	458,437,242	1,518,060	68,883,389
1938	11,507,241	534,191,133	9,720,524	454,969,224	1,786,717	79,221,909
1939	11,097,961	501,486,295	10,214,217	830,296,764	883,744	71,189,531

RAW SILK PRODUCTION AND DOMESTIC CONSUMPTION

(In 10 piculs)

Production

Season	Filature		White		Yellow		Total
	Other	Total	Other	Total	Other	Total	
1939-40	62,607	5,918	68,525	5,019	211	5,230	73,755
1940-41	58,404	7,168	65,572	5,315	303	5,618	71,190
1941:							
July	4,534	891	5,425	455	38	493	5,918
August	4,676	667	5,343	467	27	494	5,837
September	4,538	713	5,296	608	24	632	5,928
October	4,644	755	5,399	273	17	290	5,689
November	4,133	710	4,840	235	20	255	5,094
December	3,780	664	4,444	197	15	212	4,656

Consumption

Season	Filature		White		Yellow		Total
	Other	Total	Other	Total	Other	Total	
1939-40	32,306	5,683	37,989	2,056	354	2,410	40,399
1940-41	29,493	5,242	34,735	1,498	244	1,744	36,480
1941:							
July	3,394	493	3,887	166	18	184	4,071
August	3,733	512	3,245	168	28	196	3,441
September	3,003	530	3,533	199	49	248	3,781
October	3,205	546	3,751	—	281	281	4,032
November	3,419	550	3,969	237	54	291	4,129
December	3,344	517	3,861	20	48	268	4,129

Price of Raw Silk

In January 1920, raw silk was quoted at ¥4,360 per bale of 18 kan, the highest price in the history of the country's silk business. At that time the volume of production was 360,000 bales, but

during the next 10 years production increased to 730,000 bales, but unfortunately the prices did not fall in inverse ratio. Had they done so, Japanese producers would have been happy, for in June 1932, the price fell below

one-tenth that of 1920, whereas the output had only doubled. In 1933 it regained a little, but in 1934 the price fell to its lowest, and it seemed to be showing an upward tendency from the following year. It went down again in 1938, regained upward tendency in

1939 ending with ¥2,068 in December. January 1940 was highest, but began to decline in the following months to end with ¥1,510 in December. The year average was 1,513, and, in 1941, it fell to ¥1,500, as tabulated below:

RAW SILK PRICE AT YOKOHAMA SPOT MARKET

(In yen)

(Standard quality; per picul, 133 lbs.)

Year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
1926	1,942	1,860	1,711	1,503	1,519	1,576	1,602	1,557	1,601	1,532	1,466	1,441	1,585
1927	1,413	1,418	1,414	1,416	1,451	1,427	1,374	1,317	1,341	1,301	1,289	1,293	1,375
1928	1,311	1,357	1,356	1,348	1,326	1,251	1,247	1,282	1,312	1,375	1,362	1,370	1,321
1929	1,356	1,378	1,396	1,401	1,341	1,314	1,282	1,302	1,220	1,288	1,221	1,169	1,310
1930	1,174	1,169	1,165	1,139	1,100	795	705	708	648	574	581	562	775
1931	708	684	666	597	531	527	585	577	584	548	556	567	583
1932	672	653	617	534	473	469	536	803	938	891	914	928	702
1933	770	694	655	728	786	970	954	857	851	713	586	555	766
1934	583	643	570	538	523	494	474	463	465	510	550	598	537
1935	634	617	590	607	614	592	632	754	830	912	931	874	674
1936	916	764	749	746	691	681	738	771	734	771	863	871	775
1937	915	883	909	877	820	832	880	841	828	768	719	687	830
1938	683	707	713	700	701	702	797	762	778	827	808	817	750
1939	864	956	1,027	1,112	1,260	1,187	1,238	1,244	1,584	1,747	1,852	2,068	1,366
1940	2,133	1,688	1,636	1,471	1,518	1,466	1,361	1,350	1,371	1,417	1,360	1,350	1,510
1941	1,370	1,415	1,523	1,518	1,541	1,573	1,543	1,444	1,492	1,508	1,516	1,565	1,500

Silk Conditioning

The Japanese Government established a silk conditioning house in 1895 at Yokohama, with the object of facilitating raw silk transactions between buyer and seller by providing an organ for the strict examination of raw silk, and also of encouraging reelers to improve the quality of their product in the light of the results of the examination. In 1931 another one was established at Kobe, and these two silk conditioning houses are making all efforts for the maintenance and improvement of the quality of raw silk produced in the country.

The Yokohama Silk Conditioning House

The Silk Conditioning House was established in 1895 and began to operate on August 5, 1896. It was at first on quite a small scale, but was successively enlarged owing to the continual growth of the raw silk export trade.

Under the Law which went into effect on and after July 1, 1927, all transactions in raw silk for export were regulated to base on the conditioned weight of the silk determined by this Institution, and the classification tests were also enforced on and after January 1,

1932 as the compulsory test for export raw silk.

Organization and Functions The Yokohama Silk Conditioning House performs the following functions:

- All kinds of tests and inspections on raw silk.
- Studies and investigations regarding the test and storage of raw silk.
- Courses and lectures on the test and assortment of raw silk.
- Examination of apparatus and equipment pertaining to raw silk.
- Supervision of the warehouses for raw silk and silk piece goods attached to the Yokohama Silk Conditioning House.

There are three departments: the Conditioning Department; the Quality Department; and the Department of General Affairs. The Department of General Affairs is divided into two sections: the Section of General Affairs; and the Investigation Section.

The Conditioning Department carries out the necessary tests for determining the weight of raw silk, as well as studies relating thereto. These tests comprise tests for conditioned weight; tests for

net weight; tests for moisture and boll-off tests.

The Quality Department performs tests to determine the quality of raw silk, such as the classification test and other tests pertaining to the quality of raw silk.

The Department of General Affairs attends to business matters, investigations in general and the supervision of the warehouses.

Compulsory Tests for Export Raw Silk

First of all, the entire books (bundles of 30 skeins) of a lot* are inspected carefully in a visual inspection room for making such sorting as to provide proper value as a lot of merchandise. Fifty sample skeins representing a lot are then taken out at random from the entire lot for performing mechanical tests classified into: major test (evenness tests, cleanness test and nestness test) and auxiliary test (winding test, size deviation test, maximum deviation test, tenacity and elongation tests, cohesion test and average size test), and then the entire lot is delivered to the Conditioning Department.

Visual Inspection The items of visual inspection are as follows:

General Finish: The condition of general finish of a lot and the presence and degree of defects arising from re-reeling, finishing packing and packing damage are inspected and the results are indicated by Excellent, Good, Fair, or Slightly Inferior.

Uniformity of a lot: The general condition of uniformity of a lot is inspected and the results are indicated by Excellent, Good, Fair, or Slightly Inferior.

Nature: The inspection of nature of raw silk is made on the shade and degree of shade of color, the kind and degree of lustre and the nature and smoothness of thread by hand.

Skein Inspection Skein Inspection is to inspect the super major defects of the raw silk thread and also examine the existence and the degree of the number of the gum knots of the raw silk thread.

* N.B. A lot usually consists of ten bales of raw silk and the weight of a bale (28 to 30 books make one bale) is about 60 kilos. or 132 pounds.

Winding Test The object of this test is to determine the number of breaks which occur in the raw silk thread in the winding operation. The first 20 sample skeins are wound from the outer surface of the skeins, the additional 20 skeins from the inner surface of the skeins and the remaining 10 skeins from the middle part of the skeins on to bobbins at a known speed as follows, and the number of breaks occurring one hour are counted.

Winding Speed

Size of thread under test

12 deniers or finer	110 meters per min.
13/17 deniers	140 " " "
18 deniers	" " "
or coarser	165 " " "

A denier is a unit of the size of raw silk and equals the weight of 5 centigrams in 450 meters in length.

Size Deviation Test This test is to determine the average size deviation by taking the sum of the differences between the 200 individual sizing skeins and the mean size and dividing this sum by the number of sizing skeins.

Maximum Deviation Test The object of this test is to determine the degree of spring size in 200 sizing skeins, 450 meters each.

The difference between the average size and average of four coarsest size, and also the difference between average size and average of four finest size shall be obtained. Both differences are compared and the larger one represents the result of Maximum deviation.

Average Size Test The average size test is to determine the average size of raw silk in conditioned weight. 200 sizing skeins 450 meters each are taken and placed all together in a conditioning oven, dried to constant weight, and then 11% of the dry weight is added to constant weight, this shall be the conditioned weight of these skeins, from which the average size in conditioned weight shall be obtained.

Evenness Test The evenness test is a visual test to determine the evenness of raw silk by comparing with the standard photograph. The raw silk is first wound in sections (called "panels") on to boards having a flat black surface, by means of the seriplane. 100 such panels are used for the test. The method of carrying out this test is as follows:

The panels are compared with the panels of standard photographs and a selection is made of the standard photograph which most nearly resembles the test panel in unevenness pattern. The record of this test is made on the average percentage of the 100 panels and also on the average percentage of the low panels to the extent of one quarter of the total number.

Cleanness and Neatness Tests These tests are visual tests to determine the kind and number of cleanness defects and the percentage of neatness defects by comparing with the standard photograph.

Cleanness defects are classified into:—Super major defects, major defects and minor defects and the degree of imperfection is determined (in the form of a penalty percentage) by counting the actual number of these defects on both sides of the seriplane board.

Cohesion Test The raw silk is composed of several cocoon filaments agglutinated with cocoon gum. The object of the cohesion test is to determine the degree of agglutination of the cocoon filament by means of the duplan cohesion tester. The test is made by rubbing the raw silk with the rubbing blade of this tester. The record is taken of the average number of strokes needed to separate each filament of the raw silk.

Tenacity and Elongation Tests Tenacity and elongation tests are performed on ten sample skeins of known size by means of the serigraph, and determine the value of tenacity and elongation of the silk at the breaking point. Tenacity is expressed in grams per denier, while elongation is expressed in percentage; and their averages for the ten samples represent the record of tenacity and elongation respectively.

Gross Weight Weighing This test is to ascertain at first the gross weight of a lot, after taking out 16 sample skeins and then the net weight is ascertained by deducting the tare therefrom.

Conditioning Test This test is performed as a basis of the transaction on weight and the method is as follows:

Out of each lot, 16 skeins are drawn at random, and separated into four

groups of 4 skeins each. Each of these groups is then placed separately in conditioning ovens and dried, and the degree of moisture of each is ascertained in percentages. The average of the four percentages obtained is deemed to be the average percentage of moisture content of the lot from which the 16 skeins were drawn.

This percentage of moisture is then deducted from the actual net weight of each bale of the lot (i.e. gross weight less tare) and the result shows the dry weight of each bale. The total dry weight of all the bales plus 11%, forms the conditioned weight of the entire lot.

Sealing Bales After the test has been completed, into each bale of the lot is inserted the identification ticket, and the Pass Tag is tied thereto and it is sealed with lead bearing the mark of the Yokohama Silk Conditioning House.

Delivery of Certificate The Certificates of Quality Test for Grading and Conditioning Test are delivered to the applicant after the test has been completed. The applicant or surveyor may also demand copies of the certificate.

Optional Tests The Conditioning House will carry out special tests including tests for moisture, net weight, boil-off, and quality, in accordance with the items of test methods, or quantity of samples which may be specified by the applicant.

Publication of Data and Statistics A monthly bulletin is issued by the Silk Conditioning House giving data of the tests carried out. An annual review of the work accomplished by the Silk Conditioning House, together with data and statistics, is also published. In addition, special bulletins are published from time to time, giving the results of studies and investigations carried out by the Silk Conditioning House.

Supervision of Warehouses The warehouses attached to the Silk Conditioning House are leased to the Teikoku Sansi Soko Kabushiki Kaisha (Imperial Raw Silk Warehouse Company, Ltd.) which undertakes the storage of raw silk and silk goods under the supervision of the Silk Conditioning House.

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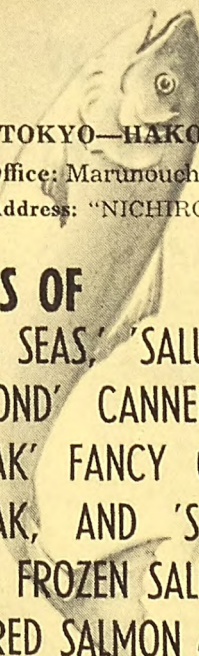
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CHAPTER XV

FISHERIES

NICHIRO GYOGYO KAISHA LIMITED



TOKYO—HAKODATE

Head Office: Marunouchi Bldg., Tokyo

Cable Address: "NICHIROGYO" TOKYO

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CHAPTER XV

FISHERIES

General

Japan Leads On account of her unique position as a maritime country Japan's fishing industry has naturally developed from of old until today Japan occupies the first position in the world in the output of aquatic products which amounted to ¥1,087,143,693 in 1939 as the following table shows. These products consist mainly of fish, shell-fish, seaweed, which are used as food, fish oils and animal fertilizers.

Classification	Value in yen
Coastal Fishery	378,431,439
Pelagic fishery, home	142,557,146
Pelagic fishery, colonial	2,976,801
Whaling	6,114,482
Trawling	9,676,397
Fishery in Russian waters	49,163,554
Floating canneries in Kamchatka	42,920,036
Aquiculture	43,025,843
Fish manufactures	391,048,310
Agar-agar	21,229,685
Total	1,087,143,693

Note: Figures for whaling do not include manufactures.

Of the total, 621 million yen was raised by catches in the waters surrounding Japan proper. Details are

given below in comparison with 1938 catches:

Catches in Japan Proper		
	1938	1939
Fishes	(In yen)	
Costal fishing	179,907,511	262,026,084
Cultivated	12,976,755	18,328,279
Pelagic fishery (home)	71,863,990	141,887,673
Trawling	7,669,703	9,676,397
Total	272,417,599	431,918,433
Shell-fishes	16,267,512	25,626,456
Sea-weeds	23,697,451	39,476,394
Whales, crustaceans, Mollusca, etc.	86,485,133	124,154,253
Grand total	398,868,055	621,175,536

Persons Engaged in Fisheries

The fishery industry in Japan is now run on a modern industrial basis and especially pelagic fishing is developing rapidly. But by far the larger number of fishermen are still engaged in working in the old-fashioned way, generally on a small scale. In 1939, as many as 1,411,460 persons were engaged in all kinds of fishery industry, and of this number 1,117,638 were males and the rest females. Of the total number, 1,014,472 were fishermen, 139,537 were engaged in cultivation and 257,451 in the manufacture of aquatic products.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS BRANCHES OF THE FISHERY INDUSTRY

Year	Total Number	Fishermen	Those engaged in Cultivation	Those engaged in Manufacture
1931	1,482,520	1,110,506	124,784	247,113
1932	1,499,040	1,106,850	141,394	250,796
1933	1,499,175	1,097,254	144,655	257,266
1934	1,521,916	1,103,346	151,007	269,563
1935	1,521,477	1,098,999	155,203	267,275
1936	1,534,432	1,102,502	154,627	277,303
1937	1,501,882	1,078,142	152,426	271,314
1938	1,442,713	1,035,878	144,135	262,700
1939	1,411,460	1,014,472	139,537	257,451

FISHERY EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES

Year	Employers	Employees	Year	Employers	Employees
1931	634,699	847,821	1932	640,318	858,722
			1933	635,849	863,326
			1934	640,735	881,181
			1935	633,435	888,042

FISHERIES

Year	Employers	Employees
1936	637,031	897,401
1937	619,227	882,655
1938	598,535	844,178
1939	588,481	822,979

Fishing Boats and Vessels

The total number of boats and vessels engaged in fishing at the end of 1939

was over 354,729, of which 283,090 were without engines, while 71,639 were with engines. The number of smaller boats, having capacity of less than 5 tons, is decreasing, while the number of vessels having engines has steadily increased. This shows an improvement in vessels and in the method of fishing.

Year	Total Number of Boats	Boats without Engines	Boats with Engines	
			Steam	Motor
1931	360,690	318,443	185	42,062
1932	360,686	315,217	244	45,225
1933	363,473	314,434	250	48,789
1934	364,582	311,553	87	52,942
1935	366,019	308,541	96	57,382
1936	366,267	304,098	106	62,063
1937	364,260	297,961	97	66,202
1938	356,482	288,327	194	67,961
1939	354,729	283,090	123	71,516

FISHING BOATS AND VESSELS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS AND CAPACITIES

(At the end of each year)

Kinds and tonnage of steamers	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Without engines	308,541	304,098	297,961	288,327	283,090
Under 5 tons	300,651	266,798	290,734	281,849	276,663
5-10 "	7,317	6,779	6,637	5,982	5,949
10-20 "	530	499	568	478	464
20 " and over	43	22	22	18	14
With engines	57,478	62,169	66,299	68,155	71,639
Steam engines	96	106	97	194	123
Under 50 tons	23	24	3	98	39
50-100 "	3	10	1	5	2
100 tons & over	70	72	93	91	82
Oil engines	57,382	62,063	66,202	67,961	71,516
Under 5 tons	40,658	44,774	48,105	50,111	53,767
5-10 "	6,841	6,999	7,198	7,568	7,449
10-20 "	7,154	7,454	7,804	7,346	7,195
20-50 "	2,108	2,117	2,295	2,105	2,348
50 tons & over	621	719	802	831	757

Coastal Fishery

Fish, shell-fish, etc. caught in 1939 amounted to ¥378,431,439, an increase of ¥129,536,702 or 34.2 per cent over the previous year, the major classification of which was as follows:

	Quantity (In kan)	Value (In yen)
Fish	465,245,791	26,026,084
Shellfish	30,177,110	16,148,801
Crustaceans and Mollusca	60,873,731	72,952,881
Seaweeds	103,659,570	27,303,673

The amount of catches in coastal waters since 1935 is shown in the following table. In 1930-32 while the value of catches showed a gradual decrease, catches were steadily increasing, showing thereby that the decrease in value was due to decline in price caused by the depression of those years, but after 1933 the prices steadily rose, specially in 1938 and 1939, while catches decreased with the decrease in the number of fishing boats and fishermen.

COASTAL FISHERY

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YEARLY COMPARISON OF CATCHES IN COASTAL WATERS

(Quantity in Kan, Value in Yen)

Year	Total		Fresh Fish	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1935	737,448,945	180,801,517	514,455,650	134,671,748
1936	782,031,824	212,648,020	571,592,193	159,764,206
1937	726,729,060	219,649,403	494,484,899	162,844,491
1938	696,862,307	248,894,737	449,431,414	179,907,511
1939	659,956,202	378,431,439	465,245,791	26,026,084

Year	Shellfish		Crustaceans and Mollusca		Seaweeds	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1935	54,542,403	11,697,023	36,310,162	25,259,631	132,140,730	10,173,115
1936	40,620,877	11,202,085	42,133,322	29,373,380	128,685,432	12,308,349
1937	37,643,983	10,451,464	40,874,838	31,426,069	153,725,340	14,927,379
1938	31,169,303	10,720,760	56,437,301	43,934,469	109,824,289	14,331,997
1939	30,177,110	16,148,801	60,873,731	72,952,881	103,659,570	27,303,673

Catches of the more important fishes in coastwise fishery since 1935 are shown in the following tables:

CATCHES OF PRINCIPAL FISH BY KINDS

(In yen)

Kind of Fresh Fish	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Herring	5,077,161	4,381,435	5,506,548	2,674,255	7,954,831
Sardine	28,257,527	40,958,138	37,894,420	42,363,336	62,978,354
Bonito	1,901,310	2,419,598	2,021,248	2,975,588	4,072,428
Mackerel	6,596,660	8,406,727	8,938,207	10,892,248	16,387,668
Tunny	6,163,318	7,165,228	6,358,456	6,174,578	14,667,783
Yellow-tail	9,671,911	11,531,400	10,382,532	10,863,685	11,667,460
Cod	4,822,484	5,730,153	4,625,894	6,967,037	9,416,575
Shark	718,055	868,545	1,457,089	1,273,104	1,662,558
Sea-bream, red	9,786,482	10,199,904	10,582,643	11,609,202	15,247,609
Sea-bream, black	2,158,534	2,221,157	2,303,840	2,470,995	3,506,497
Flat-fish	4,330,465	4,757,784	4,807,336	5,855,704	8,731,186
Cyblum	2,449,911	2,652,746	2,716,541	2,612,556	3,736,739
Horse-mackerel	4,877,411	5,781,491	5,595,356	6,651,406	9,368,224
Flying fish	958,228	769,983	918,834	1,084,929	1,408,388
Grey mullet	2,722,809	2,754,766	2,843,577	3,147,337	4,354,744
Konosirus	838,942	791,141	899,589	978,327	1,396,588
Dog-salmon	4,994,644	9,154,512	11,815,728	13,034,405	13,431,484
Trout	5,244,056	3,995,978	6,261,477	7,043,602	12,876,042
Japanese smelt	2,915,007	3,291,607	3,603,235	3,978,717	5,236,893
Eel	2,475,619	2,492,801	2,385,702	2,476,371	3,339,429

VALUE OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SHELLFISH

(In yen)

Kind of Shellfish	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Awabi ¹	2,843,778	3,286,546	2,515,305	2,403,951	3,556,571
Oyster	506,377	533,147	455,107	656,143	814,133
Clam	512,038	523,582	561,570	618,036	829,944
Saza ²	506,423	576,911	610,912	642,591	862,969
Arca	362,709	387,496	231,155	204,657	339,603
Asari ³	861,534	753,809	780,313	914,061	1,267,186

1 Sea ear, abalone.

2 Turbo cornutus.

3 Tapes phillippinarum.

FISHERIES

VALUE OF CRUSTACEANS AND MOLLUSCA

(In yen)

Kind	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Cuttle-fish	7,734,479	12,029,626	11,542,717	19,826,508	39,927,755
Octopus	3,736,233	3,680,606	4,612,075	5,530,585	7,953,191
Prawn and shrimp	7,044,016	6,867,408	7,234,061	8,720,523	12,095,649
Spiny lobster	1,170,757	1,555,317	1,573,159	1,576,158	2,006,638
Crab	2,526,257	1,902,042	2,479,464	3,074,568	3,163,893
Bêche-de-mer	1,015,148	1,125,481	978,484	1,688,998	2,891,413

VALUES OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SEAWEED

(In yen)

Kind	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Kombu ¹	4,195,723	4,389,327	6,219,462	5,427,481	11,266,364
Amanori ²	488,832	551,769	742,647	578,795	908,822
Wakamé ³	1,018,903	1,498,276	1,238,097	1,931,667	3,715,163
Tengusa ⁴	1,961,102	2,894,132	3,322,113	3,250,137	6,449,776
Funori ⁵	894,105	958,257	1,070,893	870,216	1,181,989
1 Laminaria. 2 Porphyra. 3 Undaria pinnatifida. 4 Gelidium corneum 5 Gelopeltis furcata.					

Pelagic Fishery

Large-sized vessels with motors have increased greatly in number of late. There are over 10,000 vessels of over 10 tons, many of which are actively engaged in fishing at distances of up to 700 miles from Taiwan and Japan proper. The northern seas have been opened up by floating crab canneries, and mother vessels for the salmon and salmon trout fisheries. But there are still vast undeveloped areas in the Behring Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Maritime province waters, the South Seas, the South China Sea, the Gulf of Thailand, and even in the Southern Pacific, so that the future for pelagic fishery for Japan is bright and of great importance to her. The following sections deal with different branches of

deep-sea fishing.

In Home Waters In 1939, the number of vessels engaged was 8,577, the number of men 110,093 and the amount of catches 209,204,180 kan of a value of ¥142,557,146, exclusive of catches in colonial waters. The vessels with engines numbered 8,416, while those without numbered only 161.

Catches of principal fish are as follows:

	In kan	In yen
Bonito	23,003,536	23,406,688
Tunny	13,691,179	21,888,220
Sea-bream	1,716,278	5,042,795
Flat-fish	11,645,966	11,271,005

The number and descriptions of vessels engaged in this fishing with their catches, since 1935, are given below:

NUMBER AND CREWS OF VESSELS ENGAGED IN DEEP-SEA FISHING IN HOME WATERS

Year	Total Number of Vessels			Vessels without Engines			Vessels with Engines		
	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew
1935	8,984	199,069	115,689	171	1,321	1,133	8,813	197,757	114,556
1936	9,885	215,026	125,775	240	1,940	1,391	9,645	213,086	124,384
1937	9,783	221,925	122,892	215	1,679	1,134	9,568	220,246	121,753
1938	8,836	211,968	113,148	167	1,370	1,297	8,669	210,593	111,851
1939	8,577	205,911	110,093	161	1,253	677	8,416	204,658	109,416

PELAGIC FISHERY

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VALUE OF DEEP-SEA FISH CAUGHT IN HOME WATERS In Japan Proper

Kind of fish	(In yen)				
	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Sardine	5,771,642	7,779,621	6,977,247	5,551,388	12,323,813
Bonito	10,888,267	12,963,536	13,186,667	19,513,606	23,406,688
Mackerel	3,473,178	4,321,971	3,893,867	3,894,842	4,701,261
Tunny	10,245,932	11,071,390	12,340,259	15,440,201	21,888,220
Cod	3,515,581	6,192,670	6,693,544	6,075,643	8,407,993
Shark	2,946,156	4,210,800	4,685,984	5,119,640	6,564,853
Sea bream	5,269,449	5,530,996	4,324,556	6,162,146	5,042,795
Flat-fish	5,323,953	6,358,031	5,611,904	7,753,607	11,271,005
Cyblum	38,206	25,419	21,868	18,651	171,371
Skipper	1,237,222	1,713,738	1,746,899	2,334,206	2,645,530
Others	25,555,326	27,322,115	30,404,238	38,677,860	46,133,617
Total	74,261,912	87,483,287	89,887,033	110,541,850	142,557,146

In Chosen Waters

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Number of boats	1,063	—	—	—	—
Total value of catches	¥4,020,884	¥3,063,063	¥3,196,234	¥3,444,469	¥3,159,080

In Taiwan Waters

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Number of boats	15	15	124	26	38
Total value of catches	¥26,083	¥23,318	¥126,364	¥91,807	¥173,043

In Kwantung Waters

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Number of boats	212	200	167	146	115
Total value of catches	¥922,330	¥978,000	¥531,289	¥636,312	¥806,706

In South Sea Mandated Islands

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Number of boats	—	84	128	191	82
Total value of catches	—	¥1,830,800	¥3,349,518	¥2,340,287	¥1,997,052

Norwegian Method Followed Whaling is being carried out according to the Norwegian method. As this method requires quick movements the vessels used are small-sized ones of a capacity below 120 tons. In order to allow whales to breed and also to maintain order in the work the Government has made it a rule that whaling should be carried on only under permit. The Government furthermore restricts the number of vessels engaged in this work to 30 in seas other than the South or

North Pacific Ocean. It also orders vessels to operate from headquarters placed in 18 suitable places along the coast of Hokkaido, the North-Eastern Sea, South-Western Sea and the Japan Sea.

Japanese whaling is now extending to the Antarctic Ocean and the Japanese whalers made good catches there in recent years. The total value of catches reached ¥6,114,482 in 1939. Details follow:

WHALES CAUGHT (Value in yen)

Whales caught In home waters	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total	1,598	1,641	1,814	1,790	2,153
Finback whale	Value 2,466,962	2,577,692	3,397,426	3,872,804	5,067,775
Blue whale	No. 134	92	92	125	107
	Value 440,000	330,000	332,257	556,499	493,732
	No. 21	3	7	5	10

FISHERIES

Whales caught In home waters		1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Sperm whale	Value	118,000	24,000	49,040	39,805	78,807
	No.	1,001	1,133	1,208	1,058	1,283
Humpback whale	Value	1,080,000	1,369,000	1,950,262	1,974,461	2,647,048
	No.	48	58	57	49	76
Sei whale	Value	179,000	219,000	204,945	219,918	368,899
	No.	392	351	445	551	677
Right whale	Value	641,000	616,000	839,946	1,069,499	1,479,269
	No.	2	4	5	2	—
In colonial waters	Value	8,856	19,517	20,976	12,622	—
	No.	173	173	236	189	145
Total	Value	647,434	754,322	894,680	1,118,083	1,046,727
	No.	139	149	210	170	134
Finback whale	Value	546,000	666,000	807,490	1,046,087	1,033,377
	No.	—	—	5	—	—
Blue whale	Value	—	—	28,413	—	—
	No.	4	2	5	—	—
Sperm whale	Value	4,547	3,619	14,781	—	—
	No.	30	21	16	18	10
Humpback whale	Value	97,000	83,000	43,996	71,083	41,904
	No.	—	1	—	1	1
Sei whale	Value	—	1,624	—	911	1,146
	No.	—	—	—	—	—

ANTARCTIC WHALING

	Number of Mother Ships	Number of Men Engaged	Whales Caught	Whale Oil	Estimated Value (In yen)	
					Salted Meat	Total Including Others
1934	1	213	213	473,639	13,014	486,653
1935	1	343	639	2,180,149	42,466	2,262,615
1936	2	766	1,969	8,662,277	64,627	8,726,904
1937	4	1,796	5,565	13,843,381	322,251	14,455,780
1938	6	2,794	7,540	19,709,760	1,196,102	21,785,502

Trawling Trawling in Japan is modelled after that now being carried on in the North Sea. The steam vessels engaged are from 200-300 tons in size, some being fitted with Diesel engines. A permit must be obtained from the Government before commencing trawl fishing. At present the Government is restricting trawlers in the East and South China Seas, and the Yellow Sea to 70 vessels. 56 vessels make Shimonoséki their headquarters, while 8 work from Nagasaki, and 6 from Hakata. It also prohibits trawlers, by special regulations, from operating in the nearby seas

in order to keep the coastal water free from the devastation caused by the destruction of immature fish, etc. During the World War there was a fall in the catches by trawlers owing to the decrease in number of trawlers, but since 1921, the trawling business has again become active though the number of trawlers as mentioned above is restricted to 70. But, it was increased later and, in 1939, there were 59 vessels with 1,171 members of the crew. Catches by trawling in 1939 amounted to 9,709,846 kan, value ¥9,676,397.

FISH CAUGHT BY TRAWLING

(Quantity in kan, value in yen)

Kind of Fish	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total quantity	13,886,917	13,380,415	10,072,302	9,709,846
Total value	6,831,152	7,951,200	7,669,703	9,669,703
Pagrus major				
Quantity	27,875	23,175	18,021	58,807
Value	51,210	50,575	25,057	147,974

TRAWLING

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1939	Kind of Fish	1936	1937	1938	1939
78,801	Sciæna japonica				
1,283	Quantity	738,290	1,054,498	1,036,857	580,070
2,647,045	Value	722,941	937,817	1,080,034	845,964
78	Sciæna schlegelii				
368,889	Quantity	4,752,700	4,631,250	3,229,937	3,325,574
677	Value	1,853,836	2,069,856	1,989,209	2,670,586
1,479,269	Flat fish				
-	Quantity	881,154	662,830	458,535	448,249
-	Value	612,030	508,205	481,796	536,414
14	Shark				
1,046,77	Quantity	572,312	451,199	304,957	326,424
19	Value	177,936	157,958	135,839	182,085
1,033,37	Others				
-	Quantity	6,914,586	5,557,463	5,023,995	970,722
-	Value	3,413,190	4,226,789	3,957,768	5,286,680

Fishery in Soviet Waters

Fishery in Russian or northern waters is an important right conceded to Japan in the Treaty of Portsmouth, signed at the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War or 1904-05. In 1928, a new convention, under the conditions of the above Treaty was concluded for a period of eight years, after the expiration of which time the pact is to be renewed. The districts to be worked, extending from the Maritime Provinces to Kamchatka, are leased from the Soviet Union at annual auctions held at Vladivostok. (As to the disputes between Japan and Russia on the fishery question in recent years, see Chapter VI.)

In 1939 the number of fishing lots actually worked was 296, the number of steamers 118, and the number of fishermen and others engaged in the fishing 17,879. The amount of salmon, trout, and herrings caught in 1939, was 510,080 koku in total, and the crabs caught numbered 8,968,124. Good catches of salmon and trout are made every other year, while the quantity of crabs has a tendency to become larger in recent years. The amount of salmon, crab, etc. canned was 1,193,630 cases, valued at ¥27,910,574 in 1939. In the same year the amount of salmon and trout salted reached 257,104 koku. The following table shows the number of fishing districts leased, amount of fish caught, etc.

NUMBER OF FISHERIES, FISHING VESSELS, FISHERMEN, AND PRODUCTS IN SOVIET WATERS

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Number of fisheries:				
Fisheries leased from U.S.S.R.	399	389	386	356
Fisheries worked for the year	376	355	328	296
Fishing vessels:				
Steamships, No.	152	141	131	118
Tonnage	361,000	331,734	309,884	307,496
Sailing-ships:				
Number	1	1	1	—
Tonnage	525	525	525	—
Fishermen	20,364	19,858	19,031	17,879
Total fish caught, koku	571,000	549,858	479,745	510,080
Dog salmon	338,000	176,750	169,859	122,332
Trout	165,000	298,869	221,873	323,287
Red salmon	67,000	71,106	86,661	63,012
King salmon	1,925	3,086	1,257	1,422
Herring guano	34	47	95	27
Crab, pieces	6,565,000	7,759,066	8,428,248	8,968,124
Fishery products prepared, yen	35,489,000	37,598,284	44,007,054	49,163,554
Salt cured (Total)				
Quantity, koku	376,000	555,432	258,011	257,104
Value, yen	13,099,000	11,697,618	11,667,313	16,192,436

FISHERIES

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Salmon				
Quantity, koku	308,000	374,486	151,552	107,201
Value, yen	1,560,000	7,824,974	8,536,473	9,254,648
Trout				
Quantity, koku	68,856	180,946	106,459	149,903
Value, yen	1,560,278	3,872,644	3,130,840	6,937,788
Canned food (Total)				
Quantity, cases	1,147,243	1,155,407	1,287,946	1,193,630
Value, yen	20,198,000	23,234,699	29,010,838	27,910,574
Red salmon				
Quantity, cases	343,000	342,325	444,624	275,345
Value, yen	8,826,000	11,840,559	15,984,991	12,060,909
Salmon				
Quantity, cases	117,000	1,318	35,015	17,673
Value, yen	2,425,000	25,682	694,683	599,250
Trout				
Quantity, cases	637,000	733,055	728,328	822,716
Value, yen	6,338,000	7,084,403	7,886,191	11,355,615
Crab				
Quantity, cases	50,000	78,509	79,979	77,896
Value, yen	2,610,000	4,284,055	4,444,973	3,894,800
Others: Value, yen	2,192,000	2,665,967	3,328,903	5,060,544

Note: One koku=40 kan=330.69 lbs.

FLOATING SALMON CANNERIES IN KAMCHATKA

	Mother Ships	Men Engaged	No. of Catches (in 1,000 pieces)	Canned	Salted	Value (In ¥1,000) Frozen	Eggs	Total
1935	8	4,972	11,544	7,785	1,651	590	104	10,129
1936	6	3,478	8,796	7,409	1,760	455	67	9,691
1937	7	3,310	10,115	12,051	1,750	690	122	14,614
1938	7	3,529	9,829	10,448	3,631	—	169	14,249
1939	11	5,626	11,651	15,146	5,290	375	320	21,132

Floating Crab Canneries Fishing is carried on by vessels equipped with machinery for the purpose of canning the crabs on the vessels themselves. The first enterprise was made in 1921, and, in 1923, rules regulating the work of crab-manufactory vessels were issued by the Government, which also established districts where fishing was forbidden and made permits necessary before a vessel could set out to the fishery. Recently the rule has been re-

vised, the number of vessels on the western side of Kamchatka being restricted to 18 and the amount of canned crab to 320,000 cases.

Up to 1927, Japanese only were engaged in this fishing, but in 1923 two Soviet vessels came in, in 1929 another two entered and 1930 saw a further increase.

Canned crabs manufactured by this method since 1935 are as follows:

FLOATING CRAB CANNERIES

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Vessels in operation					
Number	9	9	9	8	7
Tonnage	34,112	36,737	36,749	28,750	24,805
Fishermen engaged	3,124	3,243	3,420	2,824	2,597
Crabs caught, pieces	11,332,000	13,948,000	14,913,197	18,536,465	14,229,875
Canned foods					
Quantity, cases	171,000	184,000	204,375	253,596	204,000
Value in yen	8,429,000	9,490,000	11,193,937	13,886,050	10,441,252

Note: A case contains 22.32 kg.

Aquiculture

The conservation and cultivation of aquatic resources is very important to Japan as fish and other marine products constitute a great part of the staple diet of her people. Great care and study are being given to aquiculture in the country, the incubation and letting loose of salmon and trout and the cultivation of fish in shallow waters are being well looked after by the Government. From 1926 on, not only the incubation of salmon and trout, but also the transfer of crawfish, shad, etc., was tried several times with assistance obtained from the U.S.A. The aquicultural production for 1939 amounted to ¥43,025,-

843. The amount gained was ¥12,915,414 or 27.6 per cent over 1938. Of this total, production of carp amounted to ¥7,413,449; that of eels ¥9,229,911; that of oyster ¥3,290,000; that of sea weeds ¥12,172,721; and that of pearls ¥1,878,812. The principal fish, shell-fish and seaweed which are now being cultivated are carp, eel and tortoise in fresh water, and the seaweed laver in sea-water. The breeding is done in rice-fields, breeding ponds, reservoirs, marshes, etc.

The number of aquicultural establishments in 1939 was 141,342, the area covered 140,748,664 tsubo. Condition and results of the industry in recent years are given in full in the following tables:

NO. OF ESTABLISHMENTS ENGAGED IN AQUICULTURE, AREA AND PRODUCTS

Year	No. of Establishments	Area (In tsubo)	Value of Products. (In yen)
1935	161,779	157,761,107	25,534,550
1936	162,326	154,930,254	25,551,596
1937	159,038	149,314,974	28,974,262
1938	158,629	151,201,913	30,110,429
1939	141,342	140,748,664	43,025,843

FISH, SHELL-FISH, ETC., RAISED THROUGH AQUICULTURE

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Carp:				
Ricefields				
Quantity kan				
Value yen	509,000	496,940	418,112	484,624
Breeding-ponds				
Quantity kan	1,607,000	1,611,569	1,524,664	1,511,368
Value yen	2,203,000	2,345,091	2,550,778	3,681,377
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.				
Quantity kan	1,258,615	1,249,652	1,032,844	1,011,168
Value yen	1,629,000	1,973,268	1,819,806	2,617,893
Eel:				
Breeding-ponds				
Quantity kan	1,809,000	1,863,769	1,919,020	2,009,659
Value yen	4,931,000	5,018,502	6,549,175	9,137,658
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.				
Quantity kan	35,000	27,027	29,854	23,940
Value yen	82,000	73,818	87,678	92,253
Goldfish:				
Quantity kan	555,000	554,150	386,452	811,875
Value yen	581,000	667,446	530,741	635,960
Oyster:				
Quantity kan	15,741,000	14,949,475	12,145,345	11,034,760
Value yen	1,858,000	2,022,879	1,960,757	3,290,065
Asari:				
Quantity kan	11,359,000	16,459,681	13,804,741	14,689,131
Value yen	890,000	1,274,095	1,803,168	3,318,501
Pearl:				
No. of shells	7,072,000	10,857,953	10,883,512	10,482,024
Value yen	984,000	1,543,837	1,376,325	1,878,812

FISHERIES

		1936	1937	1938	1939
Carp:					
Pearl shells:					
	No.	36,216,000	29,790,061	24,936,320	56,374,201
	Value yen	905,000	869,751	406,502	990,277
Amanori (Porphyra):					
	Quantity kan	8,410,000	9,346,073	8,232,993	9,233,037
	Value yen	8,566,000	9,987,805	9,365,454	12,172,721
Others:					
	Value yen	2,239,917	2,491,822	2,975,439	4,096,147

Manufacture of Fishery Products

The supply of fish depends to a considerable extent on seasonal changes but demand is controlled by the tastes and customs of consumers, so that supply and demand are too often not well balanced. In order to adjust these difficulties satisfactorily, careful studies have been made regarding the storing and preserving of these products. Especially, as the problem of food has become a serious one lately, it is often argued that a portion of the fishes

which are now being turned into fertilizers and which amounted to 40% of the total yields, should be converted into food. Under these conditions Japan is paying very careful consideration to the manufacture of fishery products.

The total manufactured fishery products in 1939 was valued at ¥391,048,310, of which ¥55,744,195 was in fertilizers, ¥24,378,269 in fish oils, ¥1,114,510 in *Gloiopeltis* dried, and the balance of ¥309,811,336 was the value of food products.

MANUFACTURED FISHERY PRODUCTS

(Units: Quantity in kan, value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total Value	Food Products		Fertilizers	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1935	175,540	119,240,300	137,472	99,865,854	28,552
1936	215,861	132,637,000	156,144	120,298,000	37,474
1937	214,870	142,956,302	163,024	88,985,600	33,115
1938	241,883	164,363,368	199,096	68,050,231	28,990
1939	391,048	140,064,794	309,811	79,169,480	55,744

Year	Fish oils		Sukifunori*	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1935	16,595,515	8,793	189,719	723
1936	30,079,000	21,527	190,000	716
1937	24,437,345	18,001	172,806	730
1938	20,428,790	13,138	139,071	658
1939	19,853,982	24,378	173,866	1,115

Note: Production of agar-agar is not included in the table.

* Dried seaweed, *Gloiopeltis furcata*.

Products as Food To the present the Japanese people have not paid much attention to the manufacture of fishery products, except "fushi," as articles of food, because fresh fish is available at almost any time and any place. But since there is a large consumption of such products among people of Western nations attention has been turned

to the preservation of fish with a view to export. The principal items preserved are "fushi" (fishmeat steamed and dried), fish dried, salted and dried, boiled and dried, smoked, salt-cured, canned, and Japanese isinglass. Production of each for the last few years is as follows:

MANUFACTURES

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VALUE OF FOOD PRODUCTS (Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fushi	Dried	Salted & Dried	Bolled & Dried	Smoked	Saltcured	Miscellaneous
1935	14,314	22,306	10,040	22,547	289	11,859	56,117
1936	17,525	27,264	10,527	23,469	402	14,559	62,398
1937	16,948	27,124	10,103	21,999	438	19,313	67,098
1938	17,251	36,103	13,027	28,744	614	30,073	73,282
1939	29,477	69,421	20,656	47,852	718	45,635	95,052

Agar-agar Kantén or agar-agar (or Japanese isinglass) is a gelatinous substance extracted from seaweed, especially from *Gelidium Amansii*, used for

food and industrial purposes, production of which is shown in the following table:

No. of establishments	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total production:	463	512	520	528	623
Quantity, kan	665,000	680,000	708,203	687,731	718,362
Value, yen	6,390,315	9,712,497	10,122,783	11,142,642	21,229,685

Fertilizers Details of the production of fish fertilizers are given in the table below. As the table shows most fertilizers are made from herrings, sardines and bonito. Where transportation

facilities are not very good or where there is no satisfactory equipment for manufacturing them into food fishes are converted into fertilizers.

FISH FERTILIZERS

(Quantity in kan, value in ¥1,000)

Year	Quantity	Total	Herring	Sardine	Fish Bone	Sardine	Dried	Herring	Others
		Value	Cake	Cake	Cake	Dried	Value	Value	Value
1935	99,865,854	28,552	1,679	18,157	945	1,194	1,688	4,836	
1936	120,298,000	37,474	1,024	26,715	1,220	857	1,893	5,764	
1937	88,995,600	33,115	973	21,545	1,688	359	1,370	7,178	
1938	68,050,231	28,990	960	18,814	2,710	430	737	5,337	
1939	79,169,480	55,744	3,740	35,409	3,330	1,803	1,853	4,709	

Fish Oils Fish oils used for industrial purposes are sardine oil, herring oil, cod oil, whale oil and shark oil. Production in 1939 was 19,853,982 kan,

a decrease of 574,808 kan as compared with the previous year. The value amounted to ¥24,378,269, an increase of ¥11,239,401.

FISH OILS

(Value in yen)

Year	Total	Sardine	Herring	Cod	Whale	Shark	Others
1935	8,792,502	6,687,986	165,421	471,265	545,921	724,479	197,431
1936	21,527,114	16,112,027	361,868	1,006,645	2,371,291	1,026,241	649,042
1937	18,001,508	14,272,777	170,818	849,508	1,151,017	947,754	609,834
1938	13,138,868	9,700,667	372,628	641,250	892,373	1,063,795	468,155
1939	24,378,269	19,186,084	938,068	895,923	1,244,656	1,092,183	1,021,355

Organizations Connected with Fisheries

Suisankai (Fishery Societies) Suisankai is a public corporation, recognized

by the Suisankai Law of 1921, which has as its purpose the development of fishery. It is an organization covering a particular county or city and includes among its members, in addition to those

engaged in fishing, persons having rights to fish and those who manufacture, trade in, or store fishery products. A prefectural *suisankai* is organized by county and city *suisankai* of that particular prefecture, and at the head of prefectural *suisankai* and *suisankai* located abroad is the *Teikoku* (Imperial) *Suisankai*. The functions of *suisankai* include the encouragement of fishery, the improvement and extension of the manufacture of marine products, the development of fishing districts, protection of agriculture, etc. It also collects statistics, investigates markets, or engages in brokerage, etc. On the social side, the rescue of shipwrecked vessels, improvement of relations between employers and employees, employment agency work, mediation in labor troubles, etc., are looked after by the societies. And lectures on fishery subjects, exhibitions and fishery shows are held by them. The number of *suisankai* was 338, with a membership of 447,748 in 1938.

Suisankumiai (Fishery Guilds) There are two classes of *suisankumiai*. The first of these is a corporate judicial person, organized by fishermen or those who are engaged in the manufacture or sale of aquatic animals or plants in a particular district for the purpose of the encouragement and improvement of fishery, cultivation and propagation of aquatic products, etc. The number of *suisankumiai* is decreasing gradually. At one time there were as many as 220 or more of these *Kumiai* or guilds. At the end of 1938 there were 87, with a membership of 40,417 and an expenditure of ¥1,923,173. The Act for *Suisankumiai* in Foreign Waters promulgated in 1902, authorizes any Japanese engaged in fishery or in the manufacture or sale of aquatic products in foreign waters, either by permit or by treaty, to organize *suisankumiai*. At present *Roryo Suisankumiai* (*Suisankumiai* in Russian Waters) is the only one which belong to this class. This guild is formed by fishermen and those engaged in the manufacture and sale of aquatic products in the Maritime Province, Kamchatka, and Saghalien Island.

At the end of 1938, its members were 26 bodies. Its especially important task is to encourage amicable relations between the Japanese and Russian fishermen working in the same waters and thus ensure the smooth and effective working of the industry in those parts.

Gyogyo-Kumiai (Fishermen's Societies) *Gyogyo-Kumiai* is a judicial person recognized by the Fishery Law, and is organized by fishermen living in a particular district. It acquires fishery rights, etc., for member fishermen and takes any measures necessary to further or protect the common benefit of its members.

The principal object of *gyogyo-kumiai* is the acquisition of fishing rights, etc. This is quite natural in Japan for fishermen work with their village as unit and no fisherman can work independently. Therefore, fishing rights are mostly secured by *gyogyo-kumiai*, special privileges being given to the *kumiai* for securing them.

Though in the original Act, the object of *gyogyo-kumiai* was restricted to the acquisition of fishing rights etc, the Act was revised in 1910, whereby the *kumiai* had the obligation put on them of undertaking any proper measures that would redound to the mutual benefit of fishermen.

Gyogyo-Kumiai Rengokai are corporations of *gyogyo-kumiai*. Their principal functions are joint sales of fishery products, cultivation of fish and rescue of shipwrecked vessels. There were 3,983 societies with a membership of 613,266 in 1938.

Dogyo-Kumiai or Related Associations *Dogyo* means the same trade or profession, hence *Dogyo-Kumiai* are associations of those connected with the same trade. In relation to the fishery industry they are formed by those dealing in aquatic products, canned foods, salt, cultivation of fish, etc. In 1938 there were as many as 22 *dogyo-kumiai* connected with the fishing industry. There is also the *Dai-Nippon Suisan Kai*, which is incorporated for the purpose of the improvement and encouragement of fishery.

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CHAPTER XVI

FORESTRY

Introduction

Japan is one of the few countries of the world favored with extensive forests. The area of forests and fields in Japan including Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto, was 45,299,105 hectares at the end of 1933 and was about 67% of the whole area of the country, which is 67,538,527 ha. It is about 3.8 times as large as her agricultural land.

Since Japan forms a long narrow chain stretching north and south from the northern extremity of the Kurile Islands to the southernmost point of Taiwan, and since her mild climate is very favorable for the growth of plants and trees, it is natural that there should be a thick growth of many varieties. There are as many as 1,500 kinds, of which principal forest trees alone number more than 100. In point of richness in variety, she occupies a high position even among countries which are favored with larger forest areas. While the amount of timber produced is valued at roughly ¥300,000,000 annually it is still far less than 10% of the value of the total staple products of the country and is not at present enough to fill domestic requirements. Every year it is necessary to import about 10,000,000 koku of lumber, equivalent in value to ¥100,000,000. Furthermore, forestry offers very limited labor opportunities. As compared with agriculture, which gives work to one-half of the total families in Japan, and fishing, which finds employment for 1,500,000 people, the number of persons engaged in forestry is small, being less than 720,000.

Distribution and Character

Forests in Japan stand, roughly speaking, in four different zones : sub-tropical forest zone, evergreen broad leaved forest zone, the deciduous broad-leaved forest zone and coniferous forest zone.

The Sub-tropical Forest Zone This covers the whole of Taiwan, the southern half of the Ryukyu Islands, including the Yayéyama Islands, annual mean temperature in it being over 21° C. As

to the altitude, the zone varies from below 2,000 meters above sea level in the southern part of Taiwan to below 1,000 meters above sea level in the northern part of the same island. In this zone, blnroji, tsuga, (Arenga saccharifera) basho-banana and bamboo are found.

The Evergreen Broad-leaved Zone This comprises Shikoku, Kyushu, the northern part of the Ryukyu Islands and the southern part of Honshu (Main Island) (at 36° N. Lat. and Southwards), the annual mean temperature of this zone being 13°-21° C. As to the altitude, it is 854 meters on an average in Kyushu, 762.5 meters in Shikoku and 610 meters in the southern part of Honshu. Trees which grow in this zone are kusunoki (Cinnamomun camphora, Nees), oak, akamatsu (Pinus densiflora), white fir, tsuga (Tsuga sieboldi, Carr), etc.

The Deciduous Broad-leaved Zone This zone covers the northern part of Honshu, the southern part of Hokkaido and a greater part of Chosen, the annual mean temperature in this zone being from 6° C. to 13° C. As regards the altitude, it is from 976 meters to 1,372.5 meters in the northern part of Honshu and 457.5 meters in the southern part of Hokkaido. Trees which grow in this zone are cedar (the Japanese cypress), white fir, todo-matsu (Abies sachalinensis, mast), ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), beech poplar, white birch, etc.

The Coniferous Zone This zone covers the northern half of Hokkaido, the group of the Kurile Islands and the Saghalien Island, the mean temperature of which is 6° C. to below zero. This zone starts at the height of 1,000 meters in Honshu and ends at the height of 2,592.5 meters in the same island, while it ends at the height of 1,067.5 meters in Hokkaido and 610-762.5 meters in Saghalien Island. Principal trees which grow in this zone are ezo-matsu and todo-matsu.

Forests in Kiso district extend over

mountain regions which range from 305 meters to 3,050 meters above the sea level along the course of the upper stream of the River Kiso. It covers 104,055 ha. in area and its growing stock amount to 28 million cu. m. Principal trees are the Japanese cypress, the swamp-cypress, sawara (*Chamae cypariss obtusa*, S. et Z), nezuko (*Thuja japonica*, maxim) and parasol-pines. They are old and are thickly grown. The reason that they are retained so well is due to the fact that during the feudal times, the cutting down of these trees was prohibited. Among these, the most magnificent trees are the Japanese cypresses which are about 190 years old. Most of them are 0.46 meter in diameter and 27.45 meters in height.

Forests of sugi in Akita district are widely distributed along the Yanéshiro

and Omono Rivers, and belong to the Government. The forests cover an area of about 43,000 ha. and hold stock of 16 million cu. m. The forests, where they are not mixed with other trees, are beautiful and magnificent to look upon. Most of the sugi in these forests are from 120 to 200 years old, and in a dense part the stands hold as much as 1,400 cu. m. per ha. Some of them are so large that their diameter reaches sometimes to 1.22 meters. The forests are noted for the abundance of timbers of a superior quality. Annual cutting from these forests amounts to 280,000 cu. m.

Area of Forests, etc.

According to the report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry the area of forests in Japan proper was as follows:

(In Japan proper the investigation on the area of forests, bamboo-groves and wild lands (productive yet uncultivated) is carried at the year-end every third year.)

AREA OF FORESTS, BAMBOO-GROVES AND WILD LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year (At the year end)	1930	1933	1936	1939
	(In hectares)		(In chō)	(In chō)
Grand total	23,011,218	23,645,731	24,186,376	24,079,801
Forested tracts	19,879,240	20,575,913	21,035,861	21,083,041
Coniferous	4,632,827	5,420,360	5,658,563	5,683,341
Broad-leaved	8,470,016	9,086,657	9,007,564	9,026,904
Mixed	6,148,369	5,454,838	5,758,616	5,770,844
Bamboo-groves	136,329	148,348	152,684	162,280
Miscellaneous	491,697	465,708	458,434	439,672
Bare tracts	3,131,977	3,069,817	3,150,515	2,996,760
Crown	1,432,649	1,413,885	1,380,087	1,334,601
National	7,638,263	7,657,609	7,712,934	7,650,205
Public	4,186,375	4,287,336	4,444,567	4,431,227
Temple and shrine	141,381	144,269	152,904	151,796
Private	9,612,550	10,142,631	10,495,885	10,511,971

Note: One hectare=2.47 acres. One cho=2.45 acres.

Stock of Growing Timber

Japan Proper To ascertain the amount of growing timber owned by the Imperial Household, Government, and public and private interests, careful investigations are made, the investigations

in the case of public and private interests being carried out by each prefecture. The following statistics show the growing timber in Japan proper in 1933 classified according to ownership: (Quantities in 1,000 cu. m. One cubic meter=35.3165 cubic feet.)

Kind	Public and Private					Total	%
	Crown	Government	Public	Shrines and Temples	Private		
Coniferous trees	32,452	139,948	71,172	7,333	327,510	578,415	46.0
Broad-leaved trees	14,121	323,431	83,503	5,000	252,823	678,878	54.0
Total	46,573	463,379	154,675	12,333	580,333	1,257,293	—
%	3.7%	36.6%	12.4%	0.7%	46.6%	—	—

Thus the total standing timber in Japan proper (Hokkaido excluded) is 1,257,293,000 cu. m., of which coniferous trees account for 578,415,000 cu. m.

and broad-leaved trees 678,878,000 cu. m. Other Parts The following table shows the number, ownership and type of trees in other parts of the country.

STANDING TIMBER IN HOKKAIDO, TAIWAN, CHOSEN AND KARAFUTO IN 1933

(Quantities 1,000 cu. meters)

Owners	Hokkaido			Karafuto		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total
Crown	32,911	74,130	107,041	—	—	—
Government	165,705	212,599	378,304	165,951	22,905	188,856
Public	19,829	51,448	71,277	—	—	—
Shrines and temples	2	17	19	—	—	—
Private	2,899	28,994	31,893	—	—	—
Total	221,346	367,188	588,534	165,951	22,905	188,856

Owners	Taiwan			Chosen		
	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Total
Crown	—	—	—	—	—	—
Government	70,006	127,374	197,380	87,902	72,158	160,060
Public	68	297	365	4,316	2,095	6,411
Shrines and temples	—	—	—	2,413	1,472	3,885
Private	828	9,121	9,949	60,658	15,275	75,933
Total	70,902	136,792	207,694	155,289	91,000	246,289

The total stock of growing timber in the country classified according to ownership is as follows:

TOTAL STAND OF TIMBER IN JAPAN IN 1933

(1,000 cu. m.)

Owners	Coniferous Trees	Broad Leaved Trees	Grand Total
Crown	65,363	88,251	153,614
Government	629,512	758,467	1,387,979
Public	95,385	137,343	232,728
Shrines and temples	9,748	6,489	16,237
Private	391,895	306,213	698,108
Total	1,191,903	1,296,763	2,488,665

Afforestation

There is a great scope for the practice of afforestation in Japan because of the large wild areas, plains where there is only a thin growth of trees, and forests where there are many undesirable trees. However, since a great deal of timber is being cut, reforestation becomes more urgent every year.

Afforestation is divided into two classes, viz., natural and artificial. Natural afforestation is being carried out in only a small portion of the Crown and Government forests, while in most of the

public and private forests, conditions are such that no definite plans for natural afforestation have been made. However, as this is liable to cause forests to go to waste careful studies are being made to improve the situation.

In artificial afforestation Japan has had some good experience and artificial afforestation for the Imperial and Government forests is being carried out on a well-planned basis.

New Plantation Area newly planted in 1939 was 140,943.4 cho, and the number of trees planted was 408,770,186,

of which coniferous trees numbered 349,729,246 while broad-leaved trees numbered 46,411,703, exclusive of trees planted in the Crown area. The number of trees planted in the Crown-owned area in the same year was 12,629,237.

In addition to the above there were 59,596,290 trees supplementarily planted

in the forests in 1939, and bamboo groves newly cultivated were 381.4 cho in area and 711,332 in the number of bamboos planted.

Naturally Regenerated Area of forests naturally regenerated in 1938 was 268,754.4 cho.

ARTIFICIAL AFFORESTATION

(Area in cho)

Year	1937	1938	1939
Area newly planted	118,065.4	125,308.2	140,943.4
Number of trees newly planted	340,557,533	367,484,980	408,770,186
Coniferous area	95,649.7	98,303.2	119,271.7
Number of trees	278,715,475	306,210,251	349,729,246
Broad-leaved area	18,200.9	17,152.9	17,411.5
Number of trees	50,417,523	47,797,102	46,411,703
Crown area	4,214.8	4,852.1	4,260.2
Number of trees	11,424,532	13,477,627	12,629,237

Production of Wood, Bamboo and Other Forest Products

The total value of forest products in 1939 is estimated at ¥755,680,000.

Area of wood and bamboo lands cleared and the value of wood and bamboo produced in recent years were as follows:

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Area cleared in cho	455,398	445,873.7	471,001.2	513,354.5
Total value in yen	194,840,000	254,991,282	356,178,315	582,501,875
Timber	136,933,000	189,688,543	279,358,666	451,513,977
Fuel wood	55,153,000	63,218,575	73,697,698	126,745,786
Bamboo	2,754,000	2,684,164	3,171,951	4,242,112

Note: Figures for fuel wood include those for the wood converted into charcoal. The actual amount of the value of fuel wood only is estimated at ¥38,322,802, so that the total value of forest products is estimated at the figures given above.

During the ten preceding years no marked fluctuation has been observed in movements of quantities of timber and fuel wood produced, while, on the other hand, their value has been showing annually more than moderate de-

creasing trend until 1934 when it turned to increase.

Value of other forest products in 1939 amounted to ¥291,869,358. Details follow:

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Seeds of trees	44,716	56,022	87,737	514,447
Fruits (Chestnuts, Walnuts, etc.)	4,297,997	4,306,391	4,419,446	7,005,750
Barks	2,512,932	2,901,405	3,889,410	6,524,010
Loam grass	18,432,950	21,423,867	23,827,480	28,817,749
Fresh mushrooms (matsutaké)	4,394,132	4,891,987	4,250,791	4,884,896
Dried mushrooms (shittaké)	5,505,551	4,822,663	4,684,465	7,377,776
Bamboo sprouts	4,888,931	5,202,223	5,657,300	6,456,954
Horse-radish	1,744,885	1,658,627	1,593,629	1,786,918
Charcoal	101,796,857	131,460,169	161,477,762	227,104,455
Total including others	144,347,118	177,443,668	210,805,762	291,869,358

Protective Forests

Besides having a direct value through the produce they yield, forests have

a distinct indirect value through influence on climate, conservation of water supplies, prevention of erosion, etc.,

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and in order that the fullest use may be made of them the Government established a system of "protective forests." In the following instances, under the Forestry Act, the Government is authorized to decree that certain forests, etc., shall be considered as "protective forests":

(1) When it is necessary to protect against soil denudation.

(2) When it is necessary to protect against sand shifting.

(3) When it is necessary to protect against flood, wind and tide.

(4) When it is necessary to protect against avalanches and rolling stones.

(5) For conservation of water supply.

(6) For fishery purposes.

(7) For guiding navigators.

(8) For public health.

(9) For scenery.

The area of protective forests in 1936-39 was as follows:

PROTECTIVE FORESTS

Year	1936	1937	1938	1939
(At the year end				
Total			(Area in cho)	
Number	433,180	443,013	450,587	459,850
Area	2,135,437.9	2,143,554.4	2,143,687.9	2,162,421.0
Against soil-denudation				
Number	265,965	273,760	280,955	289,125
Area	933,159.1	938,844.7	948,395.7	954,322.1
For feeding springs				
Number	67,092	66,508	66,724	68,166
Area	998,030.4	998,833.0	988,917.6	1,001,372.0
Against flood				
Number	15,711	15,700	15,340	15,438
Area	6,526.4	6,532.0	6,569.4	6,544.8
Against rolling stone				
Number	474	485	487	503
Area	684.0	697.7	700.8	699.9
Against avalanche				
Number	4,968	6,116	6,209	5,465
Area	6,715.1	7,408.3	7,752.7	7,689.4
Against wind				
Number	14,892	15,524	15,646	16,479
Area	77,284.8	77,900.5	76,319.9	78,079.3
Against dust				
Number	11,598	11,586	11,643	11,865
Area	14,079.6	14,153.2	14,000.3	14,169.7
Against tide				
Number	15,137	15,959	16,248	17,124
Area	9,270.1	9,171.4	9,236.7	9,271.4
For attracting fish				
Number	25,893	25,947	25,915	25,928
Area	51,159.0	51,694.2	51,867.0	51,829.0
Landmark for navigation				
Number	257	258	256	266
Area	1,277.0	1,274.2	1,262.9	1,277.3
For maintaining public health				
Number	153	153	153	150
Area	90.0	89.7	89.7	99.6
For scenic beauty				
Number	11,040	11,017	11,011	11,341
Area	37,161.4	36,955.5	38,575.8	37,066.5

Owners of protective forests, etc., cannot, according to the provisions of the Forestry Act, cut down the trees, take the forest products from them nor

utilize them for any purpose, unless with the approval of the authorities concerned. Protective forests are divided into two classes for administrative pur-

pose. In the first class are forests in which limits for cutting and utilization are fixed, while in the second are those, the cutting of which is absolutely prohibited. Any owner who has his forest included in the second class and suffers any loss by this inclusion will have the loss reimbursed by the Government.

Forestry Associations (Shinrin Kumiai)

Forestry associations are those judicial persons recognized by the Forestry Act of 1907, which are formed not for

profit but for safety of the country, conservation of water supplies, protection of forests, etc. The nature of their work is to allow members to plant, fell, carry, guard, or sell timber under unified control and rational management. Forestry associations are classified according to their objects into four classes, viz., foresters' associations, business associations, coolies' associations, and protection associations.

The number of forestry associations in 1939 was 2,500, and the area covered was 2,140,753 cho. The growth of forestry associations in recent years is shown in the following table:

FORESTRY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

		(Area in cho)				
Year (At the year end)		1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Total						
Number of societies		2,083	2,235	2,373	2,456	2,500
Area operated by societies		1,642,146	1,793,768	1,922,002	1,988,735	2,140,753
Number of members		325,172	359,048	389,921	405,018	443,044

Forest Damage and Insurance

Forests are subject to damage by fire, wind, snow, etc., damage and loss by fire being especially great. As the forestry business requires an investment which covers a long period of years it is essential to insure, for if a forest is swept by fire, not only the capital invested, but also the care and labor of many years is instantly swept away. The table below shows both the amount of loss and the area damaged by fire, wind, etc., during the last few years. In order to encourage forestry work

some means to minimize the loss which arises from fire had to be devised. For many years forest insurance was looked for but it was not until 1920 that the Toho Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., ventured to take on this business. The Teikoku Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., and Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., quickly followed.

But the State Forestry Fire Insurance Law was promulgated in 1936 and the Government commenced the forestry insurance business as from 1937. The conditions of the business are as follows:

At the end of	Policies	Area insured (In cho)	Amount insured (In yen)	Premiums received (In yen)
1937	5,543	53,582	6,137,517	36,040
1938	19,420	122,398	14,360,003	87,699
1939	39,976	178,202	20,012,378	130,874

Damages done to forests in 1939 reached ¥16,173,260.

Forest Administration

The central office of forestry administration in Japan at present is the Forestry Bureau in the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Under this Bureau, there are six Forestry Administration Offices, 218 Forestry Administration Stations and 1,544 administrative districts.

In the office of the Forestry Bureau there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Business, and for the administration of privately owned forests there is a Public and Private Forests Section. For experimental work there are, under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Forestry Experimental Stations. Forestry Administration Offices are

located in Aomori, Akita, Tokyo, Osaka, Kochi, and Kumamoto cities, and are under the supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The work of each office is to plan the afforestation work of Government and public forests, to establish or eliminate Government forests, to start civil engineering work, to sell forests, etc. They also supervise the works of forest administration stations which are placed under them. In each office there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Planning, a Section of Afforestation and a Section of Utilization.

Forest Administration Stations, which number 218 in all, are directly concerned with the management and protection of Government and public afforested forests.

In Hokkaido, the Forestry Section in the Development Bureau is the central administration office, and under it there are 19 forest administration offices. About 3,520,000 ha. of forests which are owned by the Government are administered by these 19 offices, the average area controlled by one office being about 185,000 hectares.

Forestry Education

College Education Forestry education in Japan began with the establishment of a forestry school at Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1882, under the supervision of the Forestry Bureau. This school became the Tokyo Forestry School and by the University Ordinance of 1890 was incorporated as a branch of the Department of Agriculture of Tokyo Imperial University. Morioka and Kagoshima Higher Forestry Colleges were established in 1903 and 1904 respectively. The forestry education that was being carried on in Sapporo Agricultural College in Hokkaido, became a laboratory course when the college became a Department of Hokkaido Imperial University. During the World War, facilities for education were greatly extended, and Departments of Forestry were added to Kyoto and Kyushu Imperial Universities, while higher forestry colleges were established in Miyé, Utsunomiya, Gifu, Miyazaki, and Suigen in Chosen and Taihoku in Taiwan.

Practical Education The first and second class forestry schools established and supervised by various prefectures give practical lessons in forestry. They

exist either as independent schools of forestry, or as a part of agricultural schools.

Forestry Experimentation

Central Experimental Station A plant experimental station was first established in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1878, to make investigations into the advantages of the cultivation of various plants, the growth of plants, the relation between the forests and climatic conditions of the country, etc. This station was abolished in 1822, but in 1890, the business of forestry experiments was taken up by the Forestry Administration Station of Tokyo. Later, in 1905, owing to the pressing need, plant nursery beds were established in Meguro, Tokyo. This nursery developed into a Forestry Experimental Station under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. In 1922, the station was detached from the Forestry Bureau and placed under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. A subsidiary station was also established in the Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands for the purpose of experimenting with tropical plants.

In the Central Experimental Station there are departments of general affairs, afforestation, vegetable pathology, utilization of forestry products, chemistry, forestry work, and weather and climate. Since 1904 it has regularly issued bulletins on experiments and forest weather, besides occasional reports. The Station will, for payment, make analysis, carry out experiments and give advice and judgement on matters of forestry for the general public, if requested.

Local Experimental Stations Among the various prefectures Hokkaido is the only one which has a forestry experimental station. It was established in 1908 and for twenty-five years has contributed to the development of forestry in that island. The station makes experiments in afforestation, the utilization of forestry products and the protection of forests. In Kagoshima prefecture, a forestry research bureau was established in 1929. This bureau studies plant rearing, afforestation, etc. and is the only bureau which engages in experimental work in prefectures other than Hokkaido.

Forestry experimentation in Taiwan is undertaken by the Forestry Bureau

under the Central Research Station in the Government-General of Taiwan. It has experimental forests of 52,000 cho. In addition to experiments in afforestation, utilization, and nursery work, it studies the classification and distribution of plants grown in the island. It has two branch stations.

The forestry experimental station in Chosen was established in 1922. As the climatic conditions in Chosen are rather continental the kinds of plants, their distribution, and the nature of forests, etc., differ widely from those in Japan, so the results of the experiments made in the Central Experimental Station in Tokyo cannot be directly applied to the forests in Chosen. The station is comparatively new, but as part of a plan which is to be completed in fourteen years beginning 1925, investigations on the classification and distribution of plants, experiments in rearing and the planting of principal trees, experiments in the prevention of damage from noxious insects and fungi on young plants and forests, tests on lumber and methods of storings, etc., have already been made and reports on the results of the investigations and experiments have been published in the bulletins issued by the station. In the experiments on rearing young plants it has already succeeded in showing the way to quicken their growth, its experimental success in rearing the Korean pines being specially noteworthy.

In Saghalien Island an experimental station was established in 1929. Prior to that experiments were made on frigid zone plants by the Temporary Industrial Investigation Bureau in the Government Office of Saghalien Island in experimental forests near the towns of Toyohara and Horo.

Lumber Price

The American lumber market in 1939 and 1940 went down, because of the price control of the Government.

January quotation was ¥26.13 per shakujime (about 1 cubic foot×12), but dropped to ¥19.37 in May and continued unchanged through the following months and 1940. The Saghalien timber was quoted at ¥1,130 per 100 koku (koku=1 cubic foot×10) in January 1939, ¥1,330 in October-December, with yearly average ¥1,283; during 1940 ¥1,330 persisted in January-August, and then it went up to ¥2,200 in September and continued unchanged through the following months, realising the yearly average of ¥1,620.

Supply and Demand of Lumber

The production of lumber is steadily increasing since 1930 as shown in the following table, supplying 90.8 per cent of the total demand in 1937.

PRODUCTION OF LUMBER

Japan Proper

(In koku)

1930	47,683,536
1931	48,861,826
1932	51,222,910
1933	56,296,382
1934	64,372,163
1935	65,650,465
1936	72,137,823
1937	79,426,961
1938	89,345,867
1939	109,840,413

(koku=1 cubic foot×10)

The quantity of import of lumber is on the decrease since 1932, although the value fluctuated according to different years. Imports from the United States have specially decreased in recent years to be replaced by those from the South Seas. On the contrary, exports are on the increase, nearly doubling the quantity exported in years prior to 1937.

The actual demand in Japan proper, therefore, remains almost unchanged in recent years, going up and down between 48,000,000 koku and 60,000,000 koku. The State control of building in these years may also be accounted for.

IMPORTS OF LUMBER (In ¥1,000)

Year	Ebony, Kwarin, etc.	Teak	Cedar, Pine, Fir from under 60 mm. thick to over 200 mm.	Pine and Fir (lofs and cants)	Kiri (paulow- nia)	Aspen	Other Wood	Total
1934	952	758	336	14,722	15,404	66	277	7,665
1935	967	1,347	16,533	20,230	83	304	9,945	49,775
1936	1,081	1,534	37,645	41,640	663	809	13,816	55,547
1937	815	2,852			821	727	17,962	64,817

Year	Ebony, Kwarin, etc.	Teak	Cedar, Pine, Fir from under 60 mm. thick to over 200 mm.	Cedar, Pine and Fir (lofis and cants)	Kiri (paulow- nia)	Aspen	Other Wood	Total
1938	198	1,405	13,181		289	608	12,497	28,178
1939	126	1,068	13,808		593	718	15,941	32,326

EXPORTS OF LUMBER (In ¥1,000)

Year	Bamboo	Railway Sleepers	Veneers	Shooks	Match Sticks	Wood ings for Sawn	Shav- Woods, etc.	Logs, etc.	Total
					Match Boxes				
1934	952	2,207	4,010	5,779	255	402	6,620	4,639	—
1935	472	689	4,397	5,012	88	282	7,520	5,192	10,468
1936	895	699	5,965	4,872	377	273	9,146	3,371	12,186
1937	853	467	9,002	7,113	388	298	13,536	4,346	17,529
1938	1,132	286	6,064	6,745	662	509	17,825	14,358	14,704
1939	1,359	3,674	12,499	8,265	794	893	65,866	36,012	26,764

Pulp In regard to the supply and demand of pulp see "Rayon and Staple Fibre" in Chapter XVIII and "Paper" in Chapter XXI.

FORESTRY IN 1941

Along the advance of international wars the demand for lumber has increased in recent years and that of 1940 became twice as large as 1931. But the general tendency in 1940-41 threatened a decrease of supply on account of the stoppage of imports of foreign lumber, fixing of official prices, shortage of labor, meager supply of material for production and difficulties in obtaining sufficient means of transportation, while demand was much greater than the previous year for lumber to be used in defense services, in mines, in the pulp manufacturing industry, in railways, and various engineering works on the continent. In order to cope with the situation the Government introduced the Lumber Control Law to the spring session of the Imperial Diet, and it was passed by the Diet and promulgated on May 30. Detailed regulations for the enforcement of the control law were issued on June 6 in the form of an official notice of the Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. On August 18 the Japan Lumber Company was organized under the law with a capital of ¥50,000,000, 4 per cent dividend guaranteed by the Government. The function of the new control company is to control the shipping in and out of lumber between Japan proper and overseas territories and countries, to adjust its distribution in the country, to supply necessary materials for increasing forestry production and to finance or invest in local lumber companies. On August 25 the Lumber Control Commit-

tee of the Forestry Bureau, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry fixed the standards of valuation of property held by the existing lumber companies and saw-mills to be amalgamated into the new company or local lumber companies. Local lumber companies were established according to different prefectures or forest districts, with the purpose of controlling the local lumber industry as the sub-organ of the central Japan Lumber Company. By the end of October there were born 23 such local lumber companies throughout the country as the result of painstaking efforts of competent authorities and cooperation of private owners of forests or old lumber companies and associations. The number will be increased in 1942 so that the entire country shall come under a complete control in the matter of production and supply of lumber.

Afforestation work was also put under the official control in 1941-42 with a heavy responsibility of felling 120 million koku (koku=about 1 cubic foot×10) of timber annually and of planting seedlings as much as possible for the future. The measures to be executed for attaining such gigantic purpose included the promotion of forestry associations, local federations of forestry associations and the establishment of the Japan Union of Forestry Associations, the cooperation of forest owners with the Government's policy for the control of lumber production and supply, a compulsory disposal of timber under Article 2 of the Lumber

Control Law, the new taxation on felling, and the formation of the Central Forestry Cooperation Council.

The huge demand for lumber calls for felling standing timber in large quantities and may cause an indiscriminate felling as a natural consequence. The promotion of forestry associations aims at preventing abuses which may arise in pursuit of profit regardless of devastating effect on forestry in general. The number of new forestry associations, which are organized by forest owners, reached over 1,300 by the end of October, and another 1,240 are going to be organized by the end of 1942. The principles of the organization of the Japan Union of Forestry Associations were published by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry on October 10. The fund of the Japan Union which amounts to 10 million yen is to be collected from among the local federations of forestry associations. The Union controls the production of timber by forestry associations and its supply to the local lumber companies or the Japan Lumber Company. In the period of free economy there arose difficulties in supply and demand relations and frictions between the forest owners and the lumber companies. The new control system provided by the Lumber Control Law enables the prefectural governors to ask forest owners, when necessary, to comply with the demand of lumber undertakings in order

to smooth the supply and demand relations.

The Central Forestry Cooperation Council was established on September 28. The duty of the Council is to effect cooperation between the Japan Union of Forestry Associations and the Japan Lumber Company, as well as presenting views or making suggestions to the authorities on matters relating to general forestry administration and control measures, representing the reasonable interests of the members of forestry associations.

Afforestation and maintenance of forests and wooden lands for preventing damages to be caused by elemental forces are carefully planned by the competent Ministry with an estimated expenditure amounting to 120 million yen to be expended in the coming 10 years.

There are many and various articles of forestry products other than timber, such as turpentine, paulownia oil, mushroom (*Armillaria edoides*), *Continellus* shiitake, gallnuts, etc. The increased production of these products and control of their distribution are left for future study. In conclusion the year 1941-42 has marked an epoch in the history of the forestry industry in Japan as the year of shift from free, profiteering business to a controlled industry for the sake of the country which is to mobilize all resources to tide over the present emergency.

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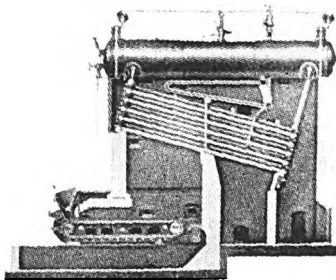
CHAPTER XVII

MINING



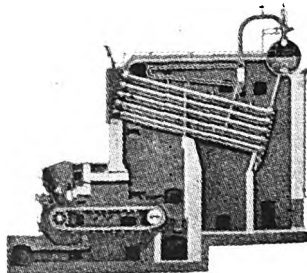
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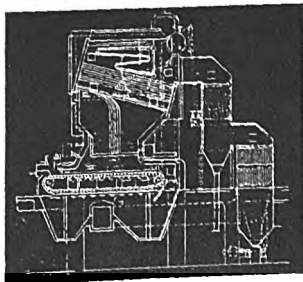
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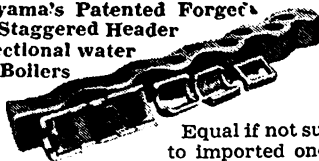
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CHAPTER XVII

MINING

History of the Industry

During the reign of the Emperor Kōtoku (645 A.D.), a mineral deposit was discovered in the province of Iyo, present Ehime prefecture, and experts came over from Korea and China, to work the minerals extracted. Metals were being used for making coins, so mining received the encouragement of the rulers. During the time of the Emperor Shōmu, (724-747 A.D.) mineral deposits were found in many places and the art of working them made considerable advance, a fact witnessed by the construction of the Great Buddha at Nara, a monument of the metal-working art of those days.

Later, during the time of the Ashikagas, mining made further development, especially in the field of gold, copper and sulphur. Influential lords who held sway in their own localities required metals to finance their army, and mines always proved good objects for fights. Mineral deposits obtained in this manner were well worked and the mining industry naturally developed.

In the time of the Tokugawas metallurgy further advanced. The government coined money which circulated all over the country and naturally the industry was well protected and carefully developed under its aegis. At this time Japan was known throughout the world as a country which abounded in gold and silver, and after the country was opened up to foreign trade the quantity of these precious metals exported was considerable, a business which provided a natural stimulus to gold and silver mining. The government also encouraged private enterprisers to engage in the industry, a result of which was the entry of the Sumitomos. The chief mineral deposits discovered during those times were:

Ashio Copper Mine	in Tochigi
Besshi "	in Ehime
Sado Gold Mines	in Sado Island
Miké Coal	in Fukuoka
Karatsu "	in Saga

After the Meiji Restoration the indus-

try did not show much progress until after the Sino-Japanese War of 1884-1885, when the Government called in many mining experts from abroad and employed them in government operated mines, not only to improve, organize and work the mines more efficiently but also to teach the operating of them on a modern basis. The mines improved in this manner were sold to private companies, and the experts who were officials of the Government were transferred together with them, a factor which served to bring the mining industry of Japan to its present stage of development.

In all kinds of mineral products, the year 1935 witnessed considerable increases over the preceding years. This was caused by the enormous increase of overseas trade and the continued boom of munitions industries. The year 1936 far surpassed the productions of the preceding years, setting an all-time record. An upward price trend caused miners to produce more than ever before.

Speaking of gold, the 1937 output totalled 13,184 kilograms in contrast to 21,114 kilograms for 1936. Silver production, too, decreased and amounted to 184,391 kilograms against 298,793 kilograms for 1936. Copper was not exception to the rule. Its output totalled 48,823 metric tons against 78,114 metric tons for 1936. Coal production totalled 24,278,000 metric tons against 38,067,000 metric tons for 1936. Petroleum products for 1937 totalled 2,272,631 hectoliters for 1936. Production of sulphur totalled 140,502 metric tons, gaining over the 1936 figure of 175,314 metric tons. Production of lead was the largest known for recent years with a total of 5,521 metric tons against 8,021 metric tons for 1936. Demand for zinc became heavy with progress of munitions industry. Last year's produc-

Note:—Most of the items on mining are not made public since 1937, especially figures for outputs of minerals.

tion totalled 26,835 metric tons in contrast to 36,201 metric tons for the previous year. Tin decreased somewhat and totalled 949 metric tons for 1937 against 1,859 metric tons for 1936. Throughout these two years the constant measures of encouragement of the Government and heavy demand for munitions industry provided the background for the large production.

Gold Since 1932, the Government has enforced many policies concerning gold: the purchasing of gold at current market prices; the reduction of railway freight rates on gold ore; the reduction of fees for analysing gold ore at the Bureau for Supervising Mines; the subsidization of construction of gold refineries, and the guiding of operations of gold mines on minor scales. As a result, the production of gold has increased considerably. In Japan proper alone, in 1936, it amounted to more than 22 metric tons valued at ¥74,320,000, whereas in 1931 only a little over 12 metric tons of gold valued at ¥16,500,000 were produced. Production in the Japanese Empire, including Taiwan and Chosen, which was about 22 metric tons, valued at ¥26,840,000 in 1931, increased sharply to more than 41 metric tons worth ¥138,560,000 in 1936.

The Government promulgated the Gold Production Law which went into effect on August 28, 1937, with a view to increasing production of gold in an aggressive manner and to concentrating the precious metal in governmental hands so that it may be utilized in equilibrating international accounts. In conjunction with the execution of this law, the Government is encouraging gold production with a sum of approximately ¥22,580,000 to be spread over five years from the 1937 fiscal year.

For the promotion of gold mining industry, the Government also introduced the Law Concerning the Japan Gold Production Promotion Company, Limited, at the 73rd session of the Imperial Diet in 1938. Approved by the Diet, the law was promulgated on March 29, 1938. The company organized under this law is a special semi-governmental corporation whose functions are to facilitate supply of abundant funds for gold mining enterprises and also to undertake various promotional enterprises in connection with the industry, such as the refining of poor ores.

On May 2, 1938, the Government

raised its buying price of gold from the former level of ¥3.77 per fine gram to ¥3.85, the current level of the world gold market. On May 9, it abolished the gold buying commission which had hitherto been levied, and reduced by 50 per cent the rates of refining fees charged by the Mint on gold bullion to be sold to the Government, the rates of fees on certificates of the quality of gold bullion and those of fees on testing. At the same time, the buying commission on gold bullion in small lots below 50 grams was abolished.

The essential points of the Gold Production Law may be listed as follows:

1. Persons desiring to engage in the business of gold refining and of buying minerals containing gold are required to secure licences from the Government.
2. Persons who have acquired minerals containing gold or alluvial gold or any substance containing gold are required to refine them into gold bullion and to sell the latter to the Government, or to sell them to licensed gold refiners or buyers of minerals containing gold. When these buyers have refined the bullion, they are obliged to sell it to the Government. Thus, all newly refined gold is to be concentrated by the Government, irrespective of the channels through which it may be obtained.
3. Gold refiners are required to formulate their plans of operation in advance and to report them to the Government. Reports are also required concerning changes in plants. The Government is authorized to order alterations in the plans of the refiners.
4. Whenever it is deemed necessary for the augmentation of gold production, the Government may, on the recommendation of the Gold Commission, command gold refiners to expand or improve refining facilities and may give necessary instructions concerning such facilities.
5. Owners of mining rights and rights on alluvial minerals containing gold shall be treated in the same manner as gold refiners, with respect to business operations.
6. When it is deemed necessary for the public welfare, the Government may, on the recommendation of the Gold Commission, issue orders to persons who are engaged in gold mining, gold refining and buying of minerals containing gold.

7. The Government is authorized to demand reports from gold miners, gold refiners and persons engaged in the business of buying minerals containing gold concerning their business methods and assets, and may also investigate such matters. The Government may further issue supervisory orders regarding the accounting methods of the above persons or may take the necessary action.

8. When it is deemed necessary, the Government may, on the recommendation of the Gold Commission, issue orders regarding the price of gold, restrictions on the use of gold and other matters relating to the consumption of gold. This provision has been put into force through Ordinance No. 60 Concerning Regulations on Gold Consumption of the Department of Finance, promulgated on December 28, 1937.

9. Machinery, tools or other materials necessary in the business of gold miners or gold refiners, when imported with the approval of the Government, shall be exempted from import duties for a period of five years from the day on which the Gold Production Law went into effect.

10. The Government may give subsidies to gold miners or gold refiners within the limits of the amount fixed in the budget.

Measures for encouraging the production of gold are roughly as follows:

1. To give subsidies to those prospecting for gold mines.

2. Subsidization of construction of facilities for selecting and refining ore. These measures are to be carried out in accordance with the provisions of the Gold Production Law. Procedures relating to these measures are provided for in Ordinance No. 22 Concerning Gold Production Encouragement Regulations of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, promulgated on October 10, 1937. Other measures are:

1. To subsidize expenses covering institutions for training the field staffs of gold mining companies.

2. To survey mineral deposits in gold producing areas.

3. To hasten the disposal of applications for gold mining licences.

4. To lend machinery and tools for gold mining.

A summary of the prospectus of the Japan Gold Production Promotion Company, Limited, is as follows:

1. Organization of the company: This company is to be a special joint stock company organized under a special law.

2. Purpose of the company: To conduct operations necessary for the promotion of gold mining and refining.

3. Capital: ¥50,000,000, of which ¥25,000,000 is to be invested by the Government. The capital may be increased on the approval of the Government.

4. Officers: (a) The company shall have a president, vice-president, three or more directors and two or more auditors. (b) The president and vice-president shall be appointed by the Government; their term of office shall be four years. Directors shall be appointed by the Government from among the shareholders of the company; their term shall be three years. Auditors shall be elected from among the shareholders at a general meeting; their term shall be two years.

5. Business: (a) Financing of and investment in gold mining and refining enterprises and in enterprises for the manufacture of gold mining and refining machinery and tools. (b) Gold mining and refining. (c) Buying and selling of gold mining and refining machinery and tools, and other materials or equipment. (d) Buying and selling of minerals containing gold: (e) Survey and valuation of gold mines.

6. Debentures: (a) The company is authorized to issue debentures under the name of the Gold Production Debentures up to an amount five times the paid-up capital of the company. (b) The Government may guarantee the payment of the principal of and interest on such debentures.

7. Dividends: (a) The company shall not be required to pay dividends on the Government-owned shares until private shares have been satisfied to the extent of 4 per cent per annum. (b) In case the profits to be divided among shareholders reach a ratio exceeding 4 per cent per annum on private investments and the company intends to declare dividends at a higher rate, distribution of such excess profits may be made on the Government shares and private shares at a ratio of 1 to 5, until the company becomes able to declare dividends of equal rates on both kinds of shares.

8. Subsidization of dividends: When the amount of profits to be distributed among shareholders fails to reach the

rate of 4 per cent per annum on private investments, the Government shall subsidize the company with an amount covering the deficiency for the first year of its operation and for the subsequent five years. However, each subsidy cannot exceed the combined total of a sum equivalent to 4 per cent per annum on private investments and a sum of interest paid on Gold Production Promotion Debentures, with the exception of the first one.

9. Tax exemption: (a) The company shall be exempted from income tax and business profit tax for the first and the subsequent 10 business years. (b) No local taxes shall be levied on this company.

10. Subsidies: The Government may grant subsidies to the company principally for its enterprises relating to refining of poor ores.

11. Government supervision: (a) The Government is authorized to supervise the business of the company. The company is required to obtain approval from the Government regarding increase of capital, issuance of Gold Production Promotion Debentures, other borrowings, changes in the Articles of Corporation, disposition of profits, resolutions on amalgamation with other companies or dissolution, and business plans. (b) The company shall observe the Government's supervisory orders and orders necessary for the promotion of gold producing enterprises. (c) The Government shall appoint supervisors of the Nippon Gold Production Promotion Company in order to supervise the business of the company.

12. Regarding the organization of this company, the Government shall appoint an Organization Committee, which shall make all preparations and follow the necessary procedures.

The foregoing explanations apply to governmental policies in Japan proper. In Chosen, the Decree on Gold Production was promulgated by Imperial Ordinance No. 16 of September 7, 1937. This Decree is similar in substance to the Gold Production Law of Japan proper. In Taiwan, the Gold Production Law is to be enforced as in Japan proper in accordance with Imperial Ordinance No. 518 of September 25, 1937.

The Japan Gold Production Promotion Company intends to increase the production of gold throughout the Empire. It will conduct business in Chosen and Taiwan as well as in Japan proper.

Silver Affected by the bounds and leaps in the silver quotations in foreign markets and on account of the close relationship of silver with gold smelting the production of silver increased too, the 1935 production amounting to 256,004,834 grams, which advanced to 303,753,000 grams during 1936. Average silver price in 1937 in Tokyo was ¥48.48 per kilogram, ¥46.56 in 1938 and ¥47.40 in 1939.

Tin Only about one-fourth of the total demand is being met by home products. To be exact 1,218,000 kg. was produced at home in 1934 against the total home consumption of 5,260,000 kg., leaving a balance of 4,062,000 kg. to be imported and 20,000 kg. for exports.

Osaka Tin Refinery Guild was established in October 1933. The reproduced tin put out by the members of the guild became such an important factor that its manufacture came to be designated as one of the principal industries by the Government in November 1934. The sales of the product have been well regulated after the formation of the guild. Before the guild was organized the product contained a good deal of impurities and the production was only two or three hundred tons. As the time went on the technique of refining improved and the production in 1934 went up to five hundred tons. All the product is consumed in the domestic market, the legal maximum price in 1939 being ¥47.58 per 100 kilograms.

Copper Production of copper, unlike that of tin, lead, zinc, or aluminum, was comparatively large in Japan, occupying an important position among metal industries, especially in arms industry. Copper industry developed rather early in Japan. Its production in 1876 was less than 4,000 tons, but Japan was then known throughout the world as the second largest copper producing country, exporting one half of her product. But with the Great War as the turning point, her position as copper exporting country became less important, for new copper beds were discovered in Chile and Congo. Japan then came to occupy the fourth position in the production of copper, and has been compelled to become an importer, the quantity imported increasing every year.

Demanding as an indispensable requisite in the munition manufacturing

industries its brisk tone was maintained in 1934 as it had been in the previous year. The 1936 copper output in Japan established a record high with 77,973,000 metric tons in contrast to 69,829 metric tons for 1935. The copper market in Japan was long under the influence of New York and London markets. But since the second half of 1932, owing to the depression of the yen and the increased tariff, it began to regain an independent position from foreign influences. Copper prices in Japan for 1936 were unusually high affected by New York and London quotations. In 1939, the average market prices of electrolytic copper rose to ¥320.00 per 100 kg., a record high. The exports of copper reached 211,554 piculs valued at ¥15,105,000 for 1937, 113,456 piculs valued at ¥8,636,000 for 1938 and 142,651 piculs valued at ¥10,122,000 for 1939.

To meet the enhanced demand copper mines extended their equipments, the most important being the improvement of the furnace at Naoshima refinery of the Mitsubishi Mine, the extension of Saga refinery of the Nippon Mine, and opening of a new shaft at Ashio Mine of the Furukawa interests.

Lead The home production of lead barely satisfies 7% of the aggregate demand. In 1936 the total home production was 8,883 metric tons, and the import was 97,822 metric tons.

Zinc The origin and development of zinc mining in Japan is of comparatively recent date. In 1900, a Swiss clock firm, seeing bright prospects of developing the industry, purchased many zinc mines in the country and began exporting the metal. From this time the industry developed, the number of men engaged in mining increased,

and the exportation of zinc grew in proportion.

Along with the development of other industries there has been an advance in zinc smelting. With increased demand during the World War, production and exports increased, the quantity produced in 1917 reaching 54,700 metric tons, and smelting furnaces numbering 16. From the slump of 1920 and the depression which followed it, the industry received a heavy blow. Most of the furnaces were shut down, and only those in Miké, Takata, and Hiroshima were able to weather the storm. The last named has been especially successful in manufacturing sulphuric acid with the sulphur separated from zinc ores.

Zinc ores in Japan exist mainly in igneous and aqueous rocks. They seldom exist independently, sometimes being found mixed with lead ores. The principal ore which yields zinc is zinc sulphide, some of the best of which contains about 67% of zinc and 33% sulphur. Ordinary ores contain 40 to 55% of zinc and 24 to 28% of sulphur. The principal places of production are as follows:

Kamioka	Kozan in Gifu Prefecture
Budé	" " Niigata "
Ikuno	" " Hyogo "
Yasuda	" " Nagasaki "
Hosokura	" " Miyagi "
Kanayama	" " Wakayama "
Wanibuchi	" " Shimané "
Sasu	" " Nagasaki "
Ginya and Maden	Kozan in Heiando, Chosen
Mimuné	Kozan in Keiando, Chosen.

The production, import, export, and consumption of zinc follow:

COAL, PETROLEUM AND IRON IN 1941

Coal The Government strengthened various production increase measures for accelerating the production of coal in 1941 by smoothing the supply of raw materials and labor, granting production subsidies and giving proper technical guidance to collieries. Special production increase drives were conducted for three months from January to March and two months from August to September with encouraging results. Immediately upon the outbreak of the war with Britain and the United States on December 8, the Government fixed the period

from December 15 to March, 1942 as a wartime coal production increase period with special emphasis placed on the production increase of high-grade coal such as coal for gas generation and coal for producing chemical manufactures. Positive production increase drives were carried out throughout the country during 1941 with a special subsidy of ¥23,000,000 for the production expansion and ¥5,600,000 for aid of newly-developed collieries. To exercise proper control over the distribution and consumption of coal, the Government, at

the close of March, decided upon a distribution plan for the first half of 1941 (April to September), and thereby fixed the amount of consumption by larger consumers based on priority distribution to iron mills, railways, power plants, ships, etc. On September 10, the Government announced control over the distribution to small-scale consumers, which was closely followed by the promulgation of Regulations for Adjustment of Coal Distribution at the close of September, involving the compulsory storage of coal by large consumers and strengthened control over distribution of coal to small-scale consumers. Those measures took effect as from October 1. The adjustment and merger of small-scale collieries and unified control over production and distribution as two indispensable measures for increasing the coal production on the basis of the positive operations of highly-efficient mines made a concrete progress during 1941. For this purpose, the Government drafted a plan for the creation of the Coal Industrial Control Association in the early part of July. The creation of the association was ordered by the Government at the close of October in accordance with the provisions of the Major Industrial Bodies Ordinance (effective September 1, 1941), and the association was inaugurated on November 26. The association, which is the exclusive control body of the production and distribution of coal in Japan, has the following four cardinal objectives, namely: 1) participation in Government's plans regarding the supply and demand of raw materials, funds and labor necessary for the production and distribution of coal, 2) drafting of the coal production plan and its execution, 3) maintenance and distribution of raw materials, funds and labor for coal industry, 4) drafting and execution of fundamental plans for the distribution of coal.

Petroleum Consumption restriction and distribution control of petroleum products, development and increased production of domestic oil fields, and increased production of artificial petroleum and substitute fuel became increasingly imperative during 1941 as measures for coping with the intensified restrictions imposed by the United States over the supply of oil products to Japan. Fresh impetus was added to those measures as Japan's imports of petroleum products were virtually suspended following the freezing of Japan-

ese assets by Britain, the United States, Canada and the Netherlands and the abrogation of the Japanese-Dutch Oil Agreement toward the close of July.

The Ministry of Railways completely suspended the run of gasoline-driven cars on all governmental lines from August 10 while the Ministry of Commerce and Industry restricted the consumption of gasoline by general passenger cars as after September and strengthened the consumption restrictions of kerosene and light oil by subjecting them to the ticket ration system which hitherto was applied only to gasoline and heavy oil, effective from October.

The rate of mixture of alcohol with gasoline for internal combustion engines, in operation since July, 1938, was raised by 20 per cent from September, and a subsidy for storage of petroleum was increased late in September. As a measure to cope with strengthened consumption restrictions, the Government encouraged the use of petroleum substitutes such as natural gas, charcoal, coalite, etc., and decided to give a special subsidy to those using facilities and equipments powered by substitute fuel.

The distribution of petroleum products was steadily perfected to cope with the strengthened restrictions over consumption.

For developing domestic oil fields, the Imperial Oil Company, a ¥100,000,000 concern totally financed by the Government, was inaugurated on August 29 in accordance with the provisions of the Imperial Oil Company Law approved at the 76th session of the Diet. The company started activities from September 1 as exclusive control organ in the oil industry. The company took the first concrete step toward the rationalization of domestic oil industry when it took over all oil-mining activities from the Japan Oil Company on December 6, 1941. The company was also planning the merger of the existing 21 oil companies in Japan into five major concerns (Japan Oil, Hayama Oil, Maruzen Oil, Mitsubishi Oil and Japan Mining) in order to attain the highest efficiency of oil producing facilities by full operation. In order to increase the production of artificial oil, the Government, at the 76th session of the Diet, revised the Artificial Oil Industrial Law and the Imperial Fuel Industrial Company Law, thereby giving priority allotment of materials and labor

and granting special subsidies to different oil plants amounting to about ¥1,200,000 in 1941. For this purpose, the Government also had all existing artificial oil manufacturing facilities as well as patents concentrated under the Imperial Fuel Industrial Company. Detailed preparations were also being made during 1941 for the creation of an exclusive body for exercising unified control over the production and distribution of petroleum products in Japan.

Power With the object of reorganizing the State control system of power in order to expand the power resources and rationalize the distribution and consumption of power, the Government on April 10 clarified its policy toward State control over power, which consisted in strengthening and expanding the functions of the Japan Power Transmission and Distribution Company and merging domestic power distribution companies into eight major blocs.

Consequently, the revised Japan Power Transmission and Distribution Law was enforced on April 25, simultaneously with the organization of the 76th session of the Diet. All hydroelectric facilities were immediately merged under the Japan Power Transmission and Distribution Company. The merger of power companies took the first concrete step when 69 specified power distribution companies throughout the country had a roundtable parley with representatives of the Government early in May to discuss ways and means of accelerating the merger. On August 30, the Power Distribution Control Ordinance was enforced in accordance with the provisions of the National General Mobilization Law. This was followed by a Government order for the establishment of power distribution companies for eight blocs specified by the Government.

State control over the transmission and distribution of power was adequately supplemented by proper restrictions over the consumption of power during 1941. In the early part of the year, the Government alleviated the consumption restrictions for wartime industries in operation since the fall of the preceding year on the basis of the priority principle.

In view of the possible advent of the dry season in winter, however, the Ministry of Communications on November 1 issued a special notice regarding consumption restrictions over power, effective December 1. Thus, due to the time-

ly distribution and consumption control measures adopted by the Government, the supply and demand of power during 1941 remained in satisfactory balance.

Iron and Steel

An epochal change was made in the system and technical phase of Japan's iron and steel industry during 1941, climaxing in the organization of the Iron and Steel Industrial Control Association and the stabilization of the iron and steel self-supply structure. The former was the first fruit of the economic new structure policy of the Government while the latter meant the complete extrication of Japan from dependence on imported scrap iron.

The complete ban placed by the United States on exports of scrap iron to Japan in the fall of 1940 forced Japan's iron and steel industry to totally reorganize itself. It therefore became necessary to create a strong control organ to replace the Japan Iron and Steel Association (established in March, 1940) as a propelling force for the reorganization of the iron and steel industry. Under the circumstances, the Iron and Steel Control Association was created on April 26, 1941, by the initiative of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, and the association started activities from May 1 with the colossal task of stabilizing the self-supply and self-sufficiency structure for iron and steel within the East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere through the well-controlled management of the iron and steel industry. This association was reorganized and made a fresh start on November 20 in accordance with the provisions of the Major Industrial Bodies Ordinance with a wider scope of activities based on the leadership principle.

Under the provisions of the revised Japan Iron Manufacturing Company Law approved by the 76th session of the Diet, the Japan Iron Manufacturing Company was authorized by the Government to issue debentures to an amount three times the extent of its paid-up capital. With its position thus phenomenally strengthened, the company took a pivotal part in the new Iron and Steel Industrial Control Association.

To cope with the American ban on exports of scrap iron to Japan, Japan's steel manufacturing technique underwent an epoch-making change, with the pig-scrap mixing rate changed from the ratio of 4 to 6 to 7 to 3. Under the circumstances, the domestic production

of pig iron was sharply increased during 1941, particularly since the completion of blast furnaces at the Pensifu Iron Works of the Showa Steel Company as well as the Amagasaki and Nakayama Steel Companies. Efforts were also made by the Government and industrialists for the increase of iron ore production in Japan, Manchoukuo and China in order to cope with the suspension of iron ore from Malaya and the Philippines due to the Anglo-American freezing of Japanese assets since July, 1941.

On September 30, 1941, the Japan Iron and Steel Raw Materials Control Company and the Nichiman Iron and Steel Sales Company were merged into a new company named Iron and Steel Raw Materials Control Company as an exclusive control organ for the distribution of raw materials of iron and steel.

The Iron and Steel Sales Company emerged on December 10, 1941, by the merger of the Japan Steel Materials Sales Company, the 2nd Steel Materials Sales Company and the Japan Steel Tubes Sales Company to exercise unified control over the sales of iron and steel

products. Thus, the unified control system in the distribution of iron and steel raw materials as well as the sales of manufactured items was consummated under the exclusive supervision of the control association.

The Government continued the subsidy system for the iron and steel industry in 1941 without permitting the advance in prices of iron and steel products for the reason that iron and steel are basic commodities. In addition to the compensation system which had been adopted since 1940 to make up for the losses sustained by iron and steel companies by the sharp increase in the production cost due to the gain in the prices of raw materials such as scrap iron, pig iron, iron ore and coal as well as labor wages, the Government on August 12 decided to extend a new compensation fund totaling ¥27,000,000 for the second half of 1941 for aid of ordinary pig iron produced by the Japan Iron Manufacturing Company, Japan Steel Tube Company, Nakayama Steel Company, Kokura Steel Company, Kotobuki Steel Company and Amagasaki Steel Company.

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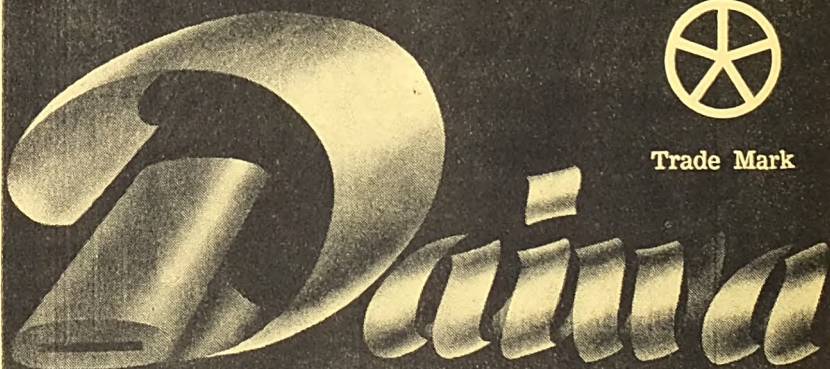
CHAPTER XVIII

TEXTILE INDUSTRY

ESTABLISHED IN 1941



Trade Mark



Boseki Kabusiki Kaisya

Head Office:

15, Imabashi 1-chome, Higahsi-ku, Osaka

CAPITAL: ¥86,668,450

President: MASATO KATO

YARNS & PIECE-GOODS

COTTON, RAYON AND STAPLE FIBRE

CABLE ADDRESS:
"DAIWABO OSAKA"

REFERENCES:
The Yokohama Specie Bank



Torii

President:
SOTARO HAYASHI

Managing Director:
SHUICHI KATAGIRI

**NIPPON KE-ASA SHIFU
YUSHUTSU KUMIAI**
(THE NIPPON WOOLLEN & HEMP GOODS
EXPORTERS ASSOCIATION)

Honmachi-bashi, Higashi-ku,
Osaka, Nippon

ALL INQUIRIES
CAREFULLY HANDLED

NIPPON MENSIFU YUSYUTU KUMIAI

(Japan Cotton Textile Exporters' Association)

Osaka Head Office: Nityome Honmachi, Osaka

Branches: Nagoya, Kobe, Tokyo & Yokohama

Foreign Branch: Bangkok

The principal object of this association is primarily to provide members with facilities in the promotion of their export trade to foreign countries of cotton piece-goods and yarn.

The new turn of events in the world has brought about fresh duties on the association. In the first place, the association has been authorized to carry on the export of cotton piece-goods and yarn for the two independent countries of French Indo-China and Thailand. For this purpose, the association has authorized some of its members to execute the business of the association in their own names in behalf of the association. Secondly, the association has decided to buy up all the stocks of the two commodities that are found in the open market. By order of the Department of Commerce and Industry of the Japanese Government, this association is the only institution authorized to stand between the Government and the shippers to carry out the export control of the two commodities named.

This Association holds: Members 719; Investments by Members ¥943,750; Reserve Funds ¥1,552,328

President: KOTA TUKADA

Vice-President: Keizo Hirano

Managing Directors: Kiyomatu Morita, Sigeru Kawa,
Saburo Nakazima

Directors: Tozo Abe, Otozo Kawasaki, Tokutaro Ryoki,
Motoziro Yosida, Sotaro Hayasi, Keitaro Ono,
Koyata Yamamoto

Auditors: Itiro Hattori, Kasaburo Oasi, Torazi Kunugi,
Kyuhiichi Toyosima

Osaka, September 19, 1942

CHAPTER XVIII

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

The number of operatives, mills, etc. for almost all kinds of the textile industry in 1938 showed an increased over those of 1937, indicating that the indus-

try as a whole was very prosperous in that year. The following table shows these figures:

**NUMBERS OF OPERATIVES, MILLS, ETC. IN TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN 1938
AS COMPARED WITH THOSE IN 1937**

Kind of Industry	No. of Mills		No. of Mills using Motors		No. of Officials		No. of Technicians	
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
Silk reeling	2,006	1,938	1,908	1,843	4,652	4,523	4,328	4,491
Spinning	782	817	773	814	4,428	4,921	3,485	3,608
Twisting	2,081	2,142	2,039	2,041	545	532	320	327
Weaving	16,034	15,871	15,125	15,024	7,303	7,720	4,472	4,626
Hosiery	1,960	2,043	1,650	1,732	1,113	1,205	627	636
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	3,680	3,636	2,701	2,721	4,170	4,251	2,561	2,544
Miscellaneous	1,590	1,645	1,432	1,475	1,193	1,127	589	625
Total	28,133	28,092	25,628	25,650	23,354	24,279	16,382	16,857

Kind of Industry	No. of Operatives				Others		Total Workers	
	Male		Female		1937	1938	1937	1938
Silk reeling	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
Spinning	17,205	17,661	207,200	200,373	4,138	4,420	237,523	231,468
Twisting	34,360	31,007	229,353	209,554	8,974	8,960	280,600	258,050
Weaving	5,433	4,893	18,873	19,834	343	401	25,514	25,987
Hosiery	64,989	59,702	315,300	310,805	5,536	5,890	397,600	388,743
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	10,029	8,733	20,477	18,369	403	376	32,649	29,319
Miscellaneous	60,725	52,529	15,687	16,043	2,304	2,365	85,447	77,732
Total	8,614	8,830	24,265	27,450	639	508	35,250	29,710
	201,355	183,355	831,155	793,598	22,337	22,920	1,094,583	1,041,009

Note: Figures are for the factories where more than 5 operatives are employed.
Source: The "Factory Statistics."

Fiber Industry in 1941-42

Change in Trade Policy and Direction of Fiber Industry

From the standpoint of Japan's trade policy, the control over the fiber industry had been strengthened and expanded with imported fiber as the pivot. As far as exports were concerned, however, fibers failed to extricate itself from the sphere of liberalistic economy until the outbreak of the European War. In this connection, the domestic consumption of

fiber materials and manufactures was restricted to the extent to which the imports of raw materials were restricted. On the other hand, exports of fiber materials and manufactures were encouraged in order to adjust the balance of international accounts. For this purpose, the export-import link system was adopted by the Government.

Various trade obstacles emanating from the outbreak of the war and the intensified economic pressure brought about by Britain, the United States and other hostile countries, particularly

since the conclusion of the Italo-German-Japanese Tripartite Alliance, however, speedily weakened the importance of the acquisition of foreign currencies. As a result, Japan's trade policy was shifted from the exports to the imports.

Under the circumstances, the regulations for enforcement of the Trade Control Ordinance were revised and promulgated on July 7, 1941, and a system of adjusting exports to third countries was adopted.

The freezing of Japanese assets by Britain, the United States and their colonies as well as the Netherlands East Indies compelled Japan's trade policy to the principle of self-sufficiency within the East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, thus putting an end to liberalism in trade.

Such an epochal change in trade greatly affected the fiber industry which had originally been dependent on the free trade principle, particularly since the outbreak of the China Affair and the consequent decline in the production of manufactures for the domestic market. Thus, the fiber industry was forced to reorganize itself so as to dispense with commercialism based on trade and to attain self-sufficiency in fiber resources within the East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere.

The shift of the fiber industry from international trade to the self-sufficiency within the co-prosperity sphere necessitated the adoption of planned production, rationalization of production processes, restriction of consumption and adjustment of distribution in order to cope with the restricted supply of raw materials. The situation thus caused a marked increase in the production of mixed manufactures by utilization of silk, staple fiber and rayon, hemp and other fibers as well as re-manufactured yarns. Under the circumstances, the

establishment of the exclusive fiber industrial control association to exercise unified control over the fiber industry became imperative.

Rationalization Movement With the production expansion of wartime industries having been carried out at the sacrifice of the so-called peace-time industries, and a drastic change in the trade situation having taken place due to the increasing tension in the international developments, the reduction in the amount of raw materials, labor and other materials to be distributed to the fiber industry became inevitable. On the other hand, the reduced production caused many production facilities to lie idle and out of operation.

Thus, the rationalization and reorganization of management in the fiber industry came to be urged on the basis of a merger movement sponsored by the Government. Consequently, the merger movement was under way since the fall of 1940. As a result, 76 cotton spinning and weaving enterprises were reduced to 14 industrial units, 37 woolen industrial firms were merged into eight concerns and 33 staple fiber companies were amalgamated into 16 blocs during 1941. The reorganization of the fiber industry has been still under way on a more extensive and drastic scale in order to cope with the requirements of the wartime situation.

Reorganization of the artificial silk and staple fiber industry lessened the number of the companies in the industry from 33 to 21 in 1941, and they were united into 5 blocs of the Daido Rayon, Shonan, Toka, Nippon Rayon and Asahi Benverg early in 1942. The aggregate daily productive capacity of the 21 companies is fixed at 1,230 metric tons of staple fiber and 742 metric tons of rayon.

BUSINESS CONDITIONS OF COTTON SPINNING COMPANIES IN JAPAN PROPER

(In ¥1,000)

		No. of	Paid-up		Debentures		Fixed	Net	Rate	Rate of
			Cos.	Capital	Reserves	& Debts	Assets	Profits	of Profit	Dividend
1936,	1st Half	68	454,640	278,307	179,832	665,027	33,016	1.45	1.14	
	2nd Half	67	466,492	280,629	184,563	699,382	36,828	1.58	1.12	
1937,	1st Half	67	512,988	287,603	205,621	732,392	47,081	1.84	1.24	
	2nd Half	72	571,011	294,390	218,290	777,060	50,649	1.77	1.20	
1938,	1st Half	76	604,629	302,505	214,863	792,225	49,196	1.62	1.23	
	2nd Half	75	628,222	309,591	219,063	819,549	49,505	1.57	1.19	
1939,	1st Half	72	623,184	316,414	209,766	827,096	48,970	1.57	1.20	
	2nd Half	72	645,334	323,285	249,534	878,580	55,887	1.16	1.25	
1940,	1st Half	72	660,141	336,139	247,390	887,798	61,158	1.08	1.23	

COTTON SPINNING

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SPINNERS' CAPITAL AND EQUIPMENT

(In Japan Proper and Chosen)

At the end of June	No. of Cos.	Paid Cap. (000s)	Reserves (000s)	Mills	Ring Spindles	Looms
1936	75	455,640	278,307	285	10,989,900	98,000
1937	74	512,988	287,603	282	12,190,800	104,600
1938	76	604,629	302,525	296	12,776,200	114,300
1939	72	623,184	316,414	246	11,602,000	104,100
1940	72	660,141	336,139	254	11,666,800	104,200

Note: In 1923 and in the years following, all figures include spinners not members of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association. It must be noted that the looms include only those which are owned by spinners, not embracing those in mills which have no spinning equipment.

Source: The report of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association.

PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON YARNS SINCE 1933

(In bales)

Year	Domestic Output	Imports	Exports	Exported as Cotton Tissues	Domestic Consumption
1936	3,607,196	14,119	110,833	1,921,920	1,591,162
1937	4,010,576	10,877	128,908	1,890,690	1,949,981
1938	2,859,022	1,868	105,265	1,766,802	988,575
1939	2,673,063	800	208,750	1,762,210	702,903

(One bale = 3 piculs)

PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARNS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills (At the end of Year)	No. of Operatives	Production Quantity (In metric ton)	Value (In ¥1,000)
1934	417	170,114	635,385	795,686
1935	443	168,800	646,756	806,346
1936	473	183,504	673,124	830,909
1937	599	183,354	721,904	1,044,077
1938	607	151,201	560,360	764,885

Source: The "Factory Statistics."

PRODUCTION OF COTTON TISSUES IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of Looms (At the end of Year)	No. of Operatives	Value of Production (Unit: ¥1,000)
1934		376,704	224,645	816,361
1935	51,130	385,980	229,707	822,417
1936	48,389	392,941	239,881	883,341
1937	46,915	407,520	234,034	1,112,685
1938	41,513	386,841	209,247	888,221

Note: Figures include production by small factories which employ less than 5 persons, and differ from those given in the "Factory Statistics."

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF COTTON TISSUES
IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association)

	Total Production (Broad Weaves)	Production by Spinning Companies (In 1,000 yards)	Production in Weaving Districts	Consumption Exports (In 1,000 sq. yards)	Home Consumption (In 1,000 yards)
1935	4,112,111	1,843,471	2,268,640	2,725,109	1,400,759
1936	3,973,479	1,799,033	1,780,972	2,709,885	1,269,692
1937	4,212,825	1,890,554	2,322,262	2,644,029	1,577,175
1938	3,101,028	1,611,794	1,639,379	2,180,810	920,218
1939	3,031,151	1,604,821	1,426,330	2,445,537	585,614

Silk Textile Industry

Silk Weaving Districts As early as the days of the Emperor Suinin, about 1,960 years ago, weaving was already carried on, on a fairly large scale, under encouragement of the Imperial Court. During the Yedo Age the weaving industry made marked development as one of the most important domestic industries. The Ryomo district, which is one of the chief weaving districts for silk textiles for domestic use, has been known as a very prosperous weaving center for centuries. This district is in Gumma and Tochigi prefectures and includes great weaving centers such as Ashikaga, Kiryu, Isézaki, Sano and Tatebayashi. The district may be likened to Paterson, New Jersey, U.S.A.

Another important weaving district is Fukui, followed by Kyoto, Ishikawa, Niigata and Tokyo in the order named. Among silk weaves of Japanese manufacture habutaé, taffeta, poplin, chiffon, pongee, fuji silk, crêpe, etc, are well known abroad. In addition to these, however, there are many varie-

ties, which are used by the Japanese at home, but these weaves are generally of narrow width, omeshi, ro, sha, meisén, nishijin, etc.

The Industry in 1938 Continued prosperity featured the silk weaving industry in Japan in 1938, but exports decreased to ¥49,352,000 from ¥72,286,000 of 1937, largely owing to the state control of trade and the barriers set up by various foreign markets.

The number of mills was 65,229, a decrease of 323 as compared with the previous year, but that of looms increased by 12,078, indicating the increase of larger mills. The number of operatives increased by 1,064.

Production of Silk Weaves Owing to the increase in consumption at home production showed gains. Total production in 1938 was valued at ¥785,525,000, a gain of ¥54,078,000 or 7.4 per cent over the previous year. Production of silk textiles since 1931 follows:

PRODUCTION OF SILK TEXTILES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
No. of Mills	77,723	72,448	71,273	72,907	72,311	72,599	65,552	65,229
No. of Looms	232,443	245,689	260,377	301,721	334,845	369,319	379,213	391,292
No. of Operatives	213,285	224,561	236,997	267,345	290,912	310,359	294,292	304,932
Broad Weaves								
Crêpes and Kabe-ori								
Qt'y in 1,000 meters	34,646	45,812	85,385	124,950	179,348	231,376	284,122	236,395
Value in ¥1,000	27,964	33,546	66,105	73,721	82,973	91,974	109,141	92,639
Habutaé								
Qt'y in 1,000 meters	31,213	36,060	48,735	109,110	81,858	127,171	102,547	142,242
Value in ¥1,000	11,907	13,273	19,281	27,174	21,888	31,998	29,310	39,010

COTTON, SILK TISSUES

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Year	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1935	1937	1938
Pongee								
Qt'y in 1,000 meters	33,071	32,550	35,636	37,109	22,807	15,258	19,062	25,818
Value in ¥1,000	9,655	11,164	12,699	10,790	6,838	4,634	6,532	8,282
Fuji silk								
Qt'y in 1,000 meters	51,551	56,619	65,945	59,439	50,866	41,517	43,464	35,540
Value in ¥1,000	24,851	28,896	33,216	31,155	27,804	22,718	22,764	19,876
Satin								
Qt'y in 1,000 meters	25,490	45,799	45,527	74,577	91,087	89,556	86,617	91,851
Value in ¥1,000	14,268	20,048	21,904	26,546	26,790	27,361	27,473	38,766
Others & total								
Value in ¥1,000	137,251	175,640	235,902	273,097	283,420	311,842	366,581	358,774

Narrow Weaves

Omeshi								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	1,783	2,102	1,493	1,783	2,095	2,529	3,744	3,623
Value in ¥1,000	22,577	21,195	15,809	17,398	19,975	17,945	19,640	22,503
Crêpes and Kabé								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	10,659	9,611	10,979	15,199	17,865	19,321	16,467	18,226
Value in ¥1,000	67,670	60,982	69,207	93,761	101,236	100,246	84,600	108,552
Habutaé, etc.								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	3,701	3,495	2,911	3,748	4,688	3,170	3,654	3,681
Value in ¥1,000	20,475	20,241	17,553	19,389	23,365	16,955	16,871	20,038
Ro and Sha								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	1,347	2,139	1,894	2,717	2,567	3,175	3,372	2,256
Value in ¥1,000	8,352	12,231	11,319	12,868	12,367	13,279	13,180	10,025
Meisen, etc.								
Qt'y in 1,000 tan	13,526	12,601	12,117	12,735	11,205	10,639	11,889	12,885
Value in ¥1,000	57,017	48,132	46,096	49,641	44,907	42,525	48,278	63,472
Others & total								
Value in ¥1,000	207,898	198,869	197,349	234,353	242,750	236,996	228,279	286,122
Special Weaves								
Value in ¥1,000	31,599	33,351	30,931	47,091	53,053	53,101	49,402	56,188
Total of Silk Textiles								
Value in ¥1,000	376,749	407,860	464,183	554,542	579,223	601,940	644,262	701,084
Silk-Cotton Mixtures								
Value in ¥1,000	30,107	31,159	36,912	46,328	53,709	61,192	77,185	84,441
Grand total								
Value in ¥1,000	406,857	439,019	501,095	600,870	632,933	663,133	721,447	785,525

Note: Figures given here show products by all mills, regardless of the size of mills or the number of operatives employed.

Artificial Silk Demand The demand for artificial silk, both for domestic consumption and for export, totalled 248,810,000 pounds last year, dwindling by 20 per cent from 1938. In 1938, the demand was divided into 40 per cent for export and 60 per cent for home use. Last year, however, the demand was almost equally divided, exports being slightly the heavier. Details follow:

	1938	1939
Released from joint-stocks	11,094	—
Exports of yarns	21,985	36,742
Exports of tissues	60,663	56,269
Exports of yarns and tissues from Chosen	4,185	4,443
Exports of miscellaneous items	16,900	23,971
Export total	103,828	121,425
Stocks of yarns	*24,310	*1,296
Stocks of tissues	*3,720	*3,596
Domestic demand	144,982	118,558
Total demand	248,810	239,983
(*) down		
(Note: tissues converted into yarns at rate of 0.18 pound per 1 sq. yd.)		

DOMESTIC DEMAND FOR ARTIFICIAL SILK

(In 1,000 lbs.)

	1938	1939
Production of yarns	209,876	238,340
Imports of yarns	10	—

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

Staple Fiber Demand The domestic supply of staple fiber last year totalled 259,640,000 pounds, down by about 30 per cent from the preceding year. Production for domestic consumption fell by about 20 per cent, while the output for export was more than twice as large as in 1938. The ratio of export items to total production in the staple fiber industry last year was far smaller than in the artificial silk industry. In the total production, export staple fiber accounted for only 10 per cent, tissues for 4 per cent and yarns for 4 per cent, making a total of only 18 per cent of the total domestic production, a situation far different from that in the artificial silk industry where more than one-half was exported. Relative figures follow:

SUPPLY-DEMAND OF STAPLE FIBER
(In 1,000 lbs.)

	1938	1939
Staple fiber production	387,928	317,097
Exports	25,934	57,454
Staple fiber exports	289	32,843
Yarn exports	10,556	12,539
Tissue exports	15,089	12,072
Balance (For domestic use)	361,994	259,643

(Note: tissues converted into yarn at rate of 0.25 pound per 1 sq. yd.)

Estimating that staple fiber accounted for 50 per cent of the yarns mixed with other fibers and that 95 per cent of the resultant products were actually consumed at home, the following figures may be obtained:

ESTIMATED CONSUMPTION OF STAPLE FIBER
(In 1,000 lbs.)

	1938	1939
Pure staple fiber yarns	367,778	191,067
Staple fiber yarns mixed with other fibers	124,549	58,422
Total	492,327	249,489

Thus, it is seen that the domestic consumption of staple fiber last year totalled 249,000,000 pounds, including 191,000,000 pounds used for manufacturing pure staple fiber yarns and 58,000,000 pounds used for mixing with other fibers, declining by about 50 per cent from the 1938 consumption of 492,000,000 pounds.

In a word, the rayon industry last year continued comparatively prosperous, while the staple fiber industry, though belonging to the same artificial fibers family, suffered greatly.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF WOOD PULP FOR RAYON

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

	Supply (In metric tons)			Demand		
	Production	Imports	Total	Rayon	Staple Fiber	Cellophane Total
1935	33,435	126,351	159,786	112,227	5,576	3,011 120,814
1936	55,209	169,368	224,577	152,263	29,410	4,299 185,972
1937	57,294	290,599	347,892	181,222	97,933	7,970 287,125
1938	103,353	114,112	217,465	—	—	— 321,852
1939 (Estimated)	160,000	141,799	301,799	—	—	— —

IMPORTS OF PULP FOR FIBER BY ORIGIN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

From	Quantity (Unit: picul)			Value (Unit: ¥1,000)		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
U.S.A.	2,603,407	3,185,610	872,310	31,758	49,181	15,111
Sweden	952,184	2,060,596	420,803	9,735	26,993	6,276
Norway	944,566	1,025,406	307,269	14,621	17,071	5,400
Canada	469,888	879,390	284,278	4,150	12,619	5,046
Finland	524,417	639,770	211,921	6,401	9,497	3,339
Czechoslovakia	29,328	71,816	8,538	391	1,157	132
Total including others	5,528,532	7,901,727	2,386,181	67,107	116,720	41,059

Woollen Industry

Since 1937 the woollen industry in Japan has been placed under strict State control. On the one hand the imports of wool is restricted under the Foreign Exchange Control Law and on the other hand the manufacture of woollen goods for general domestic use is sacrificed in favor of those for military use and for exports.

Formerly serges and woollen cloth made in Japan were used mostly in this country in place of the imported ones, but now the manufacturers are producing them for export purposes.

At the end of 1938 compulsory curtailment was necessitated by virtue of an order for restricting the manufacture of woollen goods. According to orders issued in April and May 1939 the card system was introduced to regulate the supply of woollen yarns; now it is functioning properly. The outbreak of the second European war shed a hopeful light on the woollen industry in Japan, but the consumption in foreign countries has not yet shown the expected increase. On the other hand, unfavorable conditions appeared in this country because of the State restrictions and the shortage in the supply of labor and fuel to the factories.

The production of wool in Japan is insignificant and more than 90 per cent of the wool consumed in Japan was imported. However, in 1936 commercial friction between Japan and Australia slashed the volume of imports from that country at one-third, and imports from South Africa, South America and China have increased accordingly as shown in the following tables.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF WOOLLEN YARN

(In 1,000 pounds)

	Production by Assocat-ed Co's.	Imports	Total	Exports	Balance
1931	77,586	9,550	87,136	698	86,438
1932	89,660	3,219	92,879	1,249	91,630
1933	101,361	1,638	102,999	3,168	99,831
1934	103,145	919	104,064	5,919	98,145
1935	112,775	1,088	113,863	5,319	108,544
1936	123,263	934	124,197	7,141	117,056
1937	125,072	576	125,648	7,402	118,246
1938	88,784	84	88,868	7,847	81,021
1939	147,181	0	147,181	8,417	138,765

Note: The balance represents domestic consumption.

IMPORTS OF RAW WOOL:

	Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000		Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000
1930	115,999	73,919	1936	221,382	204,342
1931	191,374	86,518	1937	261,182	299,500
1932	206,858	88,321	1938	117,895	96,312
1933	242,620	165,818	1939	107,497	74,473
1934	184,379	187,667			
1935	247,275	193,092			

Note: (1) Including tops and goat and camel hair.

IMPORTS OF SHEEP'S WOOL BY ORIGIN

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

From	Quantity (Unit: picul)	Value (Unit: ¥1,000)	From	Quantity (Unit: picul)	Value (Unit: ¥1,000)
Yen-bloc	1936	5,953	China	1937	1937
China	5,953	65,498	Manchoukuo	1938	202,859
Manchoukuo	2,984	44,000	Third countries	1939	185,452
Third countries	2,969	21,458	Australia	1936	17,407
Australia	1,947,882	816,431	New Zealand	1937	598,829
New Zealand	737,195	591,136	Union of South Africa	1938	512,149
Union of South Africa	298,050	85,671	Argentina	1939	48,855
Argentina	559,015	39,666	Great Britain	1936	14,372
Great Britain	126,548	55,265	Total including others	1937	8,169
Total including others	6,252	3,716		1938	17,713
	1,953,835	881,889		1939	4,179
					1,073
					677
					618
					72,590

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

WOOLLEN YARN AND TEXTILE MANUFACTURING FACILITIES

(At the end of the year)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Number of woollen textile factories	1,178	1,226	1,421	1,528	1,648	1,650
Number of weaving machines	26,923	27,162	29,421	31,220	30,317	28,311
Number of operatives	41,311	44,347	47,142	50,046	49,890	47,288
Number of worsted spindles ¹	667,390	763,878	873,066	991,140	1,127,802	1,169,126
Number of weaving machines ¹	9,871	10,257	10,248	10,261	7,868	7,829
Number of woollen spindles ¹	88,403	91,272	97,917	119,048	121,114	134,687

Note: ¹ Only member companies of the Woollen Industrial Association.

PRODUCTION OF WOOLLEN TEXTILES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Muslin		Flannel		Serge for Japanese Clothes	
	Quantity in meters	Value in yen	Quantity in meters	Value in yen	Quantity in meters	Value in yen
1936	99,935,993	47,077,830	2,511,902	2,985,476	22,922,705	23,297,322
1937	59,877,557	29,779,752	2,655,534	3,903,127	26,946,554	28,163,978
1938	26,303,788	15,868,154	2,721,379	5,116,903	27,798,949	28,380,897
1939	—	357,000	—	—	—	15,580,000
1940	—	305,000	—	—	—	1,967,000

Year	Serge for Foreign Clothes		Woollen Cloth		Blankets (including travelling rugs)	
	Quantity in meters	Value in yen	Quantity in meters	Value in yen	Quantity in meters	Value in yen
1936	63,840,711	180,491,190	15,306,305	43,541,494	2,803,726	10,912,980
1937	66,027,071	169,152,963	18,434,104	58,774,401	2,950,069	12,892,153
1938	56,528,115	162,895,714	21,079,679	78,018,254	2,663,553	13,654,940
1939	—	144,924,000	—	56,945,000	—	18,889,000
1940	—	100,805,000	—	76,301,000	—	5,486,000

Year	Carpets		Rugs		Plush and Velvet		Others		Total	
	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen
1936	381,474	230,903	—	—	1,416,589	29,521,825	—	—	339,857,083	—
1937	952,367	231,527	—	—	2,741,100	21,418,317	—	—	328,009,685	—
1938	670,359	260,958	—	—	3,049,401	39,592,129	—	—	347,507,709	—
1939	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	339,797,000	—
1940	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	266,476,000	—

Note: This table is revised according to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the figures of which differ from those in the "Factory Statistics," because the former includes production by small factories where less than 5 persons are employed:

EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN TEXTILES BY KIND

	1937	1938	1939		1937	1938	1939
Muslin				Value in ¥1,000	41,229	35,367	40,588
Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	1,573	1,122	1,117	Total including others			
Value in ¥1,000	1,024	749	661	Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	35,058	28,071	—
Cloth and Serge				Value in ¥1,000	50,082	46,845	51,821
Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	28,212	20,812	20,034				

Hemp Industry

Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the Government has come to attach great importance to the hemp industry, and has placed hemp factories as well as the distribution of raw materials and finished products under military control. Naturally, the supply of hemp products for private consumption has fallen for short of the demand, while the value of hemp fiber for strengthening miscellaneous substitute fibers has been more strongly recognized than ever. It is accustomed to think of hemp as hard and stiff, hardly connecting it with the soft and charming touch of some linens, a way of thinking that has greatly influenced the flax industry of Japan, as proved by the excessive inclination of the military to turn to flax. Hemp is many and various in kinds. In addition to Oasa (commonly called hemp) and ramie, there is jute, from which Hessian cloths and gunny bags are manufactured; Manila hemp, for making fishing nets and other nets; flax, which serves as the principal material for the linen industry; Nanking hemp, imported from China and Maoran hemp, produced in New Zealand. In the early days of the Meiji era, the hemp industry was greatly neglected because of the remarkable advance of the cotton industry, and its progress was slow. Yet, at the time just preceding the outbreak of the China Affair, Japan was self-sufficient in flax and Oasa hemp, though dependent largely on China and India for the supply of jute. Manila hemp was completely supplied from the districts surrounding Manila. The manufacturers of Japan have found it advisable to produce thick yarns instead of fine ones, and have specialized mostly in this line for manufacturing export hemp materials and fishing-net yarns, besides finding a favorable market with the military and manufacturers of export goods. Ramie concerns, especially, have devoted themselves to the production of thicker yarns, and concentrated on export ramie materials and fishing-net yarns.

Hemp Industry Under Wartime Situation Hemp fiber, which was more or less neglected in the past, has, through the stringency of supply of other fibers, now come to the fore, especially in military quarters. Because of the suspension of imports of ramie materials from China and the supply of jute and

other hemp materials from other parts of the world since the outbreak of the European War, supplies have become very low, but domestic production is now being pushed to overcome any deficiency, and little worry is being felt by the industrialists concerned as there is also an abundant supply of hemp plants along the banks of the Yulu and other rivers and lakes in China, though at present, the available raw materials in China and Manchoukuo are under the control of the military, and are almost exclusively supplied to the Imperial Hemp Company and Nichiman (Japan-Manchoukuo) Flax Company. It is considered, however, that after the restoration of peace and order in those regions, unlimited supplies can be imported. The production of hemp is shown by the following tables:

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION OF HEMP
(In 1,000 Kan)

Years	Japan Proper	Chosen	Taiwan	Total Production
1926	11,310	6,065	1,322	18,696
1927	4,891	5,867	1,282	12,040
1928	6,231	5,710	1,489	13,430
1929	7,114	5,544	1,314	13,973
1930	6,733	5,353	1,352	13,437
1931	6,859	5,444	1,283	13,587
1932	5,630	5,492	1,455	12,577
1933	8,706	5,484	1,635	15,825
1934	10,327	5,026	2,795	18,148
1935	9,597	5,291	3,649	18,537
1936	9,846	4,966	2,742	17,554
1937	9,840	5,666	2,840	17,409
1938	16,985	5,460	3,953	26,398

PRODUCTION OF HEMP BY
KINDS IN 1938

(In 1,000 Kan)

	Japan Proper	Chosen	Taiwan	Total
Flax	13,680	1,084	—	14,764
Hemp	2,383	4,255	—	6,638
Jute	333	1	3,746	4,080
Ramie	589	89	207	885
Blue hemp	—	31	—	31
Total	16,985	5,460	3,953	26,398

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

HEMP INDUSTRIAL PLANTS, MACHINES AND OPERATIVES

1928-1938

Years	Plants	Machines	Operatives	Year	Plants	Machines	Operatives
1929	15,316	21,871	21,940	1934	12,062	18,413	18,679
1930	14,222	20,704	21,261	1935	10,926	17,854	19,313
1931	14,375	20,414	20,519	1936	10,880	17,315	18,371
1932	13,821	19,192	19,593	1937	9,352	17,055	19,091
1933	12,775	18,139	18,675	1938	8,229	17,382	18,006

PRODUCTION OF HEMP TISSUES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of Looms	No. of Operatives	Broad Weave	Narrow Weave	Others	Total
	(At the end of year)					(Unit: ¥1,000)	
1930	14,222	20,708	21,281	6,131	5,500	2,991	14,623
1931	14,375	20,414	20,519	6,118	5,363	1,954	13,436
1932	13,821	19,192	19,593	8,002	6,279	1,299	15,580
1933	12,775	18,139	18,679	7,550	5,728	2,197	15,477
1934	12,062	18,413	18,675	9,530	7,116	1,868	18,515
1935	10,926	17,854	19,313	10,686	7,052	2,481	20,220
1936	10,880	17,315	18,371	12,533	5,115	2,203	19,851
1937	9,352	17,055	19,091	18,567	5,116	3,295	26,978
1938	8,229	17,382	18,006	26,795	6,217	3,247	36,259

Hosiery

In 1938, hosieries produced underwears, stockings, gloves, etc. to the amount of ¥118,891,464. The production

of underwears reached 7,242,068 dozens valued at ¥48,782,440; stockings 13,533,674 dozens valued at ¥29,395,601; gloves 6,392,539 dozens valued at ¥14,467,117.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION BY HOSIERIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Mills	No. of Operatives	Value of Products
	(At the end of year)		(In ¥1,000)
1933	5,243	38,241	73,476
1934	5,853	41,658	85,632
1935	6,198	45,605	84,931
1936	6,250	46,947	91,551
1937	6,776	51,332	115,501
1938	6,437	49,039	118,891

Dyeing and Bleaching

In 1938, bleaching houses earned ¥46,916,557. In the same year dyeing houses

earned ¥168,921,654, consisting of ¥78,976,280 for dyeing cloth, ¥77,000,063 for printing and ¥12,945,311 for dyeing miscellaneous articles.

EARNINGS OF DYEING AND BLEACHING HOUSES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	No. of Bleaching Houses	No. of Operatives	Earnings	No. of Dyeing Houses	No. of Operatives	Earnings
	(At the end of year)		(In ¥1,000)	(At the end of year)		(In ¥1,000)
1933	521	6,350	19,336	11,659	57,674	105,193
1934	578	8,031	17,099	11,613	61,776	120,795
1935	632	8,114	19,822	11,570	65,986	134,107
1936	619	9,432	22,795	11,784	74,580	168,676
1937	571	9,496	24,545	11,778	75,757	168,934
1938	579	7,360	46,916	10,774	68,126	168,921

Operative
18,679
19,313
15,371
19,091
18,006

Total

14,828
13,438
15,555
15,477
18,315
20,227
19,873
26,877
26,573

19,000
18,500
18,000
17,500

13

15
14
13

CHAPTER XIX

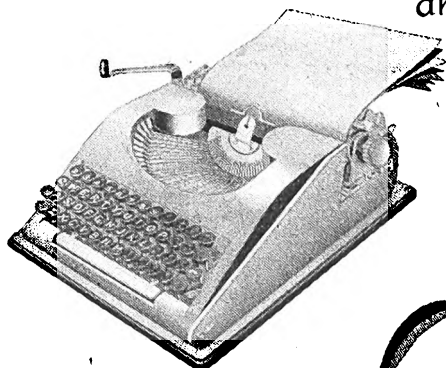
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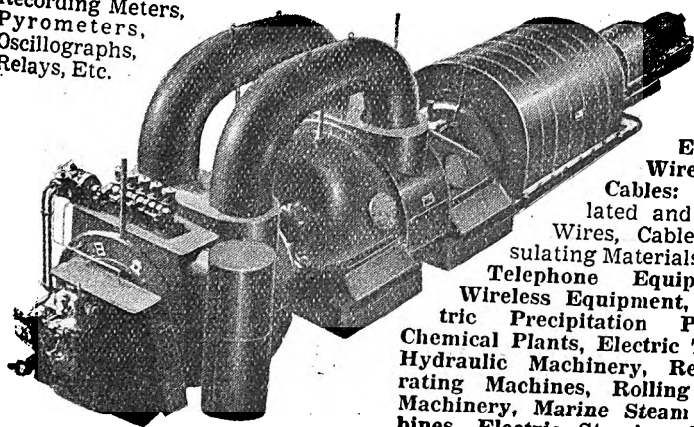
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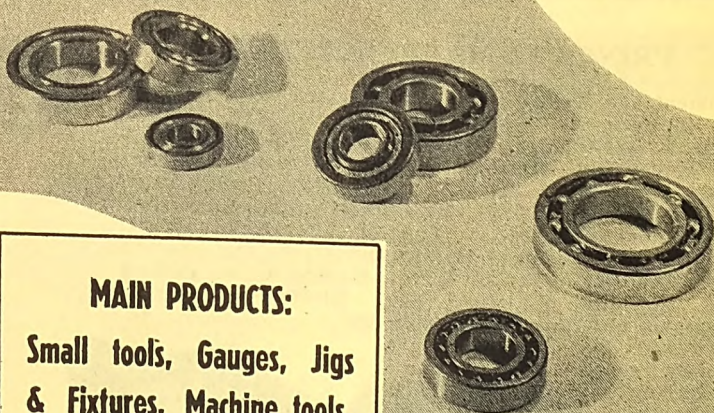


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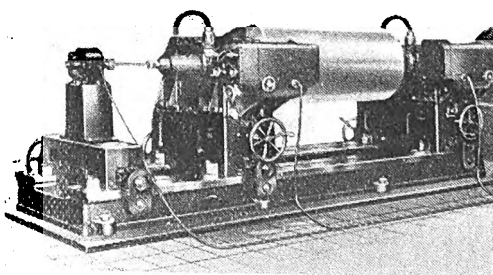
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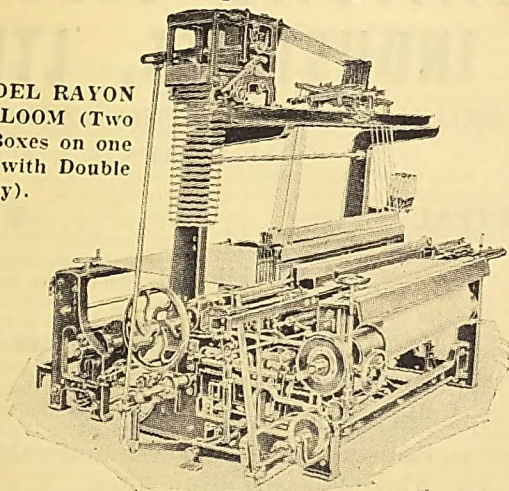
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CHAPTER XIX

MACHINERY AND ENGINEERING

Machinery

Introduction

The manufacture of machinery in Japan started after the Restoration. The progress at first was very slow, and it was only after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 that the public began to take any real interest in investments in this kind of industry. Improvement was gradually being made before the Great War, but with the outbreak of war the situation completely changed. Prior to the War Japan had to import large quantities of machinery, but during the War imports were stopped, and a great stimulus was thereby given to home production. During the war years Japan became able to supply not only most of her own needs, but also some of those of foreign countries. Factories for manufacturing arms and various kinds of machinery, as well as shipbuilding-yards, were established in many parts of the country, and these profited both financially and in the experience they acquired in skilled mechanical work of various kinds. The great boom in shipbuilding stimulated the establishment of many new works for turning out engines and other equipment for steamers, while the difficulty of obtaining imported machines for spinning, weaving, papermaking, etc., caused a rapid establishment of new works for their manufacture. This cutting off of imports also served to encourage the manufacture of motors, electrical machinery, automobiles and aeroplanes. With the great post-war slump, naval disarmament, general depression the world over, embargo on gold, high tariffs, and all the other ills from which industry suffered the machinery production industry was heavily hit. The outbreak of trouble in Manchuria in September 1931, and the military operations which followed, created a new demand for arms, while the reimposition of the gold embargo, and subsequent decline of the value of the yen served to revive the industry.

Recent Developments in the Machinery Industry

The first World War gave the initial impetus to Japan's machinery industry, but in company with other trades it saw a setback during the business depression of 1930-31. The Manchurian Incident and the present China Affair, however, proved fresh stimuli, and with the transition from light to heavy industry to meet the increasing military demand and productivity expansion drive the machinery industry has become the most important of all national industries. Japan's machinery industry is extremely wide-scaled, its products ranging from machine-tools, steam engines, Diesel engines, chemical industrial machinery, electric appliances, spinning machines and mining machinery to medical instruments and rolling stock, so that today, Japan manufactures almost all kinds of machines she needs at home, and exports a certain amount to foreign markets, principally to the yen bloc.

Machinery and Tools in 1941 The machinery and tools industry in Japan was well in the course of reorganization during 1941. A special feature of Japan's machinery industry where large-scale industrial plants account for a large part of production while smaller-scale factories dominated in number has long been a cardinal cause for drastic reorganization in machinery circles.

Close on the heels of the clarification of the machinery and steel products industrial repletion policy toward the close of 1940, the Government, early in 1941, submitted to the 76th session of the Diet the Important Machinery Industrial Bill and the Machine Tools Industrial Bill. The two laws, promulgated in April and March, 1941, respectively, took effect as from November, 1941. The former law subjected the important machinery industries to a Government licensing system and provided for various special privileges for such industries including the exemption of taxes for specified machinery industries, use of specified

land, etc. The latter law carried the similar provisions as the former regarding the production of machine tools. Thus, the reorganization of the machinery and tools industry took a concrete step forward.

On October 30, the Government decided to suggest the creation of five machinery control associations, one for each industry, namely, manufacturing machinery, electric machinery and tools, precision machinery, automobiles, and rolling-stock. Decision was also reached

to establish control council as an exclusive control and liaison organ for the foregoing five machinery bodies. All those measures were taken in order to properly reorganize Japan's machinery industry through the well-controlled distribution of raw materials to more important industrial plants and the adjustment of small-scale plants for the purpose of stabilizing a self-sufficiency structure to cope with the suspension of imports.

GROWTH OF NUMBER OF OPERATIVES IN MACHINERY INDUSTRY

Years	(a) Total Number of Operatives in all Industries (Unit: 1,000)	(b) Number of Operatives in Machinery Industry	Ratio of (b) against (a) (Percentage)
1930	1,684	168	10.0
1931	1,662	158	9.5
1932	1,734	195	11.2
1933	1,901	249	13.1
1934	2,163	315	14.6
1935	2,369	367	15.5
1936	2,593	457	17.6
1937	2,937	602	20.5
1938	3,201	847	26.4
1939	3,766	1,126	29.9

INCREASE IN NUMBER OF MACHINERY FACTORIES

1929-1938

Years	(a) Total Number of Industrial Factories	(b) Number of Machinery Factories	Ratio of (b) against (a) (Percentage)
1930	62,234	5,604	9.0
1931	64,436	5,850	9.1
1932	67,318	6,738	10.0
1933	71,940	7,850	10.9
1934	80,311	9,181	11.4
1935	85,174	10,354	12.2
1936	90,602	11,766	13.0
1937	106,005	14,636	13.8
1938	112,329	17,576	15.6
1939	137,422	23,067	16.7

The recent expansion of investments in joint-stock companies, inclusive of limited partnerships, and the increase in the number of machinery companies is remarkable. At the end of 1939, the total amount of paid-up capital of the machinery companies aggregated ¥4,000,000,000. In the first half of 1939,

the number of machinery concerns was more than doubled and the total amount of paid-up capital increased four and a half times, compared with the second half of 1938. In that period, some 70 machinery firms expanded their capital. Production in the machinery industry also jumped in 1939, as shown below:

EXPANSION OF PRODUCTION IN MACHINERY INDUSTRY

1929-1938

(In millions of yen)

Years	(a) Total Industrial Production	(b) Production in Machinery Industry	Ratio of (b) against (a) (Percentage)
1930	5,963	695	11.7
1931	5,175	498	9.6
1932	5,982	599	10.0
1933	7,871	888	11.3
1934	9,390	1,159	12.3
1935	10,837	1,463	13.5
1936	12,258	2,716	14.0
1937	16,356	2,557	15.6
1938	19,487	3,801	19.5
1939	24,360	5,421	22.2

Note:—In regard to the minutes of the production in the machinery industry see pp. 476-482, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42.

NUMBER OF COMPANIES AND AMOUNT OF CAPITAL IN MACHINERY INDUSTRY

	General Machinery Industry	Electric Machinery	Engines	Ship-building	Rolling Stock	Machine Tools	Metal Items	Total (including others)
No. of companies at end of 1939	1,468	595	94	88	198	616	1,564	4,683
Combined authorized capital at end of 1939 (a)	1,003	644	99	386	480	413	1,723	4,801
Combined paid-up capital at end of 1939 (a)	764	502	68	309	480	413	1,723	4,801
New companies established:								
2nd half, 1938	171	40	6	4	6	66	151	459
1st half, 1939	372	86	16	5	18	115	334	958
Increase	201	46	10	1	12	49	183	495
Authorized capital of newly-established companies:								
2nd half, '38 (b)	50,021	5,555	550	1,515	2,245	17,124	36,841	116,788
1st half, '39 (b)	123,951	14,676	1,985	792	32,518	98,906	303,954	381,591
Increase (b)	73,930	9,121	1,435	*723	30,273	81,782	267,103	464,803
Paid-up capital of newly-established companies:								
2nd half, '38 (b)	33,550	4,705	412	1,515	1,262	9,882	24,259	77,735
1st half, '39 (b)	87,765	10,511	1,755	433	19,806	61,445	167,836	351,937
Increase (b)	54,215	5,806	1,343	*1,082	18,544	51,563	143,577	274,202

MACHINERY AND ENGINEERING

	General Machinery Industry	Elec- tric Ma- chinery	En- gines	Ship- building	Rolling Stock	Machine Tools	Metal Items	Total (including others)
Capital expansion:								
Companies, 2nd half, 1938	69	19	4	3	12	15	93	216
Companies, 1st half, 1939	88	38	7	4	7	38	104	286
Increase	19	19	3	1	*5	23	11	70
Increase in capi- tal authorized:								
2nd half, '38 (b)	72,692	14,433	4,695	3,607	26,375	19,228	86,099	231,880
1st half, '39 (b)	65,040	112,333	3,645	2,400	25,200	22,236	75,088	305,942
Increase (b)	*7,652	97,900	*1,050	*1,207	*1,175	3,008	*11,011	74,062
Increased capital paid-up:								
2nd half, '38 (b)	33,362	5,959	1,645	3,357	7,875	5,433	34,496	1,187
1st half, '39 (b)	33,858	34,633	3,645	1,325	7,075	9,732	35,855	126,123
Increase (b)	496	28,674	2,000	*2,032	*800	4,299	1,359	32,807
Shareholders' pay- ments:								
Companies, 2nd half, 1938	65	35	10	8	12	14	72	220
Companies, 1st half, 1939	113	33	9	4	12	42	117	333
Increase	48	*2	*1	*4	—	28	45	113
Shareholders' pay- ments:								
Amount, 2nd half, '38 (b)	19,445	19,801	3,790	4,557	14,432	16,988	56,294	136,265
Amount, 1st half, '39 (b)	47,349	11,994	6,815	17,072	18,550	9,233	78,999	190,148
Increase (b)	27,904	*7,807	3,055	12,515	4,118	*7,755	22,705	53,883
(a) In millions of yen.	(Note: Survey by the Hypothec Bank of Japan).							
(b) In ¥1,000.								

BUSINESS RESULTS OF MAJOR MACHINERY MANUFACTURING COMPANIES

(Compiled by the Industrial Bank of Japan)

	Number of Companies Investigated	Paid-up Capital (¥1,000)	Rate of Dividend (%)	Rate of Reserves (%)	Rate of Profit against Paid-up Capital (%)
1937:					
First half	105	378,328	8.8	44	17.3
Second half	135	483,253	9.3	41	17.7
1938:					
First half	157	601,255	8.6	45	17.5
Second half	174	707,290	8.7	45	18.2
1939:					
First half	191	858,274	8.5	48	18.7
Second half	191	1,032,252	8.6	51	19.8
1940:					
First half	191	1,195,146	8.2	50	19.0
Second half	205	1,400,510	8.4	49	18.7

Aircraft

Introduction Captain Tokugawa was the first pilot to fly a heavier than air machine in Japan. This was in 1910. The manufacture of aircraft was commenced in the Army and Navy arsenals and manufacture under licence was carried out by private companies. In this way the manufacture of aeroplanes was greatly encouraged and military and naval aircraft can now be satisfactorily manufactured in the country.

History Dr. Ichita Kishi, a physician constructed at his own expense various workshops in his own residence at Tsukiji, Tokyo, and, in 1914, with the help of several expert engineers, succeeded in constructing an aeroplane engine, the first to be manufactured in this country. A trial flight of the aeroplane using this engine was very successful, so he manufactured his second aeroplane in 1916. In 1917, Mr. Nakajima, a retired engineer captain of the Navy, manufactured various kinds of aeroplane with the help of Messrs. Mohei Ishikawa and Seibei Kawanishi. In 1920, the Aichi Tokai Denki Kaisha, Ltd. (Aichi Clock Electric Machinery Co., Ltd.) established an aeroplane department and in the same year turned out a seaplane. From that time this department has developed rapidly. In 1921, the Kawanishi Machine Company established an aeroplane factory in Hyogo, and started the manufacture of seaplanes in 1923. Also, in 1921, the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., brought nine experts in aeroplane manufacturing from Great Britain and began to manufacture both aeroplanes and engines on a large scale. The Kawasaki Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., following in the steps of the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., began manufacturing aeroplanes in 1922.

During the period immediately after World War I American and Swiss accessories for airplane engines were mostly used in this country, but German accessories especially those of the Robert Bosch Company, later on took over the lead, and have greatly influenced further developments in this important line. During recent years the Japanese industries made great strides in the manufacture of accessories, and are supplying the majority of requirements in the airplane industry. A close relationship, however, continues to exist between the German accessory industries such as

Bosch, especially regarding airplane engines, and the activities of the Japanese industries.

Present State of the Industry The aircraft manufacturing industry has shown considerable activity in recent years. Aside from military requirements, manufacturers have received good orders from public bodies who have raised subscriptions to donate aeroplanes to the army and navy. Japanese manufactured civil planes have had many successes of late and orders have been coming in for these. Manufacturers of aircrafts at present are as follows:

MANUFACTURES OF AIRCRAFT

Year	Makers of Bodies and Motors	Makers of Balloons and Airships
1930	6	3
1931	7	2
1932	7	2
1933	8	2
1934	8	2
1935	8	2
1936	9	2

Automobile Manufacturing

History The first automobile to be manufactured in Japan was by the Tokyo Motor Car Works, under the management of Mr. S. Yoshida, in the year 1909, but until the present progress has been very slow. In 1910, several military motor cars were manufactured for the Army in the Osaka Arsenal, and in 1911, the Tokyo Automobile Factory commenced the manufacture of "DAT" cars.

The Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., Ltd., began to manufacture military automobiles "T.G.E." in 1916, and trucks in 1917. In 1918, the Military Automobile Subsidy Act was put into force and this company was the first to get a subsidy from the Army Ministry under the act. In 1920 the Tokyo Ishikawajima Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., began to manufacture passenger cars. Companies other than the above which are making automobiles are Hakuyosha, Ltd., and the Oriental Automobile Co.

Note: Conditions of aircraft and automobile industries since 1937 are not made public.

Passenger Cars The "Atsuta-go," modelled after the Nash and White, and from this year, the "Nissan" are the only passenger cars manufactured in Japan aside from the baby cars.

Buses and Trucks Bus and truck manufacturing is slightly better than passenger car making. The "Chiyoda" manufactured by the Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., and the "Sumida" made by the Jidosha Kogyo Kaisha have long histories. These companies are also jointly making the "Isuzu," designed by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. These three classes of buses and trucks are supplied to the market in considerable numbers. Kyodo Koku-sai Jidosha, which was established in 1933 by these two companies, is selling domestic trucks and buses of five classes. The Mitsubishi Heavy Industry Co., Ltd. is making the large-sized bus "Fuso-go" at its Kobé plant, the Kawasaki Sharyo Kaisha, Ltd. the truck and bus "Rokko."

Baby Cars and Motor Cycles Small motor cars are defined, in dimensions and power, by the "Regulations of Motor Cars" and include such small-sized cars as the "Datsun" car, rear cars, etc. Rear cars have made a marvellous development in Japan as a means of carrying small parcels. Their production totals 15,000 a year, for they are not

only in use throughout Japan but are exported to Manchoukuo, the South Sea Islands, etc. The sales of small-sized cars like the "Datsun," are rapidly increasing.

Accessories and Parts Accessories and parts of motor cars used in Japan were almost exclusively of American make before replacement of the embargo on gold in 1931. Owing to the low exchange rate which followed thereafter their importation became very difficult and domestic makes took their place. At present, there is no importation of any article for motor cars from America.

Regarding electric and Diesel-accessories for passenger cars, trucks, and combustion engines of all kinds, the products manufactured by the Robert Bosch Company in Germany, since the early twenties, are holding a unique place in this country. It is safe to say that the engineering advice rendered by Bosch experts, and the reputed reliability of Bosch products have resulted in their practically unanimous adoption by the Japanese truck and car-industries, be it in the form of imported original products, or in the form of exact copies by licenced and other Japanese Companies, especially since the tightening of the import control due to the new exchange laws of 1937.

PRODUCTION OF AUTOMOBILES AND MOTOR CYCLES

(Value in yen)

Year	Imported Parts Assembled		Others		Accessories and Parts	Total	Motor Cars	
	No.	Value	No.	Value	Value	Value	No.	Value
1930	20,596	34,903,822	1,254	3,626,252	4,493,958	43,024,032	793	413,808
1931	19,935	32,099,506	971	2,576,231	6,535,494	41,211,231	1,451	826,320
1932	13,853	28,869,297	710	4,748,608	6,095,992	39,703,897	2,113	1,619,279
1933	14,373	37,690,059	1,657	8,493,251	10,960,059	58,143,369	4,613	3,651,570
1934	29,889	75,955,529	2,770	15,671,197	22,736,076	114,362,802	7,750	6,029,283
1935	27,021	69,928,985	5,307	22,908,967	28,234,962	121,072,914	8,845	7,342,114

Imports of Automobiles In 1914 imports barely amounted to ¥500,000, but by 1929, they amounted to ¥30,000,000. Owing to the depression there was a drop to ¥20,000,000 in 1930, and to ¥14,-

000,000 in 1933. The figures then took an upward course, rising to ¥32,302,000 in 1934, ¥32,589,000 in 1935, ¥37,036,000 in 1936, and ¥30,682,000 in the first half of 1937.

BICYCLE MANUFACTURING

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IMPORTS OF AUTOMOBILES AND ACCESSORIES

(Value in yen)

Year	No. of Automobiles	Value	Value of Accessories	Total Value
1930	2,591	4,896,992		
1931	1,887	3,378,000	15,178,000	20,773,000
1932	997	2,894,000	12,951,000	16,329,000
1933	491	1,864,392	11,927,000	14,821,000
1934	896	3,357,061	12,517,753	14,382,145
1935	943	3,302,241	28,945,163	32,302,224
1936	1,117	3,577,000	29,387,106	32,589,347
1937 (Jan.-July)	895	3,009,000	33,459,000	37,036,000
			27,673,000	30,682,000

Note: Details of conditions of the industry and the trade in automobiles are not published since 1937.

Bicycle Manufacturing

History A bicycle was first introduced into Japan in 1881 by an Englishman. In 1889, an American brought a bicycle with him from America. In 1904, frames and other accessories were imported from Great Britain, and the making of bicycles at a lower cost became comparatively easy and bicycles became very popular.

Before 1913, accessories other than saddles, rims, and chains were being manufactured at home. Factories capable of manufacturing these latter articles on a large scale did not exist and it was impossible for small scale producers to compete against foreign products. From 1913 on, however, the demand for bicycles increased at great speed, and as the manufacturing of each of the above parts on a large scale became possible, bicycles came to be produced at a very low cost, though until the World War, those manufactured in Japan could not compete with European-made ones. During the War, the art of manufacturing advanced so much that domestic bicycles could well compete in both quality and price with imported ones, and not only were home demands satisfied, but the Japanese product was exported to China, Russia, India and other countries.

Conditions Suitable for Bicycles Conditions in this country are well suited to the use of this vehicle. The factors which have made for the increased demand are:

- (1) Individual wealth is comparatively small and the use of automobiles has not yet become universal.
- (2) Roads are mostly too narrow,

though greatly improved of late, to take automobiles.

(3) The making of bicycles, especially accessories like rims, is purely artisans' work, and is a type of work in which the Japanese manufacturers excel.

PRODUCTION OF BICYCLES IN JAPAN

(Value in yen)

Year	No. Produced	Value	Value of Accessories Produced
1930	136,985	2,790,331	12,208,374
1931	105,088	2,022,013	13,747,235
1932	63,988	1,315,748	20,666,605
1933	118,405	2,164,804	26,396,495
1934	152,920	2,542,376	34,462,225
1935	90,885	2,260,889	38,889,853
1936	145,791	5,210,056	44,044,488
1937	138,895	2,977,815	50,889,157
1938	92,084	4,528,251	48,534,553

The principal places of production are Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi, Hyogo, Gifu and Fukuoka prefectures.

Imports and exports of cycles and accessories since 1930 are as follows:

Year	Imports (In yen)	Exports
1930	1,563,000	5,274,000
1931	1,153,000	7,119,000
1932	795,000	6,028,000
1933	619,000	12,114,000
1934	73,308	18,904,257
1935	85,545	17,436,446
1936	27,000	20,575,000
1937	—	23,451,000
1938	—	13,650,000
1939	—	18,063,000

Note:—Tyres are not included.

SHIPBUILDING

Introduction

The mercantile shipbuilding industry in Japan developed with the shipping business, while the development of warship building was mainly due to the urgent demands created by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars.

Owing to the construction of new vessels to be placed on subsidized lines, easy money and low interest rates, the shipbuilding industry which had been depressed since the close of the World War, revived and boomed temporarily in 1928. Tonnage output, which in 1919 amounted to as much as 674,000 tons, dropped to 53,000 tons in 1926. This was increased to 112,583 tons in 1928 and to 167,365 tons in 1929. However, as the improvement was brought about artificially and not by general improvements in economic conditions, the industry soon became dull again,

and was further depressed by the enforcement of the conditions of the London Disarmament Agreement. Naval orders to private shipbuilding companies were reduced by 30%, which, together with the decreased orders from private transportation companies reduced the 1931 output to 84,004 tons and in 1932 to 58,763 tons.

Owing, however, to the subsidies granted by the Ministry of Communications since 1932 for the improvement of steamers, the shipbuilding industry has been fairly active. The subsidies were granted with an aim of constructing 200,000 tons of new steamers, and closed at the end of March 1935. In addition to this, due to the low exchange rate, enquiries for steamers are forthcoming from Brazil, Thailand, Italy, France, Sweden, Soviet Russia, Manchoukuo, China, etc. (See Chapter XXVI, Sea Transportation.)

PRODUCTION OF VESSELS

(Value in yen)

Year	Steel Vessels		Ships Other Classes		Total Value	Fittings of Ships
	No.	Value	No.	Value		
1930	269	111,590,483	2,376	3,547,239	115,137,722	807,727
1931	245	34,991,786	1,840	3,184,897	38,176,683	638,378
1932	509	44,224,579	1,987	1,880,400	45,104,979	475,363
1933	335	37,208,750	2,558	2,767,288	38,976,038	316,170
1934	277	53,481,053	2,588	3,994,369	57,475,422	448,353
1935	328	81,875,746	2,234	4,875,522	86,751,268	836,511
1936	355	104,184,841	2,864	6,541,823	110,926,664	949,253
1937	581	208,820,307	4,578	16,503,625	225,323,932	2,472,764
1938	—	—	—	—	—	829,049

NUMBER OF DOCKYARDS, EMPLOYING MORE THAN 5 PERSONS
AND THOSE EMPLOYED

End of	Dockyards	Officials	Technicians	Operatives	Others	Total
1930	—	2,224	3,002	38,036	3,675	46,937
1931	—	2,053	2,805	33,439	1,207	39,514
1932	—	1,832	2,495	33,611	1,262	39,200
1933	360	2,069	2,677	39,068	1,878	45,692
1934	394	2,267	3,026	50,116	1,520	56,929
1935	395	2,302	3,416	53,918	1,692	61,328
1936	444	2,636	3,520	70,053	2,046	78,255
1937	559	3,874	5,019	89,736	2,532	101,161

Note: The publication of figures for most of the items has ceased.

TRADE IN MACHINERY

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Trade in Machinery

Imports of Machinery

Imports of machinery in 1939 totalled ¥283,212,000 against ¥313,362,000 for 1938.

Imports of machinery by Japan, excluding automobiles and their accessories, from 1919 to 1928, were some-

where between ¥100,000,000 and ¥140,000,000. There was a sharp reduction in 1930, and in 1931 the bottom was reached, but since then there has been a yearly increase, although the year 1939 showed a decrease by ¥25,000,000 from the previous year. (See Chapter XI.)

IMPORTS OF MACHINERY

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Watches, and parts thereof	2,684	4,021	3,742	5,645	2,893	562
Clocks, and parts thereof	191	170	299	338	192	66
Microscopes, etc.	230	279	301	394	156	168
Ammeters, voltmeters, etc.	64	60				
Wattmeters	63	74				
Other meters	1,479	2,246	2,711	3,263	1,694	2,129
Surgical or orthopaedic instruments	200	238				
Surveying and drawing instruments	97	515	118	249	129	161
Registers, calculating machines, typewriters, etc.			256	385	790	957
Scientific instruments	1,020	1,247	2,001	2,012	150	—
Cameras, and parts thereof	1,003	1,529	1,265	2,698	1,414	3,008
Musical instruments	1,418	2,582	3,949	6,392	1,209	427
Telegraphic and telephonic instruments	182	197	240	319	119	—
Fire-arms	1,468	1,513	1,292	1,939	3,478	1,787
Railway carriages, and other vehicles	1,031	1,117				
Boilers	—	—	44,677	58,791	63,517	31,732
Fuel economizers	4,090	6,109	3,930	5,286	5,560	3,476
Steam turbines	393	732	329	166	462	754
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 250 kg.)	430	1,331	1,385	1,055	411	671
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 2,500 kg.)	3,253	343	—	—	—	—
Internal combustion engines (others)	17,277	14,801	—	—	—	—
Water-turbines and Pelton wheels	247	413	—	—	—	—
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 100 kg.)	150	90	15	8	163	—
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 5,000 kg.)	829	1,044				
Dynamos, motors, etc. (others)	145	209				
Transformers	248	1,003	1,805	1,841	2,766	2,089
Dynamos combined with motive machinery	85	75				
Cranes	2	6				
Capstans and other winding machines	12	7	—	14	397	226
Gas compressors	35	90	86	193	—	—
Sewing machines and accessories	1,742	1,053	1,815	2,318	2,522	942
Pumps	5,866	6,473	7,939	10,574	386	153
Blowing machines	999	711	760	1,257	1,947	1,987
Hydraulic presses	231	192	591	790	400	263
Pneumatic tools and machines	54	1,480	31	146	445	3,598
Metal or wood-working machines	638	587	634	789	433	391
Spinning machines	21,433	18,295	—	—	—	—
Tissue-finishing machines	6,394	4,612	2,278	3,103	1,635	—
Weaving looms	62	264				
	40	224	238	384	—	103

MACHINERY AND ENGINEERING

Articles	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Knitting machines	1,773	1,645	410	709	234	—
Paper-making machine	—	616	284	418	1,325	—
Printing machines	224	502	400	754	331	—
Card clothing	—	3,869	1,911	2,309	441	157
Felt for paper making	—	1,250	1,340	1,547	838	587
Rolls and rollers	—	916	576	473	482	1,329
Milling-cutters, gear-cutters, etc.	—	417	434	757	844	1,733
Handicraft and agricultural machines	—	1,287	1,451	2,285	428	—
Total including others	—	—	153,087	242,235	313,358	288,212

Note: Figures for fire-arms, internal combustion engines and metal or wood working machines are not made public.

Exports of Machinery

In 1939 Japan witnessed the highest record in exports of machinery of her own making. The value of exports was ¥370,323,000. The future of Japan's machinery manufacturing depends upon the degree to which her exports expand, and especially upon the development of the market in Asiatic countries. The invasion of Japanese products into the Dutch East Indies, British

India and other foreign markets is a matter of future prospect. The exportation of Japanese made spinning and weaving machines is very promising. The Toyoda Automatic Weaving Machines are very much in demand wherever the spinning industry is prosperous. Diesel-engines to be fitted into fishing vessels are built in Japan and shipped to the Dutch East Indies. Japanese made machines exported during the last 4 years follow:

	1936	1937	1938	1939
		(In ¥1,000)		
Hanging clocks	1,584	2,083	1,333	2,064
Table clocks	1,916	2,442	1,096	679
Surgical instruments	2,516	3,390	3,330	3,757
Electric batteries	1,909	2,262	3,233	3,999
Meters	1,543	2,270	3,097	4,980
Physical and chemical instruments	1,204	2,553	1,486	2,341
Musical instruments	693	850	786	1,037
Telephonic instruments	5,562	6,663	10,043	11,502
Phonographs	4,491	5,225	5,384	6,029
Measuring instruments	1,239	2,104	1,570	2,073
Steam boilers	1,731	3,580	4,405	5,514
Motors and dynamos	15,963	15,773	26,613	34,764
Transformers				
Switch boards				
Other electrical machinery	1,952	2,917	5,246	7,895
Pumps	4,907	6,233	10,324	25,532
Metal or wood working machinery	15,121	25,440	29,984	24,413
Spinning machinery	1,000	1,448	2,197	2,561
Weaving machines	15,087	9,314	16,338	24,468
Printing machines	58,810	61,478	57,148	100,793
Locomotives	8,165	23,148	16,756	13,211
Railway carriages and other vehicles	1,417	1,740	3,868	4,948
Ships	4,058	4,685	4,995	5,755
Cranes	575	1,037	651	916
Internal combustion engines	174,541	227,699	267,237	370,323
Sewing machines				
Total including others				

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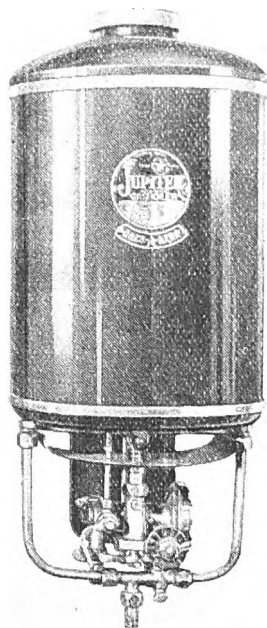
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CHAPTER XX

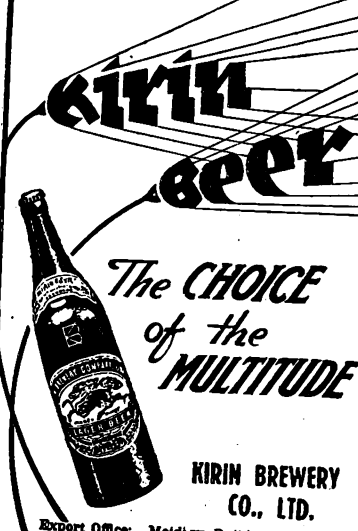
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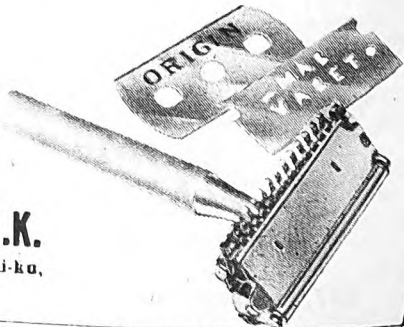
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CHAPTER XX

PUBLIC UTILITIES

Electricity

Important items of the electric industry are not made public since October 1937.

But, at the end of October 1939, the number of companies engaged in the electric business was 618, consisting of 439 suppliers, 143 electric railways and 36 electric railways supplying electricity to others. Private electric plants numbered 10,765 at the end of 1937. The aggregate capital of the 618 companies was ¥5,892,121,824.

ELECTRIC POWER CAPACITY FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

(In kw.)

End of	Hydro-electric	Thermal	Others and Total
1930	2,797,637	1,601,677	4,399,314
1931	3,056,936	1,599,588	4,656,524
1932	3,105,930	1,827,131	4,933,061
1933	3,168,705	1,912,037	5,080,742
1934	3,268,834	2,223,113	5,491,947
1935	3,407,997	2,638,572	6,046,569
1936	3,759,334	2,924,778	6,777,422
1937	3,978,000	3,297,000	7,277,000
1938			7,529,673
(Oct.)	—	—	—

TOTAL VOLUME OF ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED FOR LIGHTING AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

(In kw. h.)

		Rate of Increase
1930	12,160,082,885	—
1931	11,892,215,264	—
1932	12,557,696,988	5.6
1933	16,961,724,058	35.1
1934	18,793,610,146	10.8
1935	21,548,700,173	14.7
1936	24,132,870,000	8.9
1937	26,582,570,000	—

GROWTH OF DEMAND FOR POWER FOR LIGHTING

End of	No. of Consumers	No. of Lamps
1930	11,352,372	36,839,607
1931	11,446,539	37,413,988
1932	11,530,440	38,048,413
1933	11,383,235	38,382,771
1934	11,715,694	40,532,219
1935	11,948,953	42,477,828
1936	12,176,098	44,405,699
1937	12,568,725	46,969,219
1938	12,872,071	49,351,160

ELECTRIC LIGHTING IN VARIOUS PREFECTURES AT THE END OF 1935

(Number of lights per 100 persons)

Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.	Prefecture	No.
Tokyo	123.8	Yamanashi	36.4	Osaka	87.4	Hiroshima	61.9
Kanagawa	87.2	Aichi	70.6	Kyoto	125.6	Tottori	47.8
Saitama	43.4	Miyé	50.3	Hyogo	83.0	Shimané	50.0
Gumma	45.4	Gifu	54.3	Nara	64.7	Okayama	60.8
Chiba	40.6	Nagano	49.3	Shiga	57.0	Yamaguchi	55.8
Ibaraki	27.9	Fukui	75.4	Wakayama	59.4	Kagawa	50.6
Tochigi	35.7	Ishikawa	70.7	Tokushima	44.0	Ehimé	47.2
Shizuoka	57.0	Toyama	58.5	Kochi	45.1	Kumamoto	51.2
Nagasaki	38.9	Miyazaki	39.7	Nilgata	50.4	Yamagata	36.4
Fukuoka	57.4	Kagoshima	29.0	Fukushima	31.5	Akita	29.9
Oita	54.9	Okinawa	6.8	Iwaté	26.0	Hokkaido	37.7
Saga	48.0	Miyagi	40.2	Aomori	37.2	Average	61.3

POWER SUPPLYING COMPANIES

Year	Generating Water	Steam	Pur- chasing	Total
1933:				
Opened	345	56	417	818
Unopened	7	3	15	25
Total	352	59	433	843
1934:				
Opened	331	60	413	804
Unopened	11	3	12	26
Total	342	63	425	830
1935:				
Opened	319	59	410	788
Unopened	12	3	15	30
Total	331	62	425	818
1936:				
Opened	307	64	396	767
Unopened	13	7	14	34
Total	320	71	410	801
1938 (Oct.)				
Opened	—	—	—	829
Unopened	—	—	—	32
Total	—	—	—	861
1939 (Oct.)				
Opened	—	—	—	618
Unopened	—	—	—	23
Total	—	—	—	641

PROFITS OF ELECTRIC INDUSTRY

Year	Paid-up Capital	Profit	Rate of Profit against Paid-up Capital
(In Yen)			
1929	3,019,222,000	301,900,000	10.0
1930	3,180,810,000	255,800,000	8.0
1931	3,234,181,000	227,061,830	7.0
1932	3,326,834,000	195,887,000	5.9
1933	3,494,202,000	183,100,000	5.2
1934	3,956,686,518	205,005,470	5.2
1935	4,124,389,526	225,730,583	5.5
1936	4,296,018,000	289,414,000	6.8
1937	4,515,848,000	307,038,000	6.8
1938	4,602,616,000	323,386,000	7.0

According to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry on the business conditions of 337 power supplying companies in 1938 the aggregate capital amounted to ¥3,168,957,885, reserve fund ¥224,456,595, net profit ¥202,823,832, dividend ¥178,293,972.

CONSUMPTION OF ELECTRIC POWER BY INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Communications)

(In 1,000 k.w. h.)

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Fiber industry	1,424,818	1,689,579	1,802,421	2,638,405	2,244,899
Metal industry	1,200,700	1,666,182	2,219,902	2,796,626	4,850,078
Machine & tool manufacturing	292,408	373,872	466,466	988,677	1,327,433
Chemical industry	4,044,205	5,051,275	5,895,349	7,143,505	7,747,379
Ceramic industry	587,993	745,254	822,819	1,048,449	1,077,842
Foodstuffs	74,819	99,171	122,051	419,919	471,938
Total including others	9,264,568	11,380,327	13,265,696	15,666,012	18,587,369

Note:—Consumption by the mining industry is not included in the figures for 1937 and 1938.

Electricity in 1938 and 1939

The Nippon Hasso Den Kabushiki Kaisha (Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company) The proposed plan of the new semi-Governmental electric company revealed by the Government on February 7, 1938 at the special committee of enquiry on the power control bill of the House of Representatives was as follows:

1. The company shall be capitalized at ¥880,000,000, of which ¥780,000,000 shall be obtained through conversion

of the fixed assets and rights of the existing companies and equipment and the new equipment to be installed in the first 2 years of the establishment of the company. The remaining ¥100,000,000 shall be raised from among the general public.

2. The construction plan of the company includes the establishment of the following plants over a period of ten years: Hydraulic generating plants with a capacity for 3,200,000 kw.; Thermal generating plants with a capacity for 4,500,000 kw.; Transmission

lines 13,000 km.; Transformer stations for 10,400,000 k.v.a. The expenses for the construction of the new plants and stations will amount to ¥1,890,000,000 during the 10 years after the establishment of the company in accordance with the 10-year program.

Business Plan When the 10-year program is complete the company will be able to supply electric power to the quantity of 7,300,000 kw. or over 45,000,000,000 kw. h. The income will be ¥526,640,000; the expenditure ¥446,990,000; net profit ¥79,650,000; dividend ¥60,200,000 (at 7 per cent); and reserves ¥19,450,000.

The capacity of generating and transmitting power will be as stated in the construction plan mentioned above in addition to 3,500,000 kw. of purchased electric power. The fixed assets of the company will be ¥2,670,000,000.

Start of the New Company The special commission for the valuation of the fixed assets and rights of the existing companies came, on December 14, 1938, to the conclusion that the total amount of their value for 33 electric companies reached ¥653,100,000, and decided on the capital of the new company as ¥753,100,000, adding to the above, another ¥100,000,000 which is to be obtained by flotation of shares. Of the 33 companies those companies which were valued at surpassing ¥10,000,000 were as follows:

Tokyo Electric Light Co.	¥136,700,000
Daido Electric Power	102,300,000
Nippon Electric	100,600,000
Kwansai Kyodo Electric	57,800,000
Toho Electric Power	40,600,000
Ujigawa Electric Power	35,800,000
Sanyo Central Electric	18,000,000
Kyushu Electric	17,000,000
Hiroshima Electric Power	16,500,000
Showa Electric Power	15,800,000
Yamaguchi Prefecture Electric	15,600,000
Chugoku Godo Electric	12,600,000

On April 1, 1939, the members of the Board of Directors were appointed and the arrangements with other companies involving the taking-over of staffs and employees and the transfer of assets and equipment were completed. The important contract in respect of the taking-over of electric power amounting to 2,200,000 kilowatts from fifty-two companies and of the supply of 3,400,000 kilowatts of electric power to 70

companies has been executed smoothly.

The company enjoys no privilege in the way of exemption from taxes but debentures it issues have the guarantee of the Government, so that the company will have no difficulties in matters of finance.

Five-Year Plan In concert with the four-year plan for the expansion of industrial production and the plan for the mobilization of material resources, the Ministry of Communications, which controls the Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company, formulated a five-year plan for the generation and transmission of electric power with a view (a) to develop electric power resources preferentially for military requirements, (b) to economize on materials used in the development of electric power resources and (c) to coordinate the technical installations which are in existence to increase their combined value. The plan is to be executed by the Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company under the control of the Ministry of Communications. According to the plan, preference has been given to the development of electric power resources in Northern Kyushu, and other developments have been limited to localities where the transmission wires are at hand and can be coordinated and utilized because of being already in use by the member companies of the Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company.

Attention has been paid also toward a coordinated development of water power resources, not only to generate electric energy economically but also to enhance the standard of efficiency in electric power generation. The minimum power capacity of generation for a new coal-power plant has been decided to be 25,000 kilowatts. The capacity of the trunk transmission wires has been increased from 150,000 to more than 250,000 volts. It has been decided, also, to make the primary cost of generation and transmission the basis of reduced electric power rates without leaving any margin for profits. The new rates are to be decided by a committee specially organized.

The First Program The Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company worked out a plan for generating electric power at seventeen sites scattered throughout the country. This

project, aiming at generating 450,000 kilowatts of electricity, was begun in 1939 and is expected to be completed in 1943. Moreover, the electric power companies, which have become members of the Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company, have already started work on the construction of water power plants that will generate about 1,000,000 kilowatts when completed in 1942. In four years, therefore, the output of electric power will be increased by some 1,500,000 kilowatts. The annual increase in the output of electricity has averaged 300,000 kilowatts, but hereafter it will average 400,000 kilowatts every year until 1943, thus meeting the increased demand for electric power due to the expansion of industrial production.

The first program for electric power generation of the Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company calls for the development of water power resources at the following seventeen sites: two sites on the Ishikari River and one on the Tokachi River in Hokkaido; one on the Aga River, three on the Tone River, one on the Oi River

and one on the Kuzuryu River in Central Japan; one on the Ota River, two on the Ezawa River and one on the Takatsu River in Western Japan; and one on the Watahigawa River in Shikoku and one on the Itsuse River in Kyushu.

Shortage of Electric Power In the latter half of 1939 and the early months of 1940, Japan greatly suffered from a shortage of electric power caused by the insufficient supply of coal for thermal generation and the scarcity of rainfall for hydro-electricity. Factories operated by electric power were required to shorten their working hours or to have extra holidays in order to save electric power by 10 to 45 per cent according to different branches of industry, while homes were urged to decrease the number of electric lamps. The factories in the Kansai district, including those in the great industrial city of Osaka, were miserably paralyzed, provoking a question in regard to the responsibility of the calamity to the Japan Electric Power Generation and Transmission Company and its supervising office, the Board of Electricity of the Communications Ministry.

Gas Industry

Introduction

When compared with the electric industry, the gas industry has been very slow in its development. The introduction of gas took place in 1885, when it was used in Yokohama for street lighting purposes. Later in the same

year Tokyo adopted it for the same purpose. The capital invested in 1885 was ¥54,000, and a slow but steady increase took place until 1925, when the invested capital stood at ¥276,373,000. After that year the industry made great strides as the following figures show:

CONDITIONS OF GAS PRODUCING COMPANIES

	Coal Consumed Metric Ton	Output Thou- sand Cubic Meters	Amount Supplied to Consumers Thou- sand Cubic Meters	No. of Con- sumers	No. of Lights & Burners	Byproducts	
						Coke (Unit: Metric Ton)	Coaltar (Unit: 1,000 Liters)
1934	1,461,000	1,046,639	741,787	1,906,409	4,242,215	971,242	75,923
1935	1,522,000	1,218,746	771,534	1,995,000	4,453,919	1,012,443	83,865
1936	1,614,000	858,965	810,095	2,112,000	5,771,537	1,068,968	86,204
1937	1,719,519	940,871	859,424	2,233,000	6,173,970	1,134,220	90,162
1938	2,172,765	1,104,531	976,030	2,333,203	—	1,460,855	112,245
1939	2,423,000	1,204,100	1,112,100	2,357,000	—	1,630,000	122,000

Business Results

End of March	No. of Companies	Paid-up Capital	(In ¥1,000)		Percentage of Profit against Fixed Capital	Dividend Rate
			Fixed Assets	Profit		
1934	102	419,096	584,323	53,029	9.1	7.8%
1935	104	440,210	585,998	60,295	13.6	7.6

End of March	No. of Companies	Paid-up Capital	Fixed Assets	Profit	Percentage of Profit against Fixed Capital	Dividend Rate
1936	106	458,196	591,637	70,302	11.9	7.8
1937	111	460,403	608,919	78,232	12.8	8.4
1938	116	332,100	402,211	54,035	13.4	8.4
1939	122	338,359	—	—	—	—

CONSUMPTION OF GAS BY INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)
(In 1,000 cubic meters)

	1937	1938
Fiber Industry	24,092	27,528
Metal Industry	8,140,967	10,384,371
Machine and Tool Manufacturing	184,811	134,040
Chemical Industry	211,502	377,417
Ceramic Industry	775,434	714,588
Foodstuffs	13,515	14,223
Total including others	9,399,887	11,705,671

Note: Figures include those for gas produced by factories themselves. The number of gas motors in operation was 653 with 42,977 horse power in 1937, 649 with 46,217 horse power in 1938.

Gas Industry In 1939

Because the gas industry is a public enterprise in this country, the Government has adhered to a principle of one gas company for one city or town in the past. Under the circumstances, the gas industry in this country is more monopolistic in nature than all other industries including power. A steady progress of the gas industry has been noted during the past few years, particularly since the outbreak of the China Affair as a source of industrial fuel indispensable for munitions industries. Demand for gas as substitute fuel for heavy oil has gained greatly and is expected to further rise in the future. Toward the end of 1939, there were 118 gas companies in Japan in operation. In addition, four new gas companies are in the process of establishment, of which two are nearly ready to commence business. Gas supply zones extend over 150 cities, inclusive of all major towns and cities in Japan, catering to more than 2,357,000 consumers. The combined capital of gas companies, including those managing the power industry jointly, aggregates

approximately ¥472,000,000 (¥363,000,000 paid-up). The 1939 production of gas totalled 1,204,000,000 cubic meters and the total 1939 supply amounted to 1,112,000,000 cubic meters, thus eclipsing the 1938 production and supply, standing at 1,104,500,000 cubic meters and 976,000,000 cubic meters, respectively, by 9 per cent and 14 per cent. Notwithstanding the various handicaps such as strengthened control over various materials such as coal since the outbreak of the Affair and the gas consumption restriction imposed in the second half of 1939, it is noteworthy that the gas industry has made such noteworthy progress. This may be largely due to the rise of heavy industries. As indicated by Table 1, the consumption of gas in six major cities in 1939 averaged 467 cubic meters per house, while that in other cities averaged 513 cubic meters, showing an appreciable increase over the 1930 consumption of 6 major cities which averaged at 452 cubic meters and that of other cities at 340 cubic meters, the increase in the latter being particularly remarkable. This was attributable to the movement of industrial factories from bigger cities to smaller cities because of governmental restrictions over industrial zones in bigger cities. As a result, the demand for gas has come to be evenly distributed among smaller towns and cities as well as bigger cities.

With an average of 15 per cent restriction over general consumption of gas imposed and gas charges pegged despite the advance in prices of coal, however, the gas industry, as an industrial enterprise, has been subjected to a certain heavy blow in regard to profit situation. Nevertheless, the gas industry in 1939 achieved an unexpectedly favorable result chiefly because of a remarkable improvement in its revenues because of the gain in the market prices of its principal by-products such as coke, tar and benzol. The revenue of gas companies from those by-products accounted for nearly 30 per cent of the total revenue. The production of those by-products, has

PUBLIC UTILITIES

been on a steady increase every year. Coke production in 1939 amounted to 1,630,000 metric tons, gaining by 169,000 metric tons or 11.5 per cent over the 1938 outputs of 1,461,000 metric tons. Production of coal tar, an important material for organic chemical industry, in 1939 also totalled 122,000 kiloliters, gaining by 10,000 kiloliters or 8.9 per cent over 1938. Compared with the production in 1937, the 1939

production showed a gain of 496,000 metric tons or 43.7 per cent in coke and 32,000 kiloliters or 35.5 per cent in coal tar. Gas industrialists in Osaka and other principal districts have also started collecting benzol on an industrial scale since the outbreak of the Affair. Collection of benzol, an important munitions material, was more or less neglected in the past in this country.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF GAS IN JAPAN

Years	Total Supply (1)	Consumers (2)	Average Per-day Consumption (3)	Average Per-house Consumption (4)
1930-A	588.9	1,296.1	1,613	452
B	111.3	326.9	305	340
1931-A	624.4	1,371.7	1,711	455
B	115.6	344.9	311	337
1932-A	597.4	1,436.3	1,637	415
B	115.3	348.9	316	330
1933-A	597.7	1,513.5	1,638	394
B	112.2	352.9	307	318
1934-A	623.7	1,548.2	1,709	402
B	118.1	358.2	324	329
1935-A	648.2	1,626.0	1,776	398
B	123.7	370.0	339	334
1936-A	677.8	1,723.0	1,857	393
B	132.2	388.6	358	340
1937-A	710.9	1,827.1	1,948	389
B	148.5	406.0	407	365
1938-A	828.4	2,028.6	2,269	408
B	147.7	304.6	405	486
1939-A	956.5	2,048.7	2,621	467
B	155.6	308.5	426	513

Note: A for six prefectures including six major cities.
B for other prefectures and cities.

(1) in 1,000,000 cubic meters.

(2) in 1,000 houses.

(3) in 1,000 cubic meters.

(4) in cubic meters.

TABLE 2. GAS ENTERPRISES BY PREFECTURES (1939)

Prefectures	Gas Companies	Gas Tanks	Gas Supply (in 1,000 cubic meters)	Consuming Houses
Tokyo	3	17	524,402	1,042,577
Kyoto	2	7	44,634	123,407
Osaka	4	17	209,779	482,501
Kanagawa	7	17	42,045	95,627
Hyogo	6	20	68,484	198,261
Nagasaki	1	4	10,378	15,384
Niigata	7	11	11,034	15,348
Saitama	3	4	2,598	5,687
Gumma	3	4	1,664	4,652
Chiba	6	13	5,637	7,057
Ibaraki	2	4	2,013	2,516

GAS INDUSTRY

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Prefectures

	Gas Companies	Gas Tanks	Gas Supply (in 1,000 cubic meters)	Consuming Houses
Tochigi	2			
Nara	2	4	1,380	4,507
Miye	3	4	1,733	4,582
Aichi	5	6	2,943	7,840
Shidzuoka	5	12	67,118	106,332
Yamanashi	1	9	6,505	14,020
Shiga	3	4	1,214	4,836
Gifu	2	3	1,011	4,185
Nagano	4	4	2,656	4,746
Miyagi	2	7	2,443	6,679
Fukushima	2	3	2,874	4,724
Iwate	1	3	1,680	3,166
Yamagata	2	1	257	722
Akita	2	4	685	1,525
Fukui	2	2	117	2,578
Ishikawa	2	3	2,458	7,735
Toyama	2	4	3,459	11,091
Tottori	2	3	1,863	4,791
Shimane	2	2	1,614	2,459
Okayama	1	1	658	2,190
Hiroshima	4	6	6,617	23,201
Yamaguchi	2	10	20,787	28,529
Wakayama	3	5	3,939	7,694
Tokushima	2	3	1,971	5,699
Kagawa	1	2	1,217	3,971
Ehime	2	4	1,026	3,268
Aichi	3	5	3,374	5,245
Fukuoka	1	1	1,324	4,077
Kumamoto	4	14	32,413	43,133
Oita	1	2	3,043	6,038
Saga	1	3	2,226	2,095
Miyazaki	2	2	944	2,067
Kagoshima	3	2	1,684	4,368
Hokkaido	1	3	2,035	4,868
Total	4	11	9,648	21,366
	123	266	1,122,090	2,357,158

Note: Including four companies not operating as yet.

TABLE 3. GAS PRODUCTION BY KIND
(In million cubic meters)

	1938	1939	Increase
Coal gas	1,008.6	1,137.9	49.3
Liquid gas	6.0	24.0	18.0
Mixed gas	4.6	34.3	29.7
Natural gas	5.3	7.2	1.9
Generator gas	—	0.7	0.7
Total	1,104.4	1,204.1	99.7

Waterworks

Waterworks in Japan were for the first time established in Osaka under the Waterworks Law of 1895 and thereafter developed remarkably all over the country. The Law was revised in 1911

to give sanction for the construction of waterworks to private associations as public bodies. By March 1938 places which already obtained permission to construct waterworks were as follows:

PUBLIC UTILITIES

Established by Cities	No. of Waterworks Sanctioned	No. of Waterworks in Operation	Established by Prefecture	No. of Waterworks Sanctioned	No. of Waterworks in Operation
Towns and Villages	120	117	Private persons	4	4
Town or Village Associations	405	368	Total	115	108
	8	7		652	604

NUMBER OF WATERWORKS IN OPERATION BY DISTRICTS

(March 1938)

Prefecture	Established by Cities	Established by Towns or Villages	Established by Towns & Village Unions	Established by Prefecture	Established by Private Persons	Total
Hokkaido	5	20	—	—	4	29
Aomori	2	1	—	—	1	4
Iwaté	1	6	—	—	7	14
Miyagi	2	17	—	—	3	22
Akita	1	—	—	—	—	1
Yamagata	4	14	—	—	—	18
Fukushima	4	9	—	—	—	13
Ibaraki	1	1	—	—	3	5
Tochigi	2	4	—	—	—	6
Gumma	3	1	—	—	—	4
Saitama	—	5	1	—	—	6
Chiba	—	2	—	1	5	8
Tokyo	2	5	—	—	4	11
Kanagawa	3	10	1	1	1	16
Niigata	4	10	—	—	—	14
Toyama	2	3	—	—	—	5
Ishikawa	1	4	—	—	—	5
Fukui	1	2	—	—	—	3
Yamanashi	1	9	1	—	2	13
Nagano	5	27	1	—	—	33
Gifu	2	15	—	—	3	20
Shizuoka	4	19	—	—	1	24
Aichi	6	1	—	—	2	9
Mié	3	4	—	—	—	7
Shiga	1	—	—	—	—	1
Kyoto	2	24	—	—	—	26
Osaka	4	16	—	—	4	24
Hyogo	5	13	—	—	7	25
Nara	1	6	—	—	2	9
Wakayama	2	4	—	—	8	14
Tottori	2	8	—	—	1	11
Shimane	1	7	—	—	7	15
Okayama	3	12	1	1	—	17
Hiroshima	5	6	—	—	14	25
Yamaguchi	4	6	—	1	9	20
Tokushima	1	3	—	—	—	4
Kagawa	2	3	1	—	6	12
Ehime	3	20	—	—	1	24
Kochi	1	7	—	—	3	11
Fukuoka	10	6	—	—	1	17
Saga	2	4	—	—	—	6
Nagasaki	2	10	—	—	5	17
Kumamoto	1	7	—	—	—	8
Oita	3	4	—	—	1	8

WATERWORKS

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No. of Waterworks in Operation	Prefecture	Estab- lished by Cities	Establish- ed by Towns or Villages	Established by Towns & Vil- lage Unions	Established by Prefecture	Established by Pri- vate Persons	Total
108	Miyazaki	1	4	—	—	1	6
604	Kagoshima	1	8	1	—	2	12
	Okinawa	1	—	—	—	—	1
	Total	117	367	6	4	108	603

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS SUPPLIED

Prefecture	Number of Households Supplied	Number of Households Supplied per 100 Households	Prefecture	Number of Households Supplied	Number of Households Supplied per 100 Households
Hokkaido	98,784	18.11	Osaka	632,961	70.50
Aomori	21,675	13.39	Hyogo	251,883	41.23
Iwaté	9,313	5.32	Nara	10,705	8.64
Miyagi	37,692	18.82	Wakayama	24,787	13.42
Akita	9,382	5.35	Tottori	13,656	14.36
Yamagata	19,045	10.30	Shimane	15,708	9.97
Fukushima	29,884	10.96	Okayama	46,867	16.63
Ibaraki	8,223	2.86	Hiroshima	111,290	29.11
Tochigi	14,466	6.79	Yamaguchi	39,615	15.29
Gumma	22,391	9.94	Tokushima	16,121	11.05
Saitama	8,789	3.17	Kagawa	15,861	10.42
Chiba	7,306	2.49	Ehime	14,758	6.07
Tokyo	933,528	72.78	Kochi	14,458	9.25
Kanagawa	214,101	59.76	Fukuoka	140,131	26.27
Niigata	45,068	12.67	Saga	10,857	8.50
Toyama	6,661	4.30	Nagasaki	68,550	27.09
Ishikawa	16,731	10.58	Kumamoto	22,760	8.70
Fukui	20,402	15.28	Oita	20,005	10.24
Yamanashi	23,683	19.08	Miyazaki	6,566	4.14
Nagano	47,419	14.25	Kagoshima	23,787	7.15
Gifu	17,404	7.12	Okinawa	3,576	2.83
Shizuoka	35,199	10.11	Total	3,549,831	26.30
Alchi	207,783	36.47			
Mie	18,731	7.81			
Shiga	5,730	3.79			
Kyoto	165,539	46.82			

Note: Percentage is taken on the number of households in prefectures on October 1, 1935.

NUMBER OF HYDRANTS AND VOLUME OF WATER SUPPLIED

Year	No. of Water- works	Private	Hydrants without Meters	Hydrants	Fire-
			Common	with Meters	hydrants
1934	546	424,118	41,490	2,172,284	123,299
1935	553	459,142	34,142	2,194,401	130,869
1936	600	458,846	32,558	2,391,338	136,328
1937	631	495,329	31,835	2,514,355	123,337

PUBLIC UTILITIES

	District Water Meters	Total	Volume of Water Supplied (1,000 cubic m.)
1934	3,092	2,766,338	936,287
1935	3,002	2,823,957	1,003,549
1936	2,642	3,024,180	1,068,947
1937	2,460	3,170,129	1,216,393

Volume of
Water Supplied
(1,000 cubic m.)
836,257
1,003,549
1,068,847
1,216,393

CHAPTER XXI

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

TEIKOKU SANSO

KABUSHIKI KAISHA

HEAD OFFICE:

38, Akashi-machi, Kobe-ku, Kobe

CAPITAL: Yen 3,300,000

OXYGEN - ACETYLENE - ARGON
ELECTRIC WELDING

DAI NIPPON HEIKI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Japan Arms Co., Ltd.)

Established in 1938

President: Masaharu Hibino

CAPITAL ¥30,000,000

MANUFACTURES:

Arm̄s, Gun Powder, Precision Machine Tools

Head Office: 18, Marunouchi 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku .

Tel. Marunouchi (23) 5923, 5924, 6170, 6171

CHAPTER XXI

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

Paper

Historical and General

Paper-making in Japan remained a handicraft for over twelve centuries after a Korean priest, Doncho, introduced the technique in 610 A.D. (Some writers maintain that paper existed in this country prior to that date.) During this long period of time, various grades of paper were produced from fibers of certain shrubs such as "koso", "mitsumata", "gampi", etc.

Foreign-style paper was made for the first time in the 7th year of Meiji, 1874, in a small mill, the Yukosha, Tokyo, through the assistance of an English engineer. Several more mills were established the following year, but the development of the industry was naturally slow on account of the small demand. In the beginning, the raw materials used for foreign-style paper were chiefly rags, but in 1889, wood pulp was used for the first time in a mill which belonged to the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. At first, the smallness of quantity required and competition from abroad made the industry struggle severely, but as with all other industries, the wars with China in 1894-95 and with Russia in 1904-5 gave it a great chance of development. In 1910, the Tomakomai Mill of the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., which had been under construction since 1906 began operation. With the establishment of the Tomakomai Mill Japan became selfsupplying with respect to newsprint. Again, the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., took the initiative in establishing a pulp mill, in 1912, in Odomari, Saghalien Island, but was quickly followed by the Fuji Paper Mills, Ltd., and the Karafuto Industrial Co., Ltd. The industry was just getting well settled when the Great War broke out and prosperity was forced

upon it. Importations of foreign-style paper was practically stopped. Demand at home advanced, exports increased and the industry expanded at a great speed. The production of foreign-style paper in 1881 was only 3,968,000 lbs., it increased to 327,614,000 lbs. in 1914, 519,141,000 lbs. in 1919, 317,383,000 lbs. in 1924, and 1,418,187,000 lbs. in 1929.

In 1932 the Oji Paper Mills, Fuji Paper Mills and Karafuto Industrial Company were merged into one firm under the name of the Oji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha (Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd.). It has a subscribed capital of ¥300,000,000, and is virtually monopolistic having control over 80% of the total paper production in the country and producing about 85% of the total foreign-style paper. The real strength of the Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., Ltd. lies in its almost complete monopoly of pulp production. In 1939 it turned out 1,621,200,000 lbs. of paper and 528,586,000 lbs. of pulp, which was equivalent to 80 per cent of domestic production.

The economic control since 1937 was aimed at the expansion of the heavy industries at the sacrifice of various peacetime industries. But the paper manufacturing industry in Japan is one of the best organized and voluntarily controlled enterprises in the country and it has been able to cope with the emergency period with the minimum amount of sacrifice on its part. The conditions of paper industry and trade in 1940, were steady, and the profits earned by companies increased inspite of further strengthening of State control on the manufacture and consumption of high grade papers in the year. (See Chapter X.)

Supply and Demand According to the report of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association the production of paper during 1940 by 9 member companies reached 1,961,238,000 lbs., the

1 Paper mulberry. 2 Golden flowered Edgeworthia (*Edgeworthia chrysantha*). 3 An indigenous plant (*Wikstroemia sikokiana*).

quantity sold being 1,935,674,000 lbs., a decrease of 56,432,000 lbs. or 2.7 per cent in the former and 100,226,000 lbs. or 4.9 per cent in the latter as compared with the previous year. But the pro-

duction and sale of printing papers for the publication of books increased, while those of papers for daily press decreased as given in the following table:

PRODUCTION AND SALE OF FOREIGN STYLE PAPERS IN THE PAST FIVE YEARS

(9 member companies of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association)

(Unit: 1,000 lbs.)

	Printing Paper		Paper for Daily Press		Others		Total	
	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale
1937	655,573	616,599	825,189	811,291	648,264	604,983	2,129,026	2,032,873
1938	400,799	483,388	857,463	852,896	690,193	694,123	1,948,455	2,030,407
1939	384,839	391,819	873,218	869,757	759,614	774,324	2,017,670	2,035,900
1940	445,437	432,035	815,264	807,003	700,537	696,646	1,961,238	1,935,674
1941	650,686	639,538	726,722	692,921	626,055	610,833	2,003,463	1,943,292

Decrease of Imports The imports of paper in 1939 amounted only to 2,730,000 lbs., a remarkable decrease of 81 per cent as compared with the previous year. The main reason is to be found in the strict trade control by the Government over the peace time goods,

especially in the case of imports.

Increase of Exports But the exports of paper in 1939 amounted to 418,588,000 lbs., an increase of 27.6 per cent over the previous year. Of the total amount, 371,292,000 lbs. or 88 per cent went to the yen bloc areas.

PRODUCTION OF PAPER SINCE 1930

(Factory Statistics by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Quantity in 1,000 kg. and value in ¥1,000)

Year	Printing Paper		Copying Paper		Drawing Paper		Wrapping Paper	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1934	379,062	84,167	11,684	4,216	3,402	1,980	39,180	10,327
1935	408,671	90,263	17,854	5,480	6,673	2,126	49,049	11,028
1936	434,743	94,795	19,850	5,770	5,103	1,563	57,079	14,862
1937	519,898	119,355	27,788	8,723	5,511	2,071	70,706	21,234
1938	495,504	121,371	19,229	9,435	2,986	2,069	57,577	21,550

Year	Match Paper		Cigarette Paper		Art Paper		"Hanshi"	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1934	2,787	711	5,658	4,410	15,091	5,655	2,838	6,924
1935	6,815	1,825	10,285	7,480	11,268	3,976	1,953	6,690
1936	5,170	1,405	14,165	9,659	12,537	4,081	3,558	6,080
1937	3,455	1,011	14,281	11,547	14,061	5,381	2,154	9,797
1938	5,808	1,975	16,650	13,978	11,696	5,137	5,000	13,263

Year	"Minogami"		"Torinoko" and Imitation Paper	Board		Others and Total
	Quantity	Value		Quantity	Value	
1934	305	1,010	4,174	198,502	20,079	200,923
1935	339	1,755	6,438	256,336	27,004	224,780
1936	358	1,410	6,952	265,238	27,973	250,983
1937	323	1,720	9,853	337,492	38,508	335,646
1938	758	4,030	9,767	247,558	33,688	364,048

CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN-STYLE PAPER

(Statistics of the Japan Paper Manufacturers' Association)

Year	Production	(Quantity in 1,000 lbs.)			Consumption per Capita
		Imports	Exports	Consumption	
1934	1,591,474	138,556	101,523	1,643,542	22.6
1935	1,719,637	167,482	112,899	1,764,976	26.8
1936	1,825,848	193,664	126,559	1,889,641	25.6
1937	2,129,026	135,092	135,653	2,041,665	29.0
1938	1,948,455	14,358	146,101	1,859,566	25.4
1939	2,017,670	2,723	230,454	1,774,168	24.3
1940	1,961,238	—	—	—	—

Note: The figures for consumption are made out by deducting stocks at year end.

PRODUCTION OF CELLOPHANE

Year	Production		Year	Production	
	Qty in kg.	Value in yen		Qty in kg.	Value in yen
1931	64,575	176,170	1935	2,382,433	3,940,716
1932	147,000	473,634	1936	3,458,535	6,118,818
1933	574,029	2,008,057	1937	2,395,974	9,645,146
1934	726,842	3,414,839	1938	2,215,865	7,746,403

Note: The value is included in the total of the above table.

Production of Hand-Made Japanese Paper

The production of hand-made Japanese paper in 1940 totalled 8,260,495 kwan valued at ¥72,853,427, according to a survey by the Japan Federation of Hand-Made Japanese Paper Industrial Associations. This federation comprises 62 associations with a total membership of 11,609 involving 17,331 manufacturing machines.

The Japanese-style paper industry, although having been greatly oppressed by foreign-style paper, made a remarkable development at the time of the Russo-Japanese War and was very active during the World War I when the domestic demand for Japanese-style paper greatly increased. Compared with foreign-style paper, however, the existence of Japanese-style paper was very insignificant both in production and consumption. The returning prosperity of the Japanese-style paper industry in recent years has been well noted in the

steady increase of the area of fields where paper-mulberry and Edgeworthia chrysantha, two cardinal materials for Japanese-style paper production, are planted. There is little doubt, however, that hand-manufacturing has been steadily replaced by machine-manufacturing in Japanese-style paper circles in general, except in the production of a few particular items such as material paper for mimeograph or Tengu paper. Thus, the production of hand-made Japanese-style paper, which accounted for 79 per cent of the total production of Japanese-style paper in 1925, dropped to 34 per cent in 1932. This tendency is not so remarkable in the case of Kochi Prefecture, the largest Japanese-style paper producing center. In that prefecture, the hand-made Japanese-style paper accounted for 49 per cent of the total Japanese-style paper output in 1933, 39 per cent in 1934, 40 per cent in 1935, 44 per cent in 1936 and 45 per cent in 1937.

Details follow:

PRODUCTION OF HAND-MADE JAPANESE-STYLE PAPER, 1940

Items	Quantity in Kwan	Value in Yen
Shojigami (Sliding-Screen Paper)	1,459,148	16,482,011
Kairyoshi (Improved Paper)	912,763	10,312,823
Nishinouchi, Hosokawashi and likes	556,802	5,813,421
Yanliri or Shagoshi	658,480	4,835,896
Tengushi	149,638	4,479,750

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

Items	Quantity in Kwan	Value in Yen
Kozu Hanshi	405,853	3,504,331
Material Paper for Mimeograph Original	107,318	3,351,530
Toilet Paper	630,231	3,063,400
Paper for Umbrella	259,159	2,542,222
Drawing Paper, etc.	144,489	2,360,356
Hosho	458,580	2,329,952
Senkashi	272,249	2,288,747
Wall Paper	320,741	1,923,629
Remanufactured Paper	533,028	1,456,440
Material Paper for Imitation Leather	117,375	1,212,769
Chinese Drawing Paper and Rice Paper	53,240	629,150
Oil Paper for Japanese Umbrellas and as Substitute for Glass for Green Houses	132,467	943,852
Filter Paper	67,905	604,371
Paper Bags	88,680	371,706
Lantern Paper	17,915	234,907
Others	914,434	4,111,564
Total	8,260,495	72,853,427

PRODUCTION OF PULP

(Forest Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(In tons)

Year	In Japan	In Manchoukuo	Total	Year	In Japan	In Manchoukuo	Total
1934	708,996	13,737	722,733	1937	886,978	15,011	901,989
1935	757,477	13,718	771,195	1938	955,229	37,672	992,901
1936	802,565	13,171	815,736	1939	1,053,619	60,300	1,113,919

IMPORTS OF PULP

Country of Origin	1936	1937	1938	1939	1936	1937	1938	1939
U.S.A.	153,735	188,115	51,511	49,319	31,758	49,181	15,111	18,767
Canada	27,748	51,929	16,787	9,209	4,150	12,619	5,046	2,034
Sweden	56,228	121,681	24,849	14,064	9,735	26,993	6,276	4,191
Norway	55,778	62,146	18,145	26,731	14,621	17,071	5,400	9,387
Others	32,979	42,737	29,616	68,128	6,842	10,855	9,227	22,159
Total	326,467	466,608	140,908	167,451	67,107	116,720	41,059	56,537

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF PULP FOR PAPER

(Forest Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

(Unit in ton)

	Production	Imports	Consumption		Production	Imports	Consumption
1932	547,520	64,208	676,256	1936	747,355	157,358	900,576
1933	614,139	107,774	738,458	1937	829,684	176,131	1,003,215
1934	691,836	140,261	786,399	1938	851,876	29,705	882,000
1935	724,042	143,534	843,945	1939	896,548	26,733	823,115

Fertilizers

The problem of food in Japan is a serious one. The Japanese population is increasing yearly by about a million, but the amount of food produced in the country is not enough to feed them.

Besides, the arable land in the country is so small and limited that hardly any space is left to effect any further increase, and the only method left, beyond extending abroad, is to increase the

FERTILIZERS

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yield of crops through intensive farming. And, since January 1940, the Government is encouraging the producers of important chemical fertilizers by giving subsidies so that they may produce at least 80 per cent of demand in 1940-41.

General Condition of the Industry

Chemical Fertilizers. Of all the chemical fertilizers, superphosphate of lime and sulphate of ammonia are the two representative ones, and because of the largeness of their demand and supply the market trend of these two is practically the market trend of the rest.

Superphosphate of Lime The principal raw material for the manufacture of superphosphate of lime is phosphate rock. During 1930 some 570,000 tons were imported, while some 63,385 tons were produced at home, and during 1937 and 1938 imports were 922,317 and 564,175 tons respectively. This rock is imported from the U.S.A., Egypt, and the South Sea Islands.

Superphosphate production has been gaining steadily, 1939 production reaching 1,460,396 metric tons valued at ¥74,561,922, record high in value. Production during the past few years is reported by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry as follows:

PRODUCTION OF SUPER-PHOSPHATES

(In metric ton)

1930	957,159
1931	862,401

	Production	Imports	Imports from Territories (In metric ton)	Exports	Exports to Territories	Consumption in Japan Proper
1935	611,751	238,598	71,551	5,992	103,294	812,614
1936	380,262	314,131	56,436	18,417	182,024	1,050,388
1937	931,821	224,208	17,315	7,512	180,840	934,995
1938	1,463,875	295,823	76,504	24	262,398	1,573,780
1939	1,392,814	82,339	129,355	30	197,429	1,407,049

Lime Nitrogen While lime nitrogen was a fertilizer difficult to make farmers use it, they now recognize the merit of this nitrogenous fertilizer, and owing perhaps to its reasonableness in price, its consumption increased with a great stride. In 1931 its consumption was 168,448 tons and in 1938 it increased

to 286,583 tons. Production increased rapidly too. While in 1924, it barely amounted to about 121,000 tons, it increased up to 290,398 tons in 1936, more than two times as large. 1939 production was 215,270 tons valued at ¥17,341,340.

1932	1,041,497
1933	1,116,573
1934	1,126,149
1935	1,331,616
1936	1,437,196
1937	1,582,985
1938	1,234,060
1939	1,460,396

Supply and demand of superphosphate in recent years follow:

	Production (1,00 tons)	Exports and Re-exports (1,00 tons)	Consumption in Japan Proper
1930	957	35	922
1931	862	32	808
1932	1,041	61	960
1933	1,116	106	1,009
1934	1,126	121	1,004
1935	1,331	151	1,150
1936	1,437	168	1,242
1937	1,582	170	1,379
1938	1,234	197	1,036
1939	1,460	191	1,276

Sulphate of Ammonia The demand for sulphate of ammonia has steadily increased for years. Consumption in 1930 was 488,000 tons, in 1936 it showed a remarkable increase to 1,050,388 tons. The decrease in imports was made good by the increase in domestic production, which in 1938 passed the 1,000,000 ton mark. Japan, in this manner, has become self-supporting in sulphate of ammonia.

Supply and demand of ammonium sulphate in Japan in recent years follow:

	Imports from Territories (In metric ton)	Exports	Exports to Territories	Consumption in Japan Proper
1935	71,551	5,992	103,294	812,614
1936	56,436	18,417	182,024	1,050,388
1937	17,315	7,512	180,840	934,995
1938	76,504	24	262,398	1,573,780
1939	129,355	30	197,429	1,407,049

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF LIME
NITROGEN

(In metric ton)

Year	Quantity	Consumption
1934	197,252	169,071
1935	260,632	223,171
1936	290,398	240,119
1937	323,508	286,251
1938	306,846	286,583
1939	215,270	215,270

Vegetable Fertilizers Vegetable fertilizers are many in kind. Bean cake, rape-seed cake, cotton-seed cake, rice bran, etc., come into this class of fer-

tillizers, bean cake being the most important.

Bean Cake The domestic production of bean cake is very small when compared with the quantity imported, the greater part of which comes from Manchoukuo. In 1916 the consumption of bean cake was 807,975 tons, which, by 1926, increased to 1,510,088 tons, but since then no increase can be noted as the development of the synthetic nitrogen industry has cut deeply into the development of vegetable fertilizer industry.

Supply and demand of bean cake for 1935-1939 were:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF BEAN CAKE

(In metric ton)

	Production	Imports	Imports from Territories	Exports	Exports to Territories	Consumption in Japan Proper
1935	226,876	431,978	87,051	2,431	368	714,373
1936	248,733	376,783	121,931	2,384	848	722,165
1937	261,738	394,815	41,262	3,747	584	693,484
1938	327,716	623,054	27,152	2,428	432	975,062
1939	364,586	849,202	32,083	2,530	62	1,243,279

Fish and Animal Fertilizers In Japan fish is indispensable as food, but at the same time they are caught for oil extraction and the refuse is converted into manure.

In addition to chemical, vegetable and animal fertilizers, a great quantity of self-supplied fertilizers are supplied and consumed.

VALUE OF FERTILIZERS PRODUCED IN JAPAN PROPER

(Fertilizers which require a licence for production)

(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Animal	Vegetable	Chemical	Mixed	Miscellaneous	Total
1935	27,612	36,395	150,988	53,528	100	268,625
1936	34,738	41,271	179,178	57,802	113	313,105
1937	38,687	53,676	221,177	70,631	830	385,003
1938	34,525	63,729	239,261	105,895	1,112	444,522
1939	60,685	95,015	210,830	113,558	2,350	482,438

CONSUMPTION OF FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Manufactured under Licence	Fertilizers Sold on the Market Manuf'd without Licence	Balance of Exports & Imports	Raw Materials for mfg. Fertilizers	Total	Self-supplied Fertilizers	Grand Total
1935	263,625	22,000	71,014	84,938	276,701	328,560	605,261
1936	313,105	27,000	76,434	91,594	324,945	354,200	679,145
1937	385,003	33,000	70,314	117,524	370,794	387,740	758,534
1938	444,522	48,000	81,847	142,590	431,779	441,530	873,309

Caustic Soda, Soda Ash, Bleaching Powder

Soda Ash Soda ash occurs in its natural state in some parts of the world, but in this country it has to be prepared from salt, and as salt is a Government monopoly the price is high, so when the Asahi Glass Company, in order to attain self-sufficiency, started the production of soda ash after the World War it did so on uneconomic basis, but the Government came along and by granting liberal subsidies to this and other concerns saved the industry and put it on a paying basis. Brunner, Mond and Company (British) and H. Ahrens and Company (German), who used to be the largest importers, were hit hard by this development in home production. The history of the growth of the soda ash industry in Japan is the history of strife between the Asahi Glass Company, backed by

the Mitsubishi interests and protected by the Government, and these foreign concerns.

Caustic Soda In the past the commercial production of caustic soda was only possible if a good price was obtained for bleaching powder. The industry, therefore, was greatly dependent on this latter commodity for quantity production. As soda ash is now being produced cheaply, caustic soda is being manufactured from it so domestic production is increasing.

Bleaching Powder The demand for bleaching powder has become active since an improvement was registered by the paper manufacturing companies. The business solely depends on the rise and fall of the foreign-style paper manufacturing industry.

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF SODA ASH

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF SODA ASH					
Production			Imports		
	(In metric ton)			(In metric ton)	
1934	170,622	37,139	1937	377,000	46,276
1935	364,613	38,308	1938	331,307	21,584
1936	367,205	40,895	1939	294,931	19,232

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CAUSTIC SODA

	Production	Exports	Imports	Supply
	(In metric ton)	(In metric ton)		
1935	233,288	17,495	19,936	235,729
1936	284,999	23,911	11,587	272,677
1937	362,141	3,676	27,429	384,005
1938	440,316	11,615	266	428,967
1939	423,182	24,283	0	398,899

Note: As to the value see the table given at the end of this chapter.

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF BLEACHING POWDER

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF BLEACHING POWDER									
1934	Production		Exports	Supply		Production		Exports	Supply
	(In metric tons)					(In metric tons)			
1935	66,155	4,247	61,908		1937	91,283	6,990	84,293	
1936	77,080	6,489	70,591		1938	77,286	2,950	74,336	
	79,228	8,505	70,723		1939	83,258	6,479	76,779	

Soap Making

Development and Production

The industry was started early in the Meiji Era, but no great progress was made until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, when machinery was introduced from abroad. During the World War, the industry enjoyed great prosperity, but the reaction was also very severe when it came in 1920. However, during those difficult times, the foundation of the industry became more

consolidated and the quality of soap improved a great deal.

Production of soap in Japan is as per the accompanying table. Tokyo and Osaka are the two principal places of production, the former producing about 50% of the total production in the country, while Osaka produces about 30%. Exports of soap amounted to ¥17,413,000 in 1939, against ¥7,837,000 of the previous year.

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

PRODUCTION OF SOAP BY KIND

(In ₹1,000)

Year	Tollet	Industrial	Medical	Laundry	Powdered	Others	Total
1934	21,407	1,932	377	13,756	3,331	2,037	42,843
1935	23,326	3,295	477	15,537	4,127	3,491	50,258
1936	23,249	3,742	306	18,223	3,470	2,915	51,908
1937	27,229	4,527	338	18,410	3,987	594	55,087
1938	29,717	4,524	619	29,355	5,800	2,179	72,196

Vegetable and Animal Oils and Tallow

Introduction

For lighting purposes vegetable oils have been used in Japan for centuries. In earlier days perilla oil was used but this was later replaced by rapeseed oil. The production of these oils on an industrial basis only developed after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905.

Production of hardened oil in Japan during 1938 amounted to 108,088 metric tons in contrast to 97,132 metric tons in 1937. It is used mostly for soap making, candles and dietary purposes. Even during the time that Japan was on gold, hardened oil was exported, so after the gold embargo was imposed exports increased.

The principal vegetable oils produced are soya bean and rapeseed oils. Linseed oil, perilla oil, hempseed oil, wood oil, sesame oil, cotton-seed oil, castor oil, groundnut oil, copra oil, camellia oil, etc., are also produced in considerable quantities. The production of soya bean oil in 1938 was 65,710 metric tons and rapeseed oil was 23,674 metric tons.

Of the principal vegetable oils produced in Japan, only wood and camellia oils and vegetable wax are pressed from domestically grown seeds, all the others are pressed from materials from abroad, the amount of imports in 1939 reaching ₹31,982,000.

Statistics Statistics for the vegetable and animal oil industry follows:

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE OILS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In yen)

Year	Rapeseed Oil	Sesameseed Oil	Groundnut Oil	Cottonseed Oil	Copra Oil	Soya Bean Oil
1934	13,676,703	2,610,393	487,009	3,169,850	2,648,436	14,054,936
1935	20,019,129	2,835,750	595,030	7,129,750	5,376,497	15,329,198
1936	22,722,629	4,093,982	383,134	1,304,904	5,658,785	18,986,848
1937	15,187,205	4,282,440	795,892	11,203,765	6,605,668	21,406,556
1938	14,430,848	3,662,453	3,845,874	4,131,408	8,999,893	22,297,902

(In yen)

Year	Linseed Oil	Perilla Oil	Paulownia Oil	Camellia Oil	Other Oils	Total
1934	3,903,933	4,998,884	250,286	402,232	3,402,745	49,605,407
1935	3,691,897	10,494,970	227,418	439,392	6,743,334	72,882,365
1936	3,874,551	17,929,318	344,452	470,853	9,432,094	91,201,550
1937	2,257,634	10,851,487	362,480	532,615	21,782,918	95,268,660
1938	1,968,843	6,655,260	526,778	502,743	10,612,821	77,634,823

OILS AND TALLOW

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PRODUCTION OF ANIMAL OILS AND TALLOW

(In yen)

Year	Cod Oil	Herring Oil	Sardine Oil	Whale Oil	Other Fish Oils
1934	300,741	23,547	602,816	672,638	980,416
1935	1,158,270	19,770	829,438	989,018	5,257,055
1936	2,360,108	16,506	6,056,412	1,617,192	4,669,603
1937	1,714,517	41,720	3,549,421	1,956,365	12,792,003
1938	1,627,459	14,814	4,294,824	2,111,815	7,865,834

(In yen)

Year	Puna Oil	Beef Tallow	Pork Tallow	Other Animal Tallow	Total
1934	110,803	630,051	287,470	791,678	4,400,160
1935	200,569	2,696,112	378,103	889,938	12,418,273
1936	262,013	943,558	450,064	387,030	16,768,476
1937	349,630	1,508,276	534,257	411,113	22,857,302
1938	1,174,886	1,174,494	409,128	1,379,296	20,055,550

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE WAX, CANDLES, AND MANUFACTURES OF OILS

(In yen)

Year	Wood Wax	Candles	Boiled Oil	Hardened Oil	Hardened Wax	Oleine	Stearine	Total of Manufactures
1934	1,705,148	5,095,485	3,373,463	13,223,601	404,608	693,608	3,895,385	21,590,665
1935	2,228,715	5,201,888	5,837,861	19,173,264	254,064	563,137	5,480,962	31,309,288
1936	2,463,958	7,057,847	7,172,709	21,849,043	440,692	605,173	5,028,891	35,096,508
1937	1,694,821	7,250,847	4,337,093	27,545,731	101,094	684,425	7,209,146	39,877,489
1938	2,554,768	9,099,999	6,625,830	30,670,785	434,635	491,444	4,656,372	42,979,066

IMPORTS OF VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL OILS, TALLOWES AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

(In yen)

Year	Olive Oil	Other Vegetable Oils	Beef Tallow	Hardened Oil	Total including Others
1935	908,625	—	2,340,363	—	—
1936	749,000	—	1,644,000	—	—
1937	1,234,000	6,891,000	1,949,000	124,000	197,509,000
1938	713,000	9,720,000	1,040,000	104,000	297,878,000
1939	253,000	2,312,000	431,000	848,000	326,934,000
		2,437,000	117,000	1,281,000	262,518,000

EXPORTS OF VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL OILS, WAX, AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

(In yen)

Year	Perilla Oil	Bean Oil	Rapeseed Oil	Fish Oil	Whale Oil	Vegetable Wax	Hardened Oil
1935	10,052,610	1,420,350	11,212,126	6,264,542	628,609	1,444,583	8,920,875
1936	14,981,000	931,000	10,547,000	9,306,000	874,000	1,812,000	10,002,000
1937	5,683,000	1,918,000	3,409,000	14,548,000	751,000	2,244,000	10,195,000
1938	1,287,000	329,000	2,095,000	—6,902,000—	—	1,475,000	4,651,000
1939	4,259,000	3,546,000	5,101,000	—5,802,000—	—	2,809,000	4,393,000

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

Rubber Industry

The rubber industry in Japan began with the establishment in 1886 of the Mitatsuchi Rubber Company, a limited-partnership concern, in Tokyo. The industry developed steadily through the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars of 1894-1895, and 1904-1905. In 1909 there were 20 mills, 900 workers and production reached ¥4,000,000 in value. During the World War the industry further developed. The earthquake of 1923 destroyed about 80% of the rubber manufacturing capacity of

Tokyo and Yokohama districts, and many people were gravely doubtful as to whether the rubber factories in those districts would ever revive, but reconstruction quickly took place and the factories rebuilt. In 1937 the total production in the country by mills employing more than 5 persons was as large as ¥184,764,000 in value, but the figure would be much larger if goods produced by people working in their own homes were included.

PRODUCTION OF RUBBER MANUFACTURES IN JAPAN

Soft Rubber Manufactures

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Shoes and Other Footwear		Toys	Tyres and Accessories	For Machinery
	Pairs	Value			
1934	44,305,294	25,102	3,547	40,588	491
1935	54,802,185	28,973	4,619	45,907	1,132
1936	44,390,727	31,790	4,984	51,066	859
1937	64,636,802	45,820	5,024	75,086	2,521
1938	55,395,702	36,988	4,864	60,459	8,587

Year	Soft Rubber Manufactures			Total	Hard Rubber Manufactures	Grand Total
	Belts	Rubber Pipes	Others			
1934	7,165	3,448	20,159	100,503	2,715	103,218
1935	8,262	4,422	23,113	116,406	2,620	119,026
1936	8,749	5,230	29,047	131,729	3,558	135,287
1937	13,871	7,560	44,011	193,896	7,814	201,710
1938	17,083	10,550	38,387	176,921	7,843	184,764

IMPORTS OF RAW RUBBER AND EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL RUBBER MANUFACTURES

(In yen)

Year	Imports of Raw Rubber	Exports of Principal Rubber Manufactures				Belts, Hoses, etc.
		Boots & Shoes	Tires for Rikisha, Bicycles & Other Vehicles	Toys		
1934	57,337,000	3,332,000	9,994,000	6,406,000		5,216,000
1935	51,636,065	2,699,337	9,945,667	4,195,171		6,568,000
1936	72,957,000	1,832,000	9,939,000	4,641,000		7,424,000
1937	99,217,000	2,886,000	12,983,000	4,279,000		10,215,000
1938	51,374,000	1,568,000	7,799,000	2,197,000		9,964,000
1939	57,490,000	363,000	9,562,000	2,383,000		13,823,000

Celluloid

General

The Japanese celluloid industry made considerable development during the World War. Owing to a heavy demand coming from European countries, where factories were closed by the War, Japanese celluloid products once dominated the world's markets, but with the termination of the War, foreign products quickly regained their position in the markets captured by Japan during the War, and for some years the industry was in a state of depression. Gradually penetration was effected by traders and exporters, and overseas markets were largely restored, especially after the replacement of the gold embargo in December 1931. The domestic market has been prosperous for many years, without being affected very much by changes in economic conditions.

The Dai Nippon Celluloid Kaisha is the largest manufacturer, with a subscribed capital of ¥20,000,000. 75 per

cent of the total production in Japan comes from this company, while the remaining 25 per cent is divided among about ten small manufacturing concerns. The company, which has a virtual monopoly of celluloid manufacturing in this country, concentrates its energies on exporting. Nearly 80 per cent of Japan's total exports of celluloid are the produce of this company.

The company is also the largest shareholder of the Fuji Photo-Film Company established in 1934 with a capital of ¥10,000,000. This company has a capacity of producing 150 million feet, and nearly monopolizes the manufacture of films in Japan, which amounted to ¥14,270,000 in 1939; the other film producing company being the Oriental Photo Industrial Company capitalized at ¥4,300,000.

Statistics Production of raw celluloid, celluloid manufactures, and exports of the same follow:

PRODUCTION OF CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid		Toys	Manufactures			Grand Total
	Quantity in metric ton	Value		Combs (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	
1934	10,393	20,277	1,636	1,090	4,640	7,367	27,644
1935	13,033	24,649	1,975	1,208	6,208	9,392	34,042
1936	13,813	24,439	1,989	1,169	5,796	8,956	33,396
1937	14,227	25,391	3,408	2,486	6,985	12,879	38,270
1938	11,902	24,090	1,833	1,979	8,999	12,812	36,902

EXPORTS OF RAW CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid		Toys	Combs (In ¥1,000)	Manufactures		Total	Grand Total
	Quantity in metric ton	Value			Armlets	Others		
1934	1,804	3,303	3,708	4,260	—	3,223	11,191	14,494
1935	2,033	3,469	6,054	4,414	1,983	3,089	15,550	19,021
1936	2,242	3,717	6,338	3,857	1,815	4,271	16,280	19,997
1937	2,100	3,952	7,606	4,854	2,711	5,403	20,574	24,576
1938	1,225	2,730	4,841	2,851	1,664	4,044	13,400	16,130
1939	1,203	3,152	4,510	2,596	1,294	4,162	12,562	15,714
1940 (Jan.- Sept.)	1,174	3,714	3,627	1,868	690	2,138	3,323	12,037

Dyestuffs

Through Governmental protection extending over many years, the Japanese dyestuff industry is now well established. Japan supplies 99 per cent of all sulphuric dyes demanded domestically. Concerning ratios of high-grade dye supplies, Japan can supply 86 per

cent of miscellaneous dyes, 85 per cent of acid dyes, 88 per cent of mordant dyes and 94 per cent of vat dyes for internal use. Research in producing these dyes is under way by the Mitsui Mining and Japan Dyestuff Manufacturing Companies. The Teikoku Senryo-

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

(Imperial Dyestuffs Manufacturing) Company is another producer of dyestuffs capitalized at ¥5,000,000.

On account of the development of the iron manufacturing industry, Japan is now well provided with coal-tar, material required for the production of dyestuffs. Accordingly, efforts are now being made to promote the dyestuff industry with a view to making the country self-sufficient and self-supplied in dyestuffs.

Imports of dyestuffs are decreasing, because of State control of trade and the advance of the industry in Japan, although somewhat increased in 1939 as shown below:

IMPORTS OF DYESTUFFS

	1937	1938	1939
	(In ¥1,000)		
Colors			
Basic	1,246	145	217
Direct	4,708	834	1,308
Acid	2,537	644	803
Mordant and intermediate	2,651	389	364
Vat	4,079	366	399
Others	1,707	460	416
Total	16,928	2,838	3,507

Note: The total quantity was 2,257 metric tons in 1937, 253 metric tons in 1938 and 306 metric tons in 1939.

The domestic production of dyes during 1938 compared with the preceding four years and exports of Japan-made dyes since 1934, follow:

PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

Year	Basic		Direct		Acid		Mordant	
	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000
1934	765	4,266	2,183	6,816	554	2,091	178	750
1935	677	3,774	2,700	7,726	756	2,781	341	1,409
1936	994	4,569	2,998	8,808	977	3,984	264	1,206
1937	1,058	5,541	3,812	13,584	775	3,831	493	2,099
1938	892	4,908	4,591	18,985	675	4,509	438	2,765

Year	Sulphide		Artificial Indigo		Vat Colors		Others	Others and Total
	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Quantity 1,000kg.	Value ¥1,000	Value ¥1,000	Value ¥1,000
1934	12,144	5,107	1,724	3,803	28	400		27,446
1935	12,450	4,673	2,816	5,760	26	627		31,265
1936	11,198	3,684	1,740	4,794	29	506		33,721
1937	13,160	5,410	2,228	6,264	323	1,303		45,140
1938	18,879	9,148	1,624	4,170	387	2,080		50,038

PRODUCTION OF ANILINE AND INTERMEDIATES

	Aniline		Others and Total
	Quantity in 1,000kg.	Value in ¥1,000	
1934	3,821	3,033	8,492
1935	4,043	2,924	12,077
1936	3,943	2,328	13,115
1937	4,788	5,081	25,581
1938	7,050	10,670	44,382
1939 (estim.)	6,143	8,799	—

EXPORTS OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

	Quantity in metric ton	Value in ¥1,000
1934	6,423	4,259
1935	8,882	7,304
1936	7,000	5,990
1937	6,062	6,269
1938	6,749	7,768
1939	13,218	18,532

Indigo Indigo is one of the indispensable dyestuffs for dyeing Japanese cloth and the material is obtained from

various grasses. The production of this natural material was as follows:

DYESTUFFS, PYRETHRUM

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PRODUCTION OF INDIGO BALLS

Year	Coarse Indigo		Indigo Balls	
	Quantity Metric ton	Value ¥1,000	Quantity Metric ton	Value ¥1,000
1933	1,181	396	298	83
1934	1,176	314	326	105
1935	1,128	303	269	87

Year	Coarse Indigo		Indigo Balls	
	Quantity Metric ton	Value ¥1,000	Quantity Metric ton	Value ¥1,000
1936	1,169	347	320	109
1937	1,182	346	322	112
1938	1,493	408	322	78

Pyrethrum

Hokkaido is noted for producing the pyrethrum flower, the raw material for anti-insect powder largely used for making mosquito incense and anti-bed bug powder. Pyrethrum was formerly exported through Kobé merchants, but owing to inconvenience the Hokkaido Government encouraged direct shipments from Hokkaido, the first direct shipment being made in September 1933. The Hokkaido Government also caused pyrethrum manufacturers to organize the Manufactured Pyrethrum Industrial Guild, as the first step to the export of manufactured pyrethrum abroad, which had hitherto been exported in the shape of dried flowers. As an international commodity, manufactured pyrethrum is steadily gaining ground, and under the encouragement of their government, the Hokkaido pyrethrum raisers are manufacturing it for

direct export to the United States, Saigon, Bangkok, Rangoon, Manila, Singapore, Sourabaya, Batavia, Calcutta and Bombay, and to such European markets as London, Hamburg and Paris. Wakayama prefecture is also noted for raising pyrethrum flowers. Production and exports of pyrethrum during the last few years follow:

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF PYRETHRUM

(Quantity in metric ton; value in ¥1,000)

Year	Production		Exports	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1934	7,798	10,574	5,630	7,447
1935	12,746	7,332	7,665	6,400
1936	11,051	5,710	5,808	3,207
1937	9,560	8,214	8,844	7,893
1938	9,477	12,053	4,621	6,103
1939	9,574	18,340	3,823	7,149

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Industrial Chemicals	1936	1937	1938
Sulphuric acid	47,870	68,712	71,075
Hydrochloric acid	4,372	5,775	6,564
Soda ash	23,145	29,227	51,353
Washing soda	262	227	497
Carbonate of soda	2,253	2,247	1,530
Caustic soda	34,026	64,197	91,088
Carbide	36,620	43,893	40,572
Chromic acid	930	1,109	1,278
Chromic soda	1,738	1,991	2,655
Iodine	260	405	488
Iodide of potassium	297	512	408
Bleaching powder	4,256	5,609	5,792
Compressed gas:			
Oxygen	9,545	9,599	15,447
Hydrogen	2,177	1,844	2,903

Industrial Chemicals	1936	1937	1938
Chlorine	1,765	1,536	1,879
Carbon	402	503	606
Others	496	855	1,299
Total	14,386	14,338	22,137
Acetic acid	5,207	6,617	7,554
Salicylic acid	367	1,128	1,037
Tannic acid	323	334	555
Naphthalene	2,109	2,005	2,493
Acetone	426	641	—
Methanol	1,352	2,472	—
Alcohol	2,595	3,049	6,766
Ether	987	1,179	1,454
Glycerine	10,508	23,136	13,697
Phosphorus	1,379	1,442	1,427
Glauber's salt	1,532	2,484	2,947
Sulphide soda	2,108	3,894	4,686
Silicic soda	1,547	1,798	2,573
Chloride of potash	112	101	254

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

	1936	1937	1938		1936	1937	1938
Niter	1,024	1,522	2,435	Vegetable oil and wax	90,157	100,313	78,951
Ammonium nitrate	536	551	1,632	Camphor	8,931	9,676	8,039
Magnesium carbonate	3,694	4,097	2,868	Camphor oil	1,642	1,281	1,232
Chloride of lead	824	1,738	2,075	Peppermint oil and menthol	9,280	11,149	10,219
Alum	897	1,054	1,414	Other-vegetable volatile oil	876	1,317	1,707
Sulphuric aluminium	1,639	2,112	2,408	Animal oil and wax	16,768	22,857	20,055
Others	119,871	207,359	267,404	Wood-wax	2,463	1,694	2,554
Total of Industrial chemicals	329,467	506,949	621,222	Candles	7,057	7,250	9,099
Medicines	113,319	123,573	155,308	Worked oils	35,096	39,877	42,979
Dyestuffs	46,836	70,730	94,427	Rubber manufactures	135,288	201,710	184,764
Tannin extract	198	388	403	Phenol manufactures	7,447	14,973	19,021
Artificial perfumery	4,943	5,250	5,311	Gramophone disk	19,299	15,263	18,160
Paints:				Pulp	47,796	65,415	81,567
Lacquer	1,072	2,387	2,632	Paper	250,983	335,646	364,048
Varnish	11,318	11,064	16,948	Celluloid	33,396	38,270	36,902
Enamel	6,389	5,940	8,848	Vulcanized fiber	4,017	7,329	8,089
Paint for boats	1,963	2,178	3,384	Rayon yarn	212,974	332,357	407,429
Paint for nitrate cotton	2,383	915	4,078	Film for photograph	4,666	6,715	9,965
Shoe-cream	825	1,222	1,689	Dry-plate	2,042	1,899	3,714
Total including others	37,804	46,105	65,982	Negative paper	4,129	5,546	8,491
Colors:				Fertilizers	291,531	379,883	417,304
Colors for painting	2,771	2,119	2,298	Worked fur	626	1,134	5,336
Indian ink	912	1,347	1,259	Glue and gelatine	5,528	9,084	12,683
Printing ink	8,682	8,967	9,348	Polishing powder	1,860	2,206	2,663
Other ink	4,348	4,844	5,207	Other articles for polishing	3,428	6,247	12,184
Flowers of zinc	6,697	11,208	11,621	Carbon manufactures (Electrode)	12,455	17,441	30,165
Total including others	36,715	45,532	44,743	Coke	(9,581)	12,106	—
Soap	51,908	55,087	72,196		79,278	150,147	203,309
Articles for toilet:				Grand total including others	2,202,362	3,070,245	3,657,418
Perfume	1,297	1,446	2,249				
Perfume oil	3,904	6,093	6,667				
Tooth powder	7,534	11,219	14,865				
Face-paint	7,809	7,871	8,727				
Beauty-wash	3,280	4,684	5,447				
Toilet-cream	9,748	12,217	15,314				
Total including others	43,438	49,292	60,939				
Explosives	25,018	35,918	43,750				

Note: Figures are for production of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed, and do not coincide with figures given elsewhere for certain articles.

1937 1938

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9,676 8.69

1,261 1.22

1,149 10.23

1,317 1.77

2,837 20.65

1,694 4.39

1,250 0.92

1,577 42.95

710 18.54

973 19.11

363 15.31

15 81.57

16 50.15

70 30.51

29 5.55

97 40.53

5 4.95

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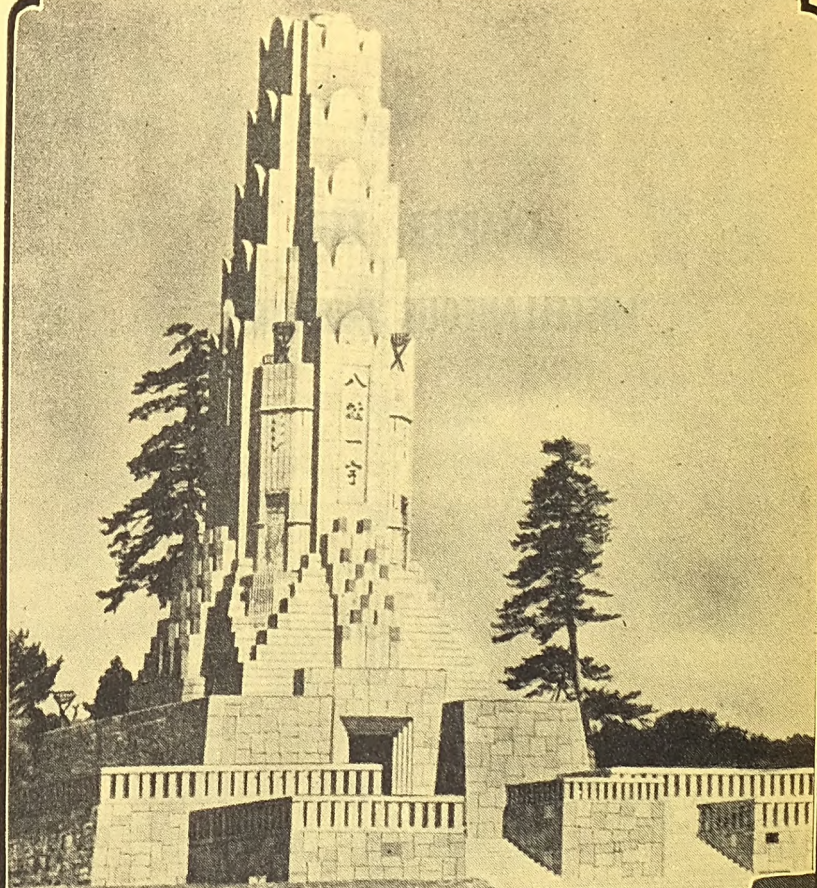
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CHAPTER XXII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES



The OHBAYASHI-GUMI had the Honor to undertake the Construction of this TOWER OF HAKKO ICHIU at Miyazaki, Kyushu.

OHBAYASHI-GUMI, LTD.

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SUGAR

**Soft
Cube
Alcohol**



**Granulated
Plantation White
Centrifugal**

DAI-NIPPON SEITO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(The Dai-Nippon Sugar Mfg. Co., Ltd.)

Established in 1895

Aiichiro Fujiyama, President

Authorized Capital ¥ 96,170,000

Paid-up Capital ¥ 85,082,500

Branch Subdivision:

Showa Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo, Japan

Cable Address: "Sugar" Tokyo

Codes Used: A. B. C. 6th Edition & Bentley's

Branches: Nagoya & Keijo

Refineries: Moji & Heijo

Mills: Formosa, Korea, Java, & Daitojima

CHAPTER XXII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Wheat Flour

Before the Russo-Japanese War It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) that the wheat flour industry made any progress in Japan. Prior to the war there was a fairly large consumption, but manufacturing was only in the infant stage, most of the production being with the help of water-wheels. The daily output by this method was only 10 to 50 or 60 bags; the quality was poor and not uniform and, being packed in straw bags, the product was not at all satisfactory. It was only in the year 1895 that wheat flour was first produced on a modern basis by machinery. In that year, the Nippon Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., began to operate mills with a capacity of 200 koku per day, and gradually, mills with a capacity of 50 to 100 koku a day were established, but progress was very slow. However, the demand for flour increased and as production could not keep pace with it imports naturally increased. In 1895, imports were 280,000 bags, valued at ¥400,000, ten years later imports increased to 4,990,000 bags, valued at ¥9,950,000. Imported and water-mill produced domestic flour together satisfied practically the whole of home consumption, while domestic flour made by machinery formed but a very small part of the supply. The imported flour coming chiefly from the United States of America, was of a far superior quality to the home product.

After the Russo-Japanese War Many flour mills were established on a modern basis during the time of the great boom which followed the Russo-Japanese War, and production capacity was greatly expanded, but a contraction was brought about by the closing down of many of the newly established mills when the reaction later set in. In 1914, when the World War started the capacity of production by machinery was 9,060 barrels and this, by 1922, had in-

creased to over 20,000 barrels. During those seven years the industry experienced unprecedented prosperity, and with this development on modern lines, domestic producers who made flour in the old-fashioned way lost nearly all their customers and, further, imported flour was practically shut out of the country.

The Industry at Present After 1918 the demand for wheat flour, keeping pace with the advance in the standard of living, greatly increased. The extended westernization of the country in recent years largely accounts for this and has brought about a consequent heavy demand for wheat. Home production has not increased to meet the demand, the result being, as the following tables show, a heavy annual importation of wheat. An attempt, therefore, has been made by the Government to increase domestic production through tariff and increase of wheat acreage, in which they were highly successful. The production increased very much in 1933 in proportion to the increased acreage, which was further accelerated in 1935, when an all-time record high was established. The production in 1936 decreased by 7.2 per cent as compared with the preceding year. But, 1937 production recorded highest in the history with 9,996,048 koku. In 1938, it decreased to 8,971,000 koku, but the following year again established a new record.

PRODUCTION OF DOMESTIC WHEAT AND ITS ACREAGE

Year	Production koku	Acreage cho
1936	8,961,329	688,959
1937	9,996,048	724,602
1938	8,971,563	725,100
1939	12,113,058	746,000
1940	13,093,500	841,200
1941	10,665,000	826,000

SCCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

C ANTITIES OF WHEAT IMPORTED

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Countries from Which Imported					Total	
	China	U.S.A.	Canada	Australia	Manchou- kuo	Including Others	Value (In ¥1,000)
1935	3,000	45,994	881,786	5,558,084	—	7,417,300	43,199
1936	321,947	61,818	164,000	2,812,246	236,149	5,171,076	33,650
1937	25,202	18,860	65,500	1,679,998	205,988	3,114,102	29,604
1938	53,665	—	—	510,235	298,172	1,104,416	9,557
1939	279,500	—	13,863	40,100	—	539,090	4,090

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FLOUR

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Countries to Which Exported				Others and Total (In 1,000 yen)	Value
	Manchoukuo	China	Kwantung L.T.	Dutch East Indies		
1935	2,035,048	29,123	2,366,348	10,323	4,819,629	33,699
1936	736,486	89,965	1,065,858	19,500	2,165,330	17,621
1937	231,900	1,283,384	1,047,577	9,700	2,683,066	30,745
1938	1,198,597	1,880,771	1,679,180	200	4,758,869	60,715
1939	1,460,500	436,600	1,554,400	—	—	54,227

FLOUR PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, ETC.

(In bags)

Year	Production	Import	Export	Home Consumption and in Stock
1935	49,700,000	93,000	13,026,000	36,767,000
1936	38,993,000	104,000	5,852,000	33,242,000
1937	38,335,000	410,000	7,251,000	31,159,000
1938	42,964,000	19,000	12,862,000	30,121,000
1939	37,957,000	122,000	9,328,000	28,951,000

Note: A bag=37 kin. Figures for production are based on the investigation of the Nisshin Flour Company.

Sugar

History and Development The art of making sugar was introduced from China about two hundred years ago, but no great progress is recorded in sugar manufacture until after the Restoration, and even then it remained as a farmers' sideline until the end of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when Taiwan, well-known for its sugar production, was ceded to Japan by China. This marked a new era in the sugar industry. In 1896, a sugar refining company was organized in Osaka and from that time the industry began to develop.

The Government undertook to levy a duty on raw sugar in 1899, and, by successive steps, this duty has reached the present rate. In 1911, a tariff of a

similar nature was imposed, for the first time, on refined sugar.

In view of the fact that Taiwan is ideal both in temperature and rainfall for cane growing, the Government decided to encourage the establishment of sugar mills in the Island. With this in view it established the Temporary Sugar Bureau as a branch of the Government of Taiwan. The Bureau subsidized sugar companies in establishing sugar mills and purchasing the required machinery. It imported cane seedlings and distributed them to cane growers. It gave, too, subsidies for the purchase of fertilizers, and in various other ways succeeded in dispensing as subsidies, up to 1924, a sum amounting to more than thirteen

million yen. As the result of these subsidies, the industry has developed to the present stage. In 1902, the production of raw sugar in Taiwan was only about 600,000 piculs, but by 1931 this had increased to over 13,000,000 piculs.

In 1901, the Taiwan Sugar Co., Ltd., was organized. Raw sugar mills with all new machines were established and war was declared against the old-fashioned machines which were only able to produce raw brown sugar. Development was destined to be slow, for the plantations and mills were subject to

attacks from the native savages, but this difficulty was gradually overcome and during the prosperity that visited Japan after the Russo-Japanese War, many new companies were organized and the industry developed rapidly.

Present State The sugar industry in Shikoku, Kyushu, and the Loochoo Islands is making no headway, but that in Taiwan and the South Sea Islands is rapidly progressing, and at present it is the Taiwan sugar that controls the sugar market in Japan. Refining is making good progress in Japan proper.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR

(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Year	Taiwan	Japan Proper	Hokkaido (Beet)	Chosen	South Sea Islands	Total
1931-1932	16,484	1,651	405	29	696	19,266
1932-1933	10,561	1,712	402	—	729	13,406
1933-1934	10,783	1,551	383	—	750	13,469
1934-1935	16,094	1,752	587	—	1,135	19,568
1935-1936	15,034	1,981	515	—	819	18,351
1936-1937	16,789	1,559	678	—	961	20,037
1937-1938	16,496	1,715	694	—	1,241	20,210
1938-1939	23,645	2,390	681	—	1,170	27,951
1939-1940	18,879	1,823	415	58	1,025	22,200
1940-1941	13,625	1,412	429	—	988	16,454
1941-1942	18,357	1,173	522	—	786	20,838

Source: The report of the Japan Sugar Association.

EXPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY DESTINATION

(In piculs)

Year	China	Manchou-kuo	Kwan-tung	Total including Others
1931	1,895,667	88,922	370,810	2,622,211
1932	466,877	54,790	799,840	1,389,507
1933	901,525	96,703	1,015,941	2,172,317
1934	1,041,527	162,255	715,093	2,019,868
1935	1,481,898	227,389	792,578	2,669,213
1936	905,171	193,222	1,780,225	2,978,643
1937	1,159,358	216,087	1,001,814	2,482,145
1938	701,882	293,775	1,271,668	2,267,853
1939	986,500	236,800	637,400	1,860,800
1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	79,700	2,500	3,300	474,700

IMPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY ORIGINS

(In piculs)

Year	Java	Total including Others
1931	3,304,251	3,305,275
1932	644,927	671,299
1933	2,184,499	2,210,124
1934	1,727,188	1,732,188
1935	2,323,117	2,341,841
1936	3,396,964	3,900,079
1937	2,698,347	2,845,068
1938	635,183	639,858
1939	13,100	13,600
1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	400	1,700

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SUGAR IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Taiwan Government-General)

(In 1,000 piculs)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Production in Japan proper	2,118.7	1,946.1	2,316.8	2,505.2	2,237.4	2,410.3
Imports from foreign countries	2,210.1	1,732.1	2,341.8	3,600.0	2,845.0	639.8

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Imports from territories	10,541.1	11,616.3	15,152.5	13,076.6	13,043.4	12,411.8
Exports to foreign countries	2,172.3	2,019.8	2,669.2	2,978.6	2,482.1	2,267.8
Exports to territories	162.3	211.4	227.9	241.2	236.5	245.0
Consumption in Japan proper	12,535.3	13,063.3	16,914.0	15,962.0	15,407.2	12,949.1
Consumption per capita (Unit: kin)	18.56	19.06	24.30	22.61	21.52	17.85

Note: Readers are referred to Chapter XLI, Taiwan, where the conditions of the sugar manufacturing industry in that island are mentioned in detail.

Brewing

Beer

History Beer was brewed in Japan about 85 years ago by a certain scholar, Ko Kawamoto, who, as he learned how to brew it when he visited Admiral Perry's fleet, on the latter's visit to Japan, tried to brew on his own private account. In 1870, beer was brewed for the first time on a modern industrial basis by an American, Gobland, at Amanuma, Yokohama. Four years later, Marquis K. Kuroda saw that the soil of Hokkaido was particularly suitable for barley, so he established a brewery in Sapporo, and soon others were built in Meguro, Tokyo, in Suita, Osaka, in Hodogaya, Yokohama, and other places, and the industry has so developed that at present Japan has 4 brewery companies and fifteen breweries with a total capacity of about 2,000,000 koku. But

in recent years curtailment is required by the Government in connection with the national provision control policy. The consumption of beer in Japan proper in 1938 amounted to 1,180,000 koku.

		Brewery Production Value	
		in koku	in ¥1,000
1935	14	1,047,213	91,805
1936	15	1,312,496	104,988
1937	15	1,275,055	115,382
1938	15	1,472,408	148,369
1939 (estimate)	15	1,784,427	—
1940 (")	15	1,465,602	—
1941 (")	15	1,465,995	—

Exports of Beer The exports of beer in 1939 amounted to 179,192 koku. Exports to the yen bloc area greatly decreased, while those to third countries increased largely because of trade control.

EXPORTS OF BEER

(Quantity in koku and value in ¥1,000)

Destination	1936		1937		1938		1939	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	28,497	1,158	7,507	308	12,246	525	8,350	364
Kwantung L. T.	41,466	1,750	52,680	1,980	41,481	1,646	26,398	1,096
China	12,679	555	23,523	944	149,811	6,034	106,865	5,148
Hongkong	2,841	149	2,121	106	1,696	56	1,407	71
British India	13,926	650	16,959	753	12,986	639	15,468	787
Straits Stmts.	2,880	140	2,973	141	1,493	63	1,645	99
Dutch Indies	3,108	164	2,481	126	1,338	62	2,119	119
Others and total	132,503	5,912	134,977	5,686	240,488	10,019	179,192	8,602

Japanese Saké

History Japanese saké, brewed from rice, has been the principal alcoholic liquor of the Japanese from olden times. It is brewed everywhere in the country, but the most famous places are the "Nada Gogo," or five villages in Hyogo prefecture, the climatic conditions of which are peculiarly suited for its production. In recent years, Hiroshima and

Fukuoka prefectures have also begun to brew saké of superior grade. The best rice for saké brewing is raised in Kumamoto, Hyogo and Okayama prefectures.

As saké has been the chief drink of the people for many centuries it has been heavily taxed all along. In 1879, a tax of ¥2 per koku was levied and since then the rate has been gradually increased until it now amounts to ¥45

per koku and brings in an annual revenue to the Government of ¥200,000,000.

No study of brewing saké on a scientific basis was started until as late as 1895. In 1904, a Brewery Experimental Station was established by the Government, at Oji, Tokyo, various experiments were made, and many good experts trained. The art of brewing has now

advanced a great deal and the quality of saké brewed has become practically uniform. The quantity now brewed annually is about 5,000,000 koku nearly all of which is consumed at home, only 90,000 koku being exported to China and several other countries.

Present Condition Production of various kinds of saké in recent years is as follows:

PRODUCTION OF SAKE BY KINDS

(In 1,000 koku)

Year (Oct.-Sept.)	No. of Brew- eries (Sept.)	Refined Saké	Unrefined Saké	White Saké	Sweet Saké	Distilled Saké	Total
1930-31	9,905	3,851	6	6	70	455	4,121
1931-32	9,570	3,284	5	6	87	445	3,829
1932-33	9,236	3,807	5	6	100	509	4,429
1933-34	8,971	4,012	6	6	92	528	4,646
1934-35	8,745	3,772	5	6	87	499	4,371
1935-36	8,580	3,784	5	6	97	534	4,426
1936-37	8,423	3,983	5	5	105	542	4,641
1937-38	8,260	4,069	5	5	92	556	4,729

Supply and Demand According to the report of the Japan Saké Brewers' Association the shipment of refined saké in recent years were as follows:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SAKE (Saké Brewers' Association figures)

(In koku)

Saké Year (October-September)	Production	Shipped	Stock
1933-34	4,314,096	3,857,112	2,526,894
1934-35	4,068,794	3,852,846	2,407,572
1935-36	4,282,610	4,098,128	2,366,661
1936-37	4,378,687	3,998,369	2,314,734
1937-38	3,966,915	4,274,244	1,803,502
1938-39	2,453,059	2,888,879	1,255,579

Wine The following are the annual figures for the production of wine in recent years:

PRODUCTION OF WINE

Year (March-Feb.)	No. of Wineries	Production in koku
1933-34	10,124	13,613
1934-35	11,710	18,424
1935-36	12,190	19,066
1936-37	12,408	19,276
1937-38	12,316	31,449

According to the "Factory Statistics" published by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry the value of all kinds of spirits produced in recent years was as follows, refined saké comprising over 62 per cent of the total.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ALL KINDS OF SPIRITS

Year	Value in yen
1934	384,199,683
1935	404,133,245
1936	435,661,300
1937	492,830,805
1938	568,385,820

Flavors

Oriental flavors are produced in considerable quantities as indispensable for Japanese cooking. The production of soy, or Japanese sauce made of wheat, in factories amounted to 5,566,815 hectoliters valued at ¥94,097,842 in 1938, that of miso, or bean-mash, 243,145 metric tons valued at ¥35,278,295. Saké-lees is used as soup or a soft drink, the production in the same year amounting to ¥9,522,194. The production of vinegar amounted to 661,758 hectoliters valued at ¥2,274,350.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOY, MISO, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Soy	Miso	Vinegar	Saké- lees	Sauce and Ke'chun
1933	61,257	16,535	1,953	6,558	3,165
1934	65,477	18,201	2,026	6,114	3,548
1935	65,767	20,124	2,214	6,748	4,163
1936	71,025	22,582	2,051	6,706	4,801
1937	82,118	26,619	2,403	8,371	5,756
1938	94,097	35,278	2,274	9,522	5,123

Soft Drinks

As Japan is geologically blessed with mineral springs, the people were not slow to study their medicinal effects, and hot springs were used as baths from the olden times. As to the utilization of mineral spring water for drinking purposes, mineral water from Rokko Mountain in Hyogo prefecture was the first of its kind that was put on the market.

This was as late as 1833, and the drink was named "Mitsuya Hiranosui." Three years later, some Englishmen taught the making of artificially aerated water and with the importation of Codd's bottles and syphon-bottles the manufacture of sweetened aerated water originated. These drinks soon became very popular and the industry made rapid development. After the Russo-Japanese War, "Champion" cider was put on the market to be soon followed by lemonade, citron, and different kinds of syrup, etc.

At present the total production of soft drinks amounts to 710,000 koku a year, of which sweetened drinks account for 93%, the rest being ordinary unflavored aerated water or soda-water. Producers of soft drinks may be roughly divided into two classes. The first of these is composed of those who manufacture the drinks along with beer. These have good equipment and produce on a large scale. The second class is made up of those many who produce on a small scale and sell their products locally.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In yen)

	Cider	Ramune	Syrup	Others	Total
1931	8,509,936	1,803,975	970,528	2,668,945	13,953,384
1932	6,976,626	1,676,215	1,073,595	3,721,403	13,447,839
1933	14,132,015	1,424,789	1,182,207	2,950,569	19,689,580
1934	7,801,890	1,600,975	1,848,819	5,495,852	16,747,536
1935	10,365,531	1,611,915	1,615,720	4,023,263	17,616,429
1936	8,741,324	1,724,488	2,118,519	6,394,987	18,979,818
1937	10,703,174	2,108,597	2,625,136	6,367,072	21,803,979
1938	22,776,769	3,330,277	3,447,235	8,290,442	37,844,723

Canning

The canning industry in Japan was started as early as 1870, but the real impetus to its development was given by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars as they created a great demand for canned provisions for the Army and Navy. The Treaty of Portsmouth also served to further encourage this industry by giving Japan fishing rights in Kamchatka and the Maritime Province of Siberia, and together with the development of can manufacturing and floating canneries, the above have been the cause of the great progress in the canning industry as a whole.

Present Conditions At present, the packing industry in Japan is in a fairly developed state in all of its branches.

Canned meats have reached a stage where the quantity of production cannot be increased. The demand for meat in Japan has expanded so far that supply cannot keep pace with demand, a shortage of cattle is being felt and a plentiful supply for canning is not forthcoming. On the other hand, canned vegetables, such as canned bamboo shoots, are finding good markets in the U.S.A. and China. Of all the fruits procurable in cans pineapples are the most popular with the Japanese. They are produced in Taiwan, and of the 450,000 cases or more that are packed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Taiwan, and only

a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U.S.A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red

and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. The variety of canned provisions has greatly increased in recent few years, mainly for exports, the value of which reached 132 million yen in 1939, placing canned provisions among the major articles of Japan's foreign trade.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Compiled by The Canned Foods Association of Japan)

	Quantity (In 1,000 Cases)			Value (In ¥1,000)		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Live-stock products:						
Meat	85	120	225	1,513	2,148	4,950
Meat-vegetable	30	75	175	345	870	2,275
Pork	65	70	75	875	966	1,238
Condensed milk	853	946	1,230	12,828	14,414	22,146
Total including others	1,065	1,246	1,770	14,076	18,965	31,778
Fishery products:						
Salmon and trout	2,400	2,524	2,438	47,293	50,953	58,663
Crab ("Taraba")	341	438	524	16,476	21,976	27,485
Other crabs	37	70	75	1,040	2,448	2,656
Tunny	560	682	392	5,174	8,019	5,510
Mackerel	270	527	181	110	3,825	1,577
Bonito	90	285	225	630	2,280	2,250
Sardine	—	2,067	1,550	—	13,463	10,357
Clam and "Asari"	44	49	229	360	322	1,944
Total including others	5,485	7,735	6,681	85,835	118,034	125,192
Fruit:						
Pineapple	1,181	1,100	1,631	8,622	7,650	12,721
Peach	95	85	155	758	808	1,628
Pear	15	35	165	138	333	1,568
Mandarin orange	920	1,224	1,941	4,876	7,346	11,644
Fruits-salad	17	25	70	255	400	1,120
"Mitsu-mame"	25	105	165	263	1,155	1,865
Jam	92	105	115	1,270	1,523	1,783
Total including others	2,512	2,879	4,586	17,689	20,620	35,917
Vegetable:						
"Fukushin zuké"	90	120	150	873	1,260	1,575
Asparagus	27	42	69	500	798	1,318
Peas	100	116	128	750	881	1,048
Red-peas	45	135	380	518	1,553	4,484
Bamboo-shoots	698	532	757	5,581	4,310	6,131
Total including others	1,130	1,298	2,154	10,000	12,400	21,492
Grand total	10,192	13,159	15,191	127,600	170,019	214,379

Note: In regard to canned fish and shell-fish, see Chapter XV, Fisheries.

EXPORTS OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Meats	260	563	2,029	1,462
Crabs	17,200	19,874	15,244	30,323
Salmon and trout	26,939	27,492	38,463	35,999

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Other fish and shell-fish	15,272	24,149	17,045	22,964
Vegetable	1,517	1,995	3,298	7,248
Fruit	6,219	8,130	9,880	22,193
Total value including others in ¥1,000	71,077	86,905	92,819	132,009
Total quantity in picul	1,914,622	2,446,910	2,526,234	3,035,679

Note: In regard to the exports by destination, see Chapter XI, Foreign Trade. Imports of canned foods were 35,933 piculs valued ¥1,341,000 in 1937, 9,073 piculs valued at ¥372,000 in 1938 and 2,350 piculs valued at ¥122,000 in 1939.

Other Important Foodstuffs Manufactured in Factories

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF BREAD AND SWEETMEAT

(In yen)

Year	Confec- tionaries	Bread (including sweet bread)	Mizu-amé (wheat- gluten)
1934	95,088,745	5,870,740	14,020,795
1935	113,597,091	7,845,029	16,453,729
1936	119,285,645	10,261,173	20,173,231
1937	147,992,513	13,227,103	21,115,889
1938	178,775,867	13,799,966	24,881,545

VALUE OF MILK PRODUCTS

(In yen)

Year	Condensed milk	Butter	Total including Others
1934	9,393,650	2,827,081	21,210,448
1935	10,981,471	3,353,572	22,277,166
1936	10,662,310	3,054,820	24,036,598
1937	14,273,479	4,376,013	32,604,489
1938	13,609,870	6,702,072	38,406,972

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ARTIFICIAL BUTTER, ETC.

(In yen)

Year	Ham and Bacon	Artificial Butter	Salt	Vermicelli, Buckwheat- vermicelli, etc.	Starch
1934	1,185,868	575,965	4,121,651	5,492,733	9,683,397
1935	1,288,078	619,655	4,268,815	6,545,790	12,624,831
1936	1,781,196	928,591	4,168,491	7,716,469	17,018,911
1937	2,570,197	1,403,233	4,720,265	9,256,749	28,298,060
1938	2,678,296	1,136,134	7,410,145	9,448,266	40,769,900

PRODUCTION OF TEA

(Quantity in metric ton, Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Green Tea (Superior)		Green Tea (Common)		Japanese Black Tea		Black Tea		Total including Others
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Value
1934	115	419	22,741	11,891	1,998	756	1,414	842	15,122
1935	194	507	24,788	13,035	2,451	793	1,324	706	16,576
1936	220	555	26,845	15,697	4,641	1,535	552	1,190	19,990
1937	218	459	29,332	20,998	3,258	1,419	4,099	3,741	29,217
1938	433	391	24,996	14,372	10,635	5,015	3,887	2,743	24,467

The above table is made from the "Factory Statistics" figures, and include only production by the tea makers who

employ more than 5 operatives. Figures of the production by all tea makers are given in Chapter XIII, Agriculture, Tea.

**VALUE OF TOTAL OUTPUT OF THE FOODSTUFFS
MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY**

Year	Value in yen	Year	Value in yen
1930	949,929,039	1935	1,159,491,963
1931	834,687,469	1936	1,245,961,247
1932	886,272,905	1937	1,467,587,385
1933	1,017,580,798	1938	1,752,659,634
1934	1,040,681,846	1939	2,331,900,000

Note: Figures are from the "Factory Statistics" which is compiled on the basis of reports of private factories in Japan proper under the Factory Law, and gives ¥102,362,910 as the amount of production of canned foods in 1938 instead of ¥214,379,000 mentioned above.

Cement

History In 1871, cement works were established by the Government in Fukagawa, Tokyo. This was the origin of the cement industry in Japan. For ten years the works gradually expanded so that by 1891, the total capital invested in the industry was ¥1,000,000, the works numbered ten and the capacity was about 300,000 barrels a year.

In 1898, there were sixteen works with an aggregate capacity of 1,000,000 bbls, and imports were entirely excluded. In 1912, there were nineteen companies and twenty three mills. The total capital invested amounted to ¥18,000,000 while the capacity increased to 4,000,000 bbls.

During the World War, the industry enjoyed unprecedented prosperity and expanded rapidly. New companies were formed and new mills added. At the end of 1926, companies numbered twenty-one with thirty-four mills, the total authorized capital was ¥118,000,000 of which ¥85,000,000 was paid up, and the total production capacity increased to 17,500,000 bbls.

During the last twenty years, demand for cement increased every year with five exceptions, there was a 2% decrease in 1912 and a 10% in 1915 and 1919. The average rate of increase was about 11%. But in 1930, domestic consumption suddenly decreased by 12%, the first time that any such sharp decrease had ever been experienced. The decrease was due to the general depression and the economic retrenchment policy of the Government following the removal of the gold

embargo in January 1930. In 1931, there was a further decrease, but in 1932, with general activity in industry being felt, there was some recovery over the previous two years.

The Industry in Recent Years For some years in the past, the interest of cement industry in Japan centered on the question of the adjustment of over-extended capacity of production. The result is a large curtailment of production.

In 1925 capacity was about 50 per cent larger than the output, which became almost 100 per cent in 1934. In recent years the greatest consumption of cement, including domestic consumption and export, was 480,000 tons in May 1934, while the production capacity at the end of November of the same year was 1,020,000 tons a month. For almost a year 57 per cent of the Cement Associations (Cement Rengokai) capacity has been curtailed.

The cause of this abnormal condition of the industry is found in the fact that in fixing production curtailment ratio of the member companies of the Rengokai, it has been based on the capacities of production of the members. This led the member companies to expand capacities to get larger shares of business. The situation culminated in the latter part of 1934 in forcing the Ministry of Commerce and Industry to apply the Major Industries Control Law to the cement industry. The curtailment ratio in 1939 was 64 per cent.

PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value
	Barrels	Value in yen	Barrels	Value in yen	in yen
1931	15,885,396	51,779,580	3,052,971	9,837,362	61,616,942

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in yen
	Barrels	Value in yen	Barrels	Value in yen	
1932	17,215,073	67,782,953	142,599	450,254	68,233,207
1933	21,789,392	84,566,744	153,926	515,065	85,081,809
1934	26,689,637	90,814,136	39,002	1,389,466	92,203,602
1935	30,854,313	99,146,671	706,233	1,693,554	100,840,225
1936	32,375,874	85,591,214	2,085,229	5,706,847	101,298,061
1937	33,215,239	102,552,588	2,879,613	7,546,948	101,099,536
1938	30,492,078	104,243,268	2,497,217	6,717,419	110,950,687

CONSUMPTION OF CEMENT CLASSIFIED BY USES

(In 1,000 metric tons)

Uses	1937	1938	1939	Uses	1937	1938	1939
Railways	284.7	241.5	182.7	Mining	101.5	124.1	124.7
Electric works	421.4	510.6	387.3	Retails	1,300.7	1,151.0	1,082.6
Harbors	109.0	97.0	81.3	Cement products	162.1	152.9	211.2
Roads and bridges	239.8	187.4	158.4	Miscellaneous	20.3	27.5	45.4
Other public works	374.6	345.7	392.8	Total	4,163.4	3,884.0	3,684.9
Buildings	1,148.9	1,045.8	1,017.5				

EXPORTS OF CEMENT

(Quantity in metric tons and value in ¥1,000)

Descriptions	1936		1937		1938		1939	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	3,971	58	222	13	34,354	625	134,829	2,757
Kwantung L. T.	107,198	1,874	13,227	286	45,791	904	188,593	3,341
China	22,550	250	13,249	138	75,659	911	125,275	1,923
Hongkong	54,910	581	15,887	151	9	1	1,239	22
British India	13,497	170	15,558	184	5,380	65	2,686	54
Straits Settlements	90,299	994	81,830	877	34,150	352	34,829	528
Dutch East Indies	48,978	606	84,480	1,044	88,817	1,150	78,044	1,044
Philippines	2,534	35	8,060	102	60,864	658	11,550	146
Others	298,224	3,429	353,795	4,039	146,408	1,749	121,522	1,745
Total	702,164	8,001	589,312	6,836	491,432	6,411	698,565	11,549

1939 Cement Industry The total production of cement in 1939 reached 5,074,454 metric tons decreasing 445,000 metric tons from the previous year, owing mainly to the halt in construction activities due to the State economic control, and the decrease of demand for Japanese cement in foreign markets.

The restoration of peace and order in Chinese areas occupied by the Japanese

forces recovered the exports to China amounting to 125,274 metric tons, an increase of 65 per cent as compared with the previous year.

According to the report of the Warehouse Association the amount of stocks of cement which was 216,099 metric tons in December 1938 increased to 248,749 metric tons in January 1939, and decreased to 109,513 at the end of the year.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Cement Manufacturers' Association)

(In metric tons)

Production Capacity		Clinker	Shipments to Japan Proper	Production Capacity		Clinker	Shipments to Japan Proper
1934	4,729,994	4,803,113	3,886,870	1937	4,650,393	4,666,478	4,163,462
1935	4,500,362	4,490,648	3,515,224	1938	4,288,564	4,384,022	4,884,000
1936	4,264,475	4,359,188	3,730,192	1939	4,162,600	4,001,300	3,685,900

CERAMICS

505

total value
in yen
3,233,207
5,081,809
2,203,902
3,840,225
298,661
999,530
950,667

	Exports to Foreign Countries	New Contracts	Outstanding Contracts	Stocks
1934	319,954	4,558,200	479,800	241,500
1935	432,599	4,488,300	675,700	296,000
1936	503,900	4,488,300	797,300	382,400
1937	446,800	4,943,600	1,015,700	316,400
1938	278,400	4,309,600	12,083,209	525,300
1939	237,000	4,751,000	15,284,000	242,800

Note: Figures are confined to the member companies of the Association only.

Ceramics

Pottery making has an old history in Japan. As far back as can be traced in history some potters appear to have had their secret proprietary methods of production. In the Meiji Era, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, along with the advance in industry in general, pottery making was industrialized, a procedure which was thought difficult of accomplishment, and today annual production amounts to from ¥60,000,000 to ¥100,000,000 in value, while exports amount to ¥50,000,000.

The chief places of production are Nagoya and Seto, both in Aichi prefecture, and the eastern part of Gifu prefecture. The quantity produced in these places amounts to about 70% of the country's total production. Seto is so famous for pottery that the Japanese commonly call chinaware "Seto-mono." Besides the products named above "Kutani" ware of Ishikawa prefecture, "Shimizu" ware of Kyoto prefecture, and "Arita" ware of Saga prefecture, are all famous though produced in small quantities only. Nagoya district is one of the largest pottery producing centers in the world.

Pottery was being made, in a crude

form admittedly, at the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, who lived about 650 B.C. At the time of the Emperor Suinin, that is, 66 A.D., a Korean prince was nationalized, and one of his retainers, who knew the potter's art, was able to give instruction on foreign manufacturing methods. Later, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, i.e., 781 A.D., pottery was imported from China, and the art made further progress.

In 1221 A.D., a man named Kagemasa Kato studied the art of pottery making in China. When he returned, he settled in Seto village, Aichi prefecture, and made chinaware of superior quality, the origin of the present "Seto" ware.

After that, many master artisans arose and tea-things, rice bowls, pitchers, incense burners, etc., now of great rarity and value were produced.

In 1938 total production of chinaware amounted to ¥100,007,896, while there were as many as 6,674 factories and 58,116 employees. The value of total production including tiles and drainage pipes reached ¥131,683,095.

The following table shows how this industry has developed recently.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF CERAMICS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Facto- ries	Opera- tives	Table- wares	Furni- tures	Building Materials	Insu- lators	Toys	Total including Others
	(Value in yen)							
1931	6,353	40,320	31,926,067	9,388,264	2,304,914	4,154,698	1,103,012	54,197,884
1932	6,474	43,948	35,733,104	11,593,447	2,934,639	4,742,886	2,595,435	65,262,852
1933	6,586	53,292	45,204,776	14,910,054	6,131,345	5,886,047	2,003,566	85,246,500
1934	6,473	57,172	54,001,916	15,573,166	5,876,879	6,166,129	2,981,099	92,363,691
1935	6,624	61,135	54,616,818	15,504,495	6,754,686	9,245,261	3,471,091	99,368,010
1936	6,686	63,955	58,801,046	16,845,708	7,357,239	10,865,483	3,878,602	108,171,711
1937	6,566	62,231	58,791,085	16,161,223	8,859,706	15,155,087	4,015,185	115,191,376
1938	6,674	58,116	42,252,623	12,070,909	11,937,755	16,609,151	2,763,810	100,007,896

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Factories and Production of Tiles and Drainage Pipes

(Value in yen)

Year	Tiles				Drainage Pipes		
	Facto- ries	Opera- tives	Roof Tiles Value	Others Value	Total Value	Facto- ries	Opera- tives Value
1931	11,725	38,072	18,345,402	2,654,000	20,999,402	784	2,865 3,814,048
1932	11,445	38,268	18,070,815	2,784,285	20,855,100	827	2,966 3,092,524
1933	11,213	37,628	19,125,574	3,111,841	22,237,415	918	3,310 3,760,772
1934	11,021	38,680	20,740,445	3,192,184	23,932,629	937	3,453 4,228,313
1935	10,809	39,398	21,277,565	3,374,301	24,651,866	944	3,913 4,431,993
1936	10,688	39,576	23,076,803	3,535,245	26,612,048	891	3,593 4,964,409
1937	10,211	35,795	21,571,140	3,339,705	24,910,845	921	4,324 5,510,655
1938	9,407	31,704	22,151,432	3,199,487	25,350,919	838	3,846 6,324,280

Exports of Chinaware Though exports of chinaware amounting to ¥1,300,000 were made as early as 1886, the exports business did not develop to any great extent until the Russo-Japanese War. In 1904, the Nippon Toki Kaisha, Ltd., was organized, to be quickly followed by the Toyo Toki Kaisha, Ltd., and the Nagoya Seito-sho. Each of these companies established large mills with up-to-date equipment and began to produce chinaware on a big scale. Pains-taking studies were made to improve the products and build up an export business, and these, together with other special factors, account for the remarkably large increase in exports. The special factors are:

(1) Japan is able to produce specially thin chinaware that other countries

cannot.

(2) Japanese artisans are especially clever at their work.

(3) The cost of production is reasonable.

Just at the time when the industry was organized on a modern basis, the World War broke out. Pottery works in belligerent countries in Europe were closed down and exports from Japan increased by leaps and bounds. A temporary set-back was experienced when the War ceased, but a recovery was soon made and there was a steady growth until 1929 after which there was a falling off until 1932, when some slight gain was made over the previous year. Exports in 1938 declined on account of the State control of trade.

EXPORTS OF CHINAWARE TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Countries	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Manchoukuo	531,128	1,238	1,222	1,391	2,222	3,821	6,516
China	991	1,387	1,339	1,127	1,145	2,453	5,574
Kwantung L. T.	1,193	2,084	2,162	1,859	2,353	4,043	5,597
British India	3,965	3,204	3,529	3,696	4,240	2,580	2,553
Straits Settlements	900	1,290	763	514	1,174	307	516
Dutch East Indies	3,728	3,269	2,133	2,388	3,109	2,714	2,992
Philippines	959	580	945	1,148	1,431	628	620
Great Britain	1,296	1,161	1,186	1,275	1,171	888	613
Holland	981	761	498	607	542	607	514
U. S. A.	10,180	14,310	15,776	15,530	19,460	8,696	11,115
Canada	1,399	1,508	1,458	2,025	1,038	1,235	1,230
Brazil	370	554	672	461	1,036	576	916
Union of S. Africa	—	—	—	—	1,259	1,009	1,318
Australia	2,707	2,331	2,804	2,291	2,598	2,915	2,264
Others and total	35,634	41,879	43,318	43,548	53,971	40,477	48,624

Domestic Consumption There are no definite figures for the exact amount of domestic consumption, but if we subtract exports from the total production we have an approximate value. Figures shown in the second column of the first table "Factories and Production of Ceramics" give some idea of the amount. Though tile making is growing fast on account of the increase in building of Western style houses, the market had been depressed because of lack of control over production and sales

until 1934 when it began to regain prosperity.

The peculiarity about chinaware intended for domestic use is that it must be made by small factories run on family basis. The reason is that the taste of the Japanese for chinaware is very varied, differing according to each individual as to the form, color, design, etc., thus making it impossible to produce on large scale mass production principles.

Glass and Glass Manufactures

Origin and Development As far as historical record shows, the art of glass manufacturing was developed in the Nara period, that is about 700 A.D. Later, technics of manufacturing were imported both from the South Sea Islands and China, and put into practice in Osaka, Kyoto and Tokyo, where the industry developed. After the Meiji Restoration, the Government established a model factory to encourage the development of the industry and various attempts were afterwards made to make glass and glassware both by the Government and by individual concerns, but it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, that the industry made any great progress.

Glass Tableware Glass tableware was early manufactured in Kagoshima and the old province of Satsuma in Kyushu Island. After the Meiji Restoration it was manufactured by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho (Shinagawa Glass Co.) which was under Government control. At present it is manufactured by the Fukushima Glass Co. organized in 1896, Koidé Shoshi Seizosho (Koidé Glass Co.) established in 1898, Marasa Glass Co., organized in 1918, and the Kawai Shoshi Shokki Seizosho (Kawai Table Glassware Co.) organized in 1920, etc. Production by these and other manufacturers is given below.

Other Glass Articles Glass articles for scientific and medical purposes were manufactured as early as 1850. There are many manufacturers of these articles in Tokyo district.

The manufacturing of eye-glasses was first practised as early as 1600. In 1873, a certain Matsugoro Asakura from Tokyo, went to Austria and learned the art of manufacturing eye-glasses on modern principles. His son and several

others are now manufacturing them.

Red glass was manufactured by the Kagoshima clan prior to the Meiji Restoration, and later by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho, which was under Government control. Also a certain Tokijiro Iwashiro succeeded in manufacturing lenses for the use of searchlights, and light-houses. The right of manufacturing these lenses was later transferred to the Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., (The Nippon Optical Science Industrial Co., Ltd.). Iwashiro's son later succeeded in manufacturing cut glass.

Glasses for optical work were mostly imported from Germany before the World War, but when the supply was cut off by the war, it was determined that "lenses for optical science must be produced at home at any cost." The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., to which all the results of studies made by the naval arsenal were transferred in 1914, and the Osaka Industrial Research Institute, which started research work in 1921, continued investigations. The Osaka Institute succeeded in 1925 in discovering a formula for manufacturing lenses, superior to German makes at reasonable cost. The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., also succeeded in finding a way to make these lenses.

Glasses for the chemical industry, that is, hard glasses, are manufactured in several mills in Japan. High grade hard glass which is not in any degree inferior to the best imported is now manufactured by several firms for thermometers, gauges and the chemical industry.

Sheet Glass Though many efforts were previously made to manufacture sheet glass, it was not until 1904 that a Magoichi Shimoda, after two years of experimental manufacture, was successful

in producing a product that could be put on the market.

In 1907, the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in Amagasaki, Hyogo prefecture, by the family of the late Baron Yanosuké Iwasaki. An expert and five skilled workmen were brought over from Belgium and commenced to manufacture sheet glass from 1909. The company struggled for 7 years against difficulties in technique and pressure of foreign competition, and in the end succeeded in producing about 120,000 cases a year. In 1914, a patent, which enabled the company to produce sheet glass by a mechanical process was bought from the American Window Glass Co., Ltd., and a factory was established at Makiyama in Tobata, Fukuoka prefecture. On account of the cutting off of imports from

Europe during the World War, the company not only increased production, but exported their products to places far afield as South Africa and London. In 1916, the company established a factory in Tsurumi, Yokohama, and in 1917 another in Yawata, Fukuoka prefecture. In 1923 and 1924, the factories in Makiyama and Tsurumi were extended, and at present the company is capitalized at ¥41,250,000 and has a productive capacity of 846,000,000 sq. feet, besides soda products, calcium chloride, fire brick and Corhart electrocast-brick. Its head office is now at Marunouchi, Tokyo.

At present the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., the Nippon Sheet Glass Co., Ltd., the Nippon Thick Glass Co., Ltd., and the Tokunaga Sheet Glass Co., Ltd. are manufacturing sheet glasses.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SHEET GLASS

(Unit: Case which contains 100 sq. feet of sheet glass)

	Production	Imports	Exports	Domestic Consumption
1930	2,045,611	356,752	57,897	2,344,466
1931	2,220,206	300,023	28,080	2,522,149
1932	2,305,626	247,144	51,204	2,501,566
1933	2,802,555	222,896	137,096	2,888,355
1934	2,897,747	179,476	283,183	2,794,040
1935	3,131,212	94,445	253,727	2,971,930
1936	3,487,096	137,740	251,207	3,373,629
1937	4,192,617	78,417	306,121	3,964,913
1938	2,552,129	10,076	262,217	2,299,988
1939 (estimate)	2,514,228	153	432,262	2,082,119

PRODUCTION OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Table Ware	For Decorative Purposes			Others	For Illuminating Purposes		
		Beads & Balls	Arm Rings			Shades & Globes	Others	Bottles
1930	2,870	893	859		79	838	244	14,765
1931	2,455	71	570		68	388	944	10,927
1932	4,193	373	683		357	391	733	11,193
1933	4,143	302	696		159	499	1,280	16,845
1934	5,454	469	853		246	471	1,414	20,349
1935	6,631	239	1,030		291	569	1,119	23,716
1936	6,472	423	1,972		227	1,928	754	25,319
1937	7,023	962	1,161		260	1,014	1,089	31,325
1938	6,531	604	1,163		217	798	1,505	42,895

GLASS, MATCHES

509

(Quantity in 1,000; Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Sheet Glass Thickness under 2.2 mm.		Sheet Glass Thickness under 4 mm.		Others		Looking Glasses		Others and Total Value
	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	
1930	1,863	12,915	169	2,291	12	220	44	25	40,583
1931	2,104	13,690	99	1,010	16	332	53	128	34,338
1932	1,757	9,908	337	2,137	210	2,124	80	235	37,233
1933	2,039	15,237	427	3,988	335	3,147	74	288	52,526
1934	2,124	15,335	513	4,449	259	3,641	0.450	433	58,857
1935	1,009	7,642	1,770	14,196	350	5,141	0.270	368	68,173
1936	956	6,699	2,161	17,146	369	8,107	76	497	78,360
1937	3,320	27,465	570	7,779	301	5,444	0.560	721	96,375
1938	1,735	22,908	380	7,222	436	6,960	0.107	421	104,970

EXPORTS OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1937		1938		1939	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	27,866	1,560	23,068	1,364	40,396	2,403
Thermos in 1,000 doz.	410	3,131	262	2,138	241	2,607
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	36,225	8,030	29,485	7,001	16,555	4,818
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	8,942	5,064	6,311	3,583	7,488	4,567
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	2,238	2,541	1,831	1,571	1,241	1,351
Watch glasses in gross	146	183	148	172	139	159
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	26,640	1,432	2,130	1,223	1,619	1,305
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	87,896	3,955	66	2,981	57	3,597
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	30,792	3,243	18,183	1,657	13,736	1,260
Other glasses and manufactures	—	6,296	—	4,195	—	4,988
Total	—	33,572	—	25,836	—	27,055

IMPORTS OF GLASS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1937		1938		1939	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Uncolored plate glass under 2.2 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	590	584	54.8	71	0.1	0
Uncolored plate glass under 4 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	18	107	7.7	52	0.5	4
Other uncolored plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	46	609	14.6	566	1.3	96
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	72	292	16.4	71	0.1	28
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	19	133	2.1	18	—	—
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	4	491	2	—	—	—
Others	—	1,770	—	1,723	—	1,259
Total	—	3,989	—	2,501	—	1,387

Matches

The Industry in the Past A factory for making matches was first established in Japan, in Tokyo, in April 1875, by a certain Makoto Shimizu, who had just returned from studying the subject in a French technical school

and a match factory managed by the French Government. In the same year a factory was established in Osaka, and in 1877 another was established in Kobe. In 1878, three years after the first factory was established, matches to the

value of ¥24,000 were exported, and in succession factories were established in Shizuoka, Aichi, Osaka and Hyogo prefectures. By 1889, not only had the importation of matches ceased, but large quantities, in face of strong foreign competition, were being exported to China. In 1887, Hyogo-ken Match Seizogyo Kumiai (Association of Manufacturers of Matches in Hyogo prefecture) was formed and in 1900 the Dogyo Kumiai (Association of Traders in Matches) was organized. The industry experienced great prosperity during the Russo-Japanese War, exports being made not only to China but also to the South Sea Islands, Straits Settlements and India. But from about that time the match industry began to develop in China and by 1908 it had developed to the extent that the market in China was considerably curtailed for the Japanese product, then when India raised her tariff on matches, and the Dutch East Indies imposed a consumption tax on them, exports of matches to countries in the Orient were considerably reduced. Exports for some time became almost negligibly small but in 1933, they suddenly increased to ¥3,248,000 from about ¥938,000 in 1932.

The development of the match industry during the World War was such as to make the industry a menace to the International Match Company. This company, therefore, commenced negotiations with and was successful in amalgamating the Nippon Match Manufacturing Co., Ltd., which was one of the Mitsui interests, and the Nippon Match Co., came under foreign management for three years, that is, until 1927, when the largest match manufacturer in Japan, the Toyo Match Co., Ltd., seeing the advantages which would accrue from cooperation with the International Match Company agreed to amalgamation. The Daido Match Co., Ltd. was organized with a capital equally subscribed by

Japan and Sweden, and the management was placed in Japanese hands, avoiding in this way competition in foreign markets.

Exports increased along with the development of the industry and as far back as 1913 Japan's match exports totalled some ¥12,000,000 after meeting the domestic demand. During the World War annual exports were between ¥30,000,000 and ¥40,000,000, forming one of the big ten export items of Japan.

Due to the rising importance of Soviet matches in international trade, Japan's shipments to the United States have fallen almost to the vanishing point.

When the Japanese match industry was influenced by Swedish interests the export field was limited to China and part of the South Seas. America, Australia, the Near East, Africa and Europe was monopolized by Swedish interests. After Kreuger's downfall Japanese match exporters took back their old markets. In 1936, the Japan Match Manufacturing and Trading Company was established by the amalgamation of several companies, and the industry and trade in matches became unified.

EXPORTS OF MATCHES

(Value in yen)

	1932	1933
China	2,053,000	2,434,000
Kwantung L. T.	638,000	630,000
Other countries	613,000	1,551,000
Total value	3,304,000	4,616,000
Total quantity in gross	519,000	614,000

Number of Factories The number of match factories in Japan was 153 with 8,110 operatives at the end of 1938.

Production of matches and allied articles in recent years has been as follows:

PRODUCTION OF MATCHES, ETC.

Year	Quantity Produced	Value (In yen)	Match-boxes	Matchwood
			(Value in yen)	
	Gross			
1930	16,722,653	7,464,081	645,765	600,047
1931	13,535,353	6,686,245	457,067	701,334
1932	18,234,683	7,306,721	764,903	613,939
1933	20,711,239	9,202,221	1,169,029	710,525
1934	20,597,615	10,033,567	550,947	616,915
1935	27,369,618	12,659,929	607,979	742,767
1936	21,874,973	11,824,397	831,624	1,572,439
1937	23,969,588	12,544,564	807,520	1,576,001
1938	22,869,636	13,303,408	849,920	2,293,793

Lacquer-ware

Industry Inherent Japan is the only country in the world enjoying world-wide renown in the technical art of lacquerware manufacture. The various industrial arts of Japan such as the porcelanic and weaving owe their origin to China or Western countries, but as regards lacquer, Japan acknowledges no teacher. From remote antiquity, especially in the technique of relief lacquer, the art has developed without aid from any foreign methods of manufacture or materials. For more than two thousand years the craftsmen of Japan, having striven to improve, finally attained a degree of wonderful skill. The production of lacquerware is confined to Oriental countries only,—Japan, China, Korea and India,—where lacquer juice, known as *urushi*, is obtainable, although there is an evident tendency in Western countries in recent years to manufacture lacquerware of industrial art value. The application of mother of pearl, known as *nacre* work, became common during the Nara period. A large number of ancient examples of lacquerware that have served as models for succeeding generations are still kept in the Shosoin, the Imperial Treasure House in Nara. These represent products of the Tempyo era, when even large wooden buildings were lacquered. Among such buildings left standing are the Chuson Temple in Iwate prefecture and the Byodoin Temple in Kyoto prefecture. Embossed lacquerware was invented during the Kamakura Age, when tasteful designs of chrysanthemums and other flowers were in vogue.

From Toyotomi Downward A gold-en mother of pearl inkstone case in embossed lacquer with a chrysanthemum design is now treasured in the Hachiman Shrine at Kamakura. The pomp and glory of the third Ashikaga Shogun stimulated the art and resulted in the perfecting of embossed lacquer work and the extension of its application to articles of daily necessity. Hideyoshi Toyotomi accomplished his gigantic task

of pacifying the country. Grandeur was a unique feature of his administrative policy and social and other life in those days. The grand Momoyama style, named after his palace, reflected on the industrial arts. Koetsu relief lacquer was supreme and Kodaiji relief lacquer was also produced, representative lacquer products of those days. When the third Tokugawa Shogun, Iyemitsu, came into power, he erected the great Nikko mausoleum and Zofuji Temple at Shiba, Tokyo for his grandfather and father respectively, and lacquer was amply applied to these buildings. During the reign of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, an exquisite technique attained its zenith, defying all the imitative powers of succeeding generations. It was applied to scabbards of swords, miniature medicine-cases (known as *inro*) and various articles used by the Daimyo. Notable lacquerers such as Koami Chojū, Koma Ikyū, Ogata Korin and others flourished during this period. Since that time the production of lacquer has spread to various localities throughout the country, and unique local color has been freely introduced into the design. Competition ensued as in all industrial articles, and some of the products of those days were exported abroad. Japanese industrial arts were almost wholly neglected during several years following the Meiji Restoration. Lacquered articles of artistic value were sold at ridiculously low prices and these were purchased by foreigners who had eyes for their value and who took them to their own countries. This provided an opportunity to introduce the Japanese lacquer art to foreign countries, but at the same time Japan lost many articles of both aesthetic and monetary value. (Informations on the industrial art are given in the Japan Year Book, 1939-40, pp. 546, 547.)

Production

Production of lacquer-ware in recent years was as follows:

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF LACQUER-WARE

	Factories	Operatives	Tableware	Furniture	Others	Total
				(In yen)		
1932	10,267	28,794	10,851,938	6,918,301	8,862,670	26,632,909
1933	10,784	30,431	12,139,600	8,012,675	9,419,390	29,571,665
1934	12,223	37,641	13,366,815	9,437,231	13,507,713	36,311,759

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

	Factories	Operatives	Tableware	Furniture	Others	Total
				(In yen)		
1935	11,170	36,217	14,189,283	9,983,004	14,227,619	38,399,906
1936	12,727	39,599	16,869,770	10,659,162	15,031,075	42,560,007
1937	11,874	35,093	18,106,008	12,106,268	13,801,216	44,013,492
1938	11,670	34,813	16,452,159	12,450,203	17,180,686	46,083,048

Tobacco

The tobacco industry and wholesale business in Japan are monopolized by the Government by virtue of the Manufactured Tobacco Monopoly Law of 1904 and the regulations issued in 1931. The imports of manufactured tobacco gradually decreased in recent years to

be entirely stopped in 1939. The production of the Monopoly Bureau factories barely supplies the domestic demand. The trade and production of various kinds of tobacco in recent years was as follows:

PRODUCTION OF TOBACCO

(Monopoly Bureau, Finance Ministry)

(Unit: 1,000 pieces)

	1936	1937	1938
Cigarettes, mouthed	10,987,371	10,473,230	10,338,141
Cigarettes, without mouthpiece	28,806,713	30,107,355	31,599,960
Cigars	1,627	1,223	739,120
Cut tobacco in kilogram	21,193,772	21,601,591	20,178,924
Pipe tobacco in kilogram	9,485	6,565	3,635

Tobacco Sales by Monopoly Bureau
in 1940

The sale of tobacco by the Monopoly Bureau of the Ministry of Finance during the 1940 fiscal year (April, 1940-March, 1941) aggregated ¥510,800,000, representing an increase of ¥79,600,000 or 18.4 per cent as compared with the sale in the preceding fiscal year, according to a recent report by the Monopoly Bureau. While tobacco may be regarded as a kind of taxation, it is something like a daily necessity for purchasers as it sold at fixed prices. Naturally, the increase of prices of tobacco products has an important bearing upon the prices of other commodities, especially as the Government is enforcing the low-price policy. The raise of prices of tobacco products, which came into effect from November 16, 1939 on close heels of the enforcement of the September 18 Price Suspension Ordinance, created quite a sensation in society. This price raise was originally estimated to bring about an increase of ¥60,000,000 or 14 per cent in the Government revenue from tobacco products. And the actual result topped the original estimate by

¥20,000,000.

The bureau report showed that the per-capita purchase of tobacco products during the 1940-41 fiscal year totalled ¥7.00, eclipsing the corresponding figure in the preceding fiscal year by ¥1.10 or 19 per cent, thus indicating a fair increase in the number of smokers.

The bureau report also revealed that the sale of cigarettes with mouth-pieces attached totalled ¥105,150,000, up by ¥12,400,000 or 13 per cent as compared with the preceding year while the sale of ordinary cigarettes aggregated ¥329,000,000, rising by ¥47,600,000 or 17 per cent over the preceding year. The sale of cut tobacco amounted to ¥76,000,000, advancing by ¥19,600,000 or 34 per cent.

Tokyo led other prefectures in the amount of the total sales of tobacco products while Osaka topped Tokyo in the amount of per-capita purchase. Osaka, Kobe, Nagoya, Kyoto and Yokohama followed Tokyo in the order in regard to the total value of sales. Kobe and Tokyo ranked second and third, respectively, in the amount of per-capita purchases.

Relative figures follow:

SALES OF TOBACCO PRODUCTS

IN JAPAN

(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932
	282,343.5	265,067.1	257,999.4	264,441.3

1933

1934

1935

1936

1937

1938

1939

1940

1941

271,837.1

291,559.2

298,712.1

316,259.0

353,850.7

362,317.3

431,227.5

510,808.6

571,241

Production of Other Industries

There are innumerable industries figures for which it will not be possible to give in this volume. Only the important industries, together with total production figures are given below. Sources used are the "Factory Statistics" published by the Statistics Section, the Secretariat for the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and the "Statistics for Commerce and Industry" published by the same office.

PRODUCTION OF METALLIC INDUSTRY

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Metal refining & material	1,488,916	2,416,700	3,171,407
Casting:			
Pig-iron	112,855	205,962	333,999
Cast steel	23,650	50,194	91,018
Other cast metals	20,614	36,471	69,216
Total	167,538	306,565	516,948
Bolt, nut, washer	21,095	39,123	57,314
Rivet	5,964	11,186	12,961
Nail	21,368	33,306	37,024
(Iron nail)	(15,522)	25,977	25,104
Needle	3,491	3,965	4,379
Chain	4,850	6,272	11,193
Rope	16,367	23,321	31,334
Wire	7,190	11,503	19,848
Wire-netting	5,771	7,938	9,930
Tin-plate manufactures (can)	90,667	134,313	180,065
Iron furniture	(53,739)	69,699	88,268
Building materials	23,424	28,885	28,908
Copper and bronze wares	63,725	82,541	80,906
Aluminum wares	710	1,103	284
Button	15,030	15,625	22,701
Pen nibs	2,060	2,806	2,693
(Fountain-pen nibs)	3,482	4,102	4,019
	(2,641)	2,929	3,228

	1936	1937	1938
Razor	857	974	1,430
Table knife, fork, spoon	2,011	2,428	2,743
Toy	3,710	6,188	3,762

Total including

others	353,079	491,794	615,728
Plated articles	121,187	163,546	159,284
Grand Total	2,130,719	3,376,275	4,463,368

PRODUCTION OF BRICKS AND OTHER FIRE-PROOF ARTICLES

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Bricks	3,329	3,916	5,034
Bricks, fire-proof	19,327	26,278	49,549
Other fire-proof articles	4,889	6,989	9,634
Total	27,545	37,183	64,218

PRODUCTION OF THE KILN INDUSTRY
(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Cement manufactures			
Tiles	811	778	1,327
Pipes	4,000	5,617	8,823
Slates	6,671	12,067	10,951
Others	2,378	3,628	5,308
Total	13,861	22,091	26,409
Lime	8,498	13,672	14,842
Enamelled ironwares	17,970	21,841	21,719

PRODUCTION OF WOOD-WORKS

Value in ¥1,000

	1936	1937	1938
Clogs, etc.	21,158	23,974	29,662
Turnery	12,907	14,867	15,505
Chip-work	4,515	6,525	6,562
Joinery	96,821	102,975	106,623
Boxes	49,803	60,930	72,263
Barrels and pails	21,869	23,487	26,329
Chopsticks	2,414	2,868	3,229
Total	209,484	235,628	260,176
Number of houses	109,471	105,968	101,008
Number of operatives	229,625	227,840	217,355
Sawing	151,744	201,207	255,007

EARNINGS OF PRINTING HOUSES

Amount in ¥1,000

Year	Amount
1936	225,705
1937	258,519
1938	264,836

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

Paper goods:	1936	1937	1938
Boxes	14,005	15,608	21,703
Tags	912	940	1,169
Toys	492	925	758
Fans (Sensu)	96	193	129
Fans (Uchiwa)	541	649	682
Lanterns	552	619	682
Note-books	5,415	4,492	7,799
Total including others	58,092	75,456	95,263
Bamboo goods:			
Baskets	9,574	9,935	10,280
Blinds			
(Sudaré)	1,327	1,247	1,311
Total including others	11,297	11,628	12,038
Wicker goods	3,657	3,469	3,570
(Yanagi-gōri)	2,680	2,574	2,474
Cane-work	2,439	2,427	2,124
(Cane table and chair)	1,345	1,358	1,114
Mat (Tatami omoté)	14,705	17,176	21,037
Mat (Goza and Hanamushiro)	9,223	11,524	18,427
Straw, chip and other braids	5,101	7,936	6,046
Leather	45,945	68,883	102,270
Leather goods			
Shoes	27,474	29,742	25,215

	1936	1937	1938
Bags	4,682	4,820	3,343
Saddlery	1,863	2,935	6,216
Belt	5,233	5,097	6,362
Small bags	2,530	2,504	3,695
Total	41,784	45,101	44,834
Button (shell, ivory, bone)	5,257	7,449	7,509
Imitation pearl	1,343	807	688
Brushes	6,511	7,500	8,119
(Tooth brush)	3,245	4,297	4,946
Rope (fibrous)	35,122	48,514	50,759
Foreign style clothes	29,501	33,994	41,303
Underwears	11,552	19,596	20,269
Japanese socks	42,698	54,675	54,474
Handkerchief	508	1,247	924
Hat:			
Felt	16,853	19,862	13,040
Straw	1,484	1,369	1,083
	1936	1937	1938
Imitation panama	498	764	665
Total including others	22,469	27,148	19,326
Waterproof cloth	3,622	11,229	20,360
Rubber cloth	4,030	3,703	14,175
Imitation leather cloth	6,526	7,678	10,690
Fabric materials for medical treatment	8,908	13,654	23,492
Asbestine articles	9,587	12,080	23,261
Metallic foil	9,159	9,213	6,462
(Gold-foil)	1,457	566	579
Writing brush (Fudé)	164	237	603
Fountainpen	3,081	2,926	4,190
Pencil	4,631	5,430	5,613
Crayon	1,318	1,324	1,489
Paper umbrella	240	1,504	844
Umbrella	288	652	1,001
Imitation flower	120	200	291
Stone goods	5,214	5,819	3,399

EARNINGS BY WORKERS IN FINISHING, MENDING, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

For	1936	1937	1938
Spinning and weaving industry	279,789	321,399	338,466
Metallic industry	21,560	34,216	57,231
Machinery industry	95,245	123,257	222,854
Kiln industry	4,412	8,760	5,667
Chemical industry	5,651	9,218	12,392
Wood work	11,992	11,463	12,483
Printing and binding	6,236	7,341	10,684
Foodstuff industry	2,449	3,747	6,741
Miscellaneous industry	21,790	28,848	57,268
Total	449,128	548,254	723,790

87 1808
 820 3,340
 385 6,216
 397 6,362
 604 3,686
 01 44,824

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 07 685
 00 8,119
 97 4,56
 14 38,72

 14 41,512
 6 20,523
 5 34,65
 7 92

 2 10,167
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CHAPTER XXIII **COMMUNICATIONS**



OSAKA HEN-ATSUKI K.K.

(The Osaka Transformer Co., Ltd.)

Dojima Bldg., Osaka, Nippon

Specializing in Manufacture
of
TRANSFORMERS, WELDING
MACHINES AND WIRELESS
TRANSMITTERS & RECEIVERS

CHAPTER XXIII

COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934-1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1939-1940 may be obtained from the following:

Post, telegraph and telephone officials and operatives (Sept. 30, 1940)	239,930
Post, telegraph and telephone offices (Sept. 30, 1940)	16,420
Ordinary mail routes (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	106,570
Ordinary mails accepted (1939-40)	4,585,833,852
Ordinary mails delivered (1938-39)	5,137,079,629
Parcel post routes (Mar. 31, 1935) in km.	85,385
Parcels accepted (1939-40)	101,241,070

Parcels delivered (1939-40)	86,597,782
Telegraph routes (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	49,270
Telegraph lines (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	375,719
Telegraphs dispatched (1939-40)	88,305,403
Telegraphs received (1939-40)	94,642,947
Telephone subscribers (Sept. 30, 1940)	1,034,387
Telephone routes (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	88,931
Telephone lines (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	8,066,490
Telephones (1939-40)	1,345,755
Telephone messages (1939-40)	5,886,071,005
Income from postage (in yen) (1938-39)	135,787,000
(1939-40)	152,485,000
Total income (1938-39)	414,640,000
(1939-40)	471,112,000

Postal Service

Historical Survey

The present state postal service system was established in 1871, between Tokyo and Osaka. In August of that year, post offices were opened in Niigata, Hakodate, Kobe, Nagasaki, and Yokohama. In December a new postal route was established between Tokyo and Nagasaki, connecting the two cities in 7 days and 17 hours. In May 1872, the postal service between Yokohama and Tokyo was greatly improved by the establishment of five deliveries a day, and by July the service was extended to all the cities and towns of importance throughout the country, except a part of Hokkaido.

Foreign Mail Opens In March 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobe and Nagasaki. Soon after

the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U.S.A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Ministry in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and

telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Ministry as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The air mail service was commenced in 1929 with the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company in April of the same year.

The Growth The rapid growth of the postal service in the early years is illustrated by the following statistics:

Year	No. of P.O.
1871	180
1872	1,160
1873	1,501
1874	3,245
1882	5,527

Following the introduction of a revision in the postal service regulations in 1883, some of the offices were eliminated, the number being reduced to 4,088 by the end of 1889. But the steady development of postal business necessitated an increasing number of offices as the following figures for Japan proper show:

On March 31 of	No. of P.O.
1931	9,954
1932	10,203
1933	10,322
1934	10,611
1935	10,891
1936	11,258
1937	11,669
1938	12,138
1939	12,803
1940	12,938

Post offices had been classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and 3rd offices, in such important places as

Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities, and the 2nd and 3rd in smaller cities, towns and villages throughout the country. But the classification was abolished as from February 1, 1941, in order to eliminate misunderstandings as regards the importance or nature of businesses handled in different post offices where no such distinction now exist.

Its Business

In addition to ordinary matters relating to post and telegrams, the post offices in Japan receive taxes on behalf of the various tax authorities and pay pensions, annuities, etc. on behalf of the Treasury. Since 1906, New Year's greeting cards have been handled separately from ordinary mail matter with a view to relieving congestion. Such mail matter is accepted by all post offices from December 15 to 29 for delivery on New Year's day.

Ordinary mail matter is delivered 5 or 6 times daily in Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto, and 4 or 5 times in other large cities, where there are 1st class offices. In smaller cities, the 2nd class offices deliver 3 or 4 times a day. In towns and villages where they have 3rd class offices, mail matter is delivered twice a day only. The number of collections is the same as that of delivery in most cases.

The parcel post service was started in 1892, the first arrangement as regards foreign connections being made with Hongkong in 1879. The scope of international service was gradually extended, and covers almost all treaty countries at present.

Statistical Tables The following tables indicate the volume of business, handled by the post offices, and the increase in the amount of their work:

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September 30, 1939)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	Islands
1st Class	113	12	—	—	—	—
2nd Class	275	11	5	121	—	—
3rd Class	11,543	171	85	—	23	11
Minor offices	872	—	—	31	80	—
Total	12,803	194	90	152	103	11

POSTAL SERVICE

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VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN JAPAN PROPER

	Ordinary Mail	Parcel Post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1931-1932:				
Despatched	4,409,202,875	58,201,931	4,584,404,806	1.08
Received	4,532,477,443	55,654,599	4,588,132,042	(-)1.35
1932-1933:				
Despatched	4,253,259,031	58,472,313	4,312,231,344	(-)0.36
Received	4,294,100,596	54,849,774	4,348,950,870	0.34
1933-1934:				
Despatched	4,357,325,600	61,240,342	4,418,565,942	0.25
Received	4,402,200,835	57,762,972	4,459,963,807	0.26
1934-1935:				
Despatched	4,674,986,977	65,073,439	4,740,060,406	0.73
Received	4,772,868,449	61,847,673	4,834,716,122	0.84
1935-1936:				
Despatched	4,735,348,007	68,291,938	4,803,639,947	0.13
Received	4,901,685,581	64,854,932	4,966,540,513	0.27
1936-1937:				
Despatched	4,842,938,022	72,593,332	4,915,531,354	2.32
Received	4,934,414,563	68,185,892	5,002,600,455	0.72
1937-1938:				
Despatched	4,763,778,174	80,529,155	4,844,307,329	(-)1.44
Received	5,032,459,307	72,614,786	5,105,274,093	2.05
1938-1939:				
Despatched	4,315,098,400	90,459,389	4,405,557,789	(-)9.05
Received	4,844,384,134	77,848,661	4,922,232,795	(-)3.58
1939-1940:				
Despatched	5,137,079,629	86,597,782	5,223,677,411	18.56
Received	4,585,883,852	101,241,070	4,687,124,922	(-)4.77

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED DURING 1938-39 IN THE EMPIRE

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung South Sea Leased Territory Islands	Mandated
Ordinary mail						
Domestic mail						
Despatched	4,192,061,924	101,091,607	24,156,172	350,138,036	48,553,981	2,386,336
Collection post	6,461,435	463,570	10,702	504,277	16,111	2
Received	4,737,238,448	81,051,579	31,804,800	384,345,435	54,286,382	4,038,250
Collection post	—	321,967	58,385	734,652	41,024	1,001
Foreign mail						
Despatched	113,036,476	619,423	257,633	312,669	291,120	9,809
Received	107,145,686	784,131	267,410	990,528	421,920	12,611
Parcel post						
Domestic						
Despatched	87,548,897	1,368,906	307,624	3,251,131	517,704	27,247
Received	77,263,106	835,639	721,500	4,627,351	612,964	86,748
Foreign						
Despatched	2,910,492	4,381	6,789	7,595	790	44
Received	585,555	19,524	414	4,988	16,083	48
Total						
Despatched	4,405,557,789	103,084,817	24,728,218	353,709,431	49,363,595	2,423,436

COMMUNICATIONS

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung South Sea Leased Territory Islands	Mandated Islands
Collection post	6,461,435	463,570	10,702	504,277	16,111	2
Received	4,922,232,795	87,690,873	32,794,124	289,968,302	55,337,349	4,137,657
Collection post	—	321,967	58,385	734,652	41,024	1,001

Postal Money Order can hardly be included into the business of communications. It is, however, one of the important lines of business handled by the post office for the convenience of the large mass of people. The number and amount of postal money orders handled during 1938-39 are given below:

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN 1938-39

DOMESTIC

Territory	Issued		Paid	
	No.	Amount (In yen)	No.	Amount (In yen)
Japan Proper	45,379,728	1,023,237,511	47,259,892	1,079,573,474
Taiwan	1,362,037	42,545,027	796,453	27,061,209
Karafuto	653,637	24,366,044	318,604	13,652,238
Chosen	5,172,108	180,011,212	4,424,808	158,173,112
Kwantung Leased Territory	505,734	13,749,678	189,187	6,134,532
South Sea Mandated Islands	131,323	12,343,221	24,782	8,037,242

FOREIGN

Japan Proper	403,237	16,284,511	2,380,747	78,786,037
Taiwan	19,499	735,664	8,744	335,665
Karafuto	2,075	89,173	8,198	508,248
Chosen	128,570	6,366,407	395,751	15,831,261
Kwantung Leased Territory	57,528	2,014,656	233,122	7,540,149
South Sea Mandated Islands	136	9,112	183	11,960

The number of postal money orders issued in Japan proper has been constantly on the increase since 1875 when the business was first opened while the amount reached its highest mark in 1926 and continued to decrease for 5 years until it began to regain the upward tendency in 1933.

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN JAPAN PROPER

Fiscal year	Number	Increase (In percentage)	Amount (In yen)	Increase (In percentage)
1935-36:				
Issued	36,926,278	0.44	751,734,983	0.39
Paid	39,348,351	0.48	817,399,466	0.42
1936-37:				
Issued	38,146,546	0.33	786,476,088	0.46
Paid	40,591,334	0.29	850,615,079	0.53
1937-38:				
Issued	40,496,288	0.61	863,746,668	0.98
Paid	42,718,148	0.52	926,219,020	0.88
1938-39:				
Issued	45,379,728	1.21	1,023,237,511	1.85
Paid	47,259,892	1.06	1,079,573,474	1.66
1939-40 (Empire):				
Issued	62,215,000	—	1,920,135,000	—
Paid	62,009,000	—	1,913,976,000	—

1939-40 Money Order According to the report of the Communications Ministry the number and amount of the money orders handled in the Empire during the fiscal year 1939-40 were as follows:

MONEY ORDER IN 1939-40

Domestic Money Orders	Number	Amount in Yen
Issued	62,215,000	1,920,135,000

Domestic Money Orders	Number	Amount in Yen
Paid	62,009,000	1,913,976,000
Foreign Money Orders		
Issued	1,398,222	47,144,000
Paid	6,163,075	330,425,000
Total Issued	63,613,222	1,967,279,000
Paid	68,172,075	2,244,401,000

Telegraph Service

Telegraph service in Japan was started in August 1869, but this was for Governmental messages exclusively. Public telegraph service was started in September of the same year between Tokyo and Yokohama. Telegrams in European languages were despatched for the first time in April 1870. In August of the same year Osaka and Kobe began to exchange telegraph messages. In June 1871 the laying of the submarine cable between Nagasaki and Shanghai was completed. In February 1873,

aerial lines connected Tokyo and Nagasaki and telegraph service for districts along the lines was opened. In January 1879, Japan entered the international telegraph association. With revisions of rules and laws in subsequent years the business was started on a fair and steady road of progress. Wireless telegraph service was installed in 1908, and telegraphic picture transmission was undertaken from August 1930.

Statistics on the telegraph services follow:

TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Number	Increase in the Year	Year	Number	Increase in the Year
1930-1931	7,631	620	1935-1936	8,951	756
1931-1932	7,813	78	1936-1937	9,678	727
1932-1933	7,813	104	1937-1938	11,469	1,791
1933-1934	7,942	129	1938-1939	12,735	1,266
1934-1935	8,215	273	1939-1940	13,648	914

YEARLY COMPARISON OF NUMBERS OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED

(1932-1939)

	Domestic	Foreign	Total	Increase or Decrease in %
1932-33:				
Despatch	54,065,046	1,254,430	55,319,476	de 0.24
Arrival	56,281,163	1,243,925	57,525,088	de 0.25
1933-34:				
Despatch	56,529,921	1,237,193	57,767,114	in 0.44
Arrival	58,843,016	1,242,847	60,085,863	in 0.45
1934-35:				
Despatch	59,173,906	1,262,539	60,436,445	in 0.46
Arrival	61,591,759	1,272,011	62,863,770	in 0.46
1935-36:				
Despatch	62,433,347	1,321,910	63,755,257	in 0.55
Arrival	65,544,777	1,329,789	66,874,566	in 0.64
1936-37:				
Despatch	64,842,865	1,475,353	66,318,218	in 0.40
Arrival	68,521,989	1,448,560	69,970,549	in 0.46

	Domestic	Foreign	Total	Increase or Decrease in %
1937-38:				
Despatch	72,629,960	1,434,325	74,064,285	in 1.18
Arrival	77,583,878	1,407,762	78,991,640	in 1.28
1938-39:				
Despatch	93,217,976	1,774,009	94,991,985	in 2.83
Arrival	98,851,634	1,777,971	100,629,605	in 2.74
1939-40:				
Despatch	—	—	88,305,403	de 7.03
Arrival	—	—	94,642,947	de 5.94

LENGTH OF INLAND TELEGRAPH LINES

March 31, 1940

	Km.	As compared with the previous year
Land lines		
Aerial lines, routes	32,497	— 416
" " lines	222,767	— 3,633
Overhead cables		
Routes	490	+ 348
Overhead Cables		
Cores	30,893	+ 2,443
Underground lines		
Routes	837	+ 48
Cores	102,120	+ 2,400
Submarine cables		
Lines	15,446	— 3
Cores	19,939	+ 57

Wireless Telegraph Service

The study of wireless telegraphy was begun in Japan in 1896, or one year after the invention of wireless telegraphy by Marquis Marconi. In 1903, an experiment was made between Nagasaki and Taiwan by the Communications Ministry with satisfactory results.

The First Station In November 1906, Japan sent a delegation to Berlin to represent her at the First World Conference on Wireless Telegraphy. In May 1908, the first land wireless telegraph station was established in Choshi, (Chiba prefecture), whilst the first marine wireless telegraph equipment was set up on the Toyo Kisen liner "Tenyo Maru" in the same year. In July 1908 wireless telegraph stations were established at Ohsézaki in Nagasaki prefecture, Shionomisaki in Wakayama prefecture and Tsunojima in Yamaguchi prefecture. In December 1908, a wireless telegraph station was established at Otchishi in Hokkaido. At the same time sets were installed on some of our ocean liners. Japan was thus

placed on a more or less secure foundation in the sphere of wireless telegraphy.

The circulation of regulations for private wireless telegraph offices in October 1915, greatly facilitated the healthy growth of the business, and the service was extended to wider areas. It was utilized for steamship communication, and contact was also made with steamers and between ships and land stations, and also between aeroplanes and steamers or stations on land. With the enforcement of a law for the establishment of wireless sets on steamers, the number of stations rapidly increased.

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Otchishi station and Petropavlosk in Kamchatka. In 1916, the Funabashi station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hawaii. In 1920, the Iwaki station was established for handling messages between Japan and America. In 1925, the Government issued a law establishing the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company with a capital of ¥20,000,000, with a view to becoming absolutely independent of foreign telegraph companies, with whose co-operation Japan had been exchanging wireless messages with all other countries, except America, Russia, and China.

The Government transferred to the Company its Iwaki radio plant and the ground at Yosami and Yokkaichi which it was holding with the intention of erecting radio stations for the services with countries in Europe.

The Company was reorganized in March 1938 and assumed the name of the International Tele-Communications Company, increasing its capital to ¥25,000,000 and absorbing the International Telephone Company.

The Company has, according to the Law, to equip and manage the facilities

and then rent them to the Ministry of Communications in consideration of a subsidy. Although many improvements were introduced at considerable outlay over all former installations of Iwaki radio plant by the Company, the advent of short-wave methods compelled it to close the stations upon the completion of its new stations at Oyama and Fukuoka.

The Company's circuits now offer from Nagoya direct communication service with England, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Holland, Mexico and Brazil; and from Tokyo the circuits reach out to North and South America, Hawaii, the Philippines, French Indo-China, Thai, Dutch Indies, British India, and Syria. The Company has an extensive plan of development which will in future place Japan in direct touch with all the important countries of the world.

The Company now places the following stations in daily twenty-four hour service:

(a) Transmitting station at Oyama, near Tokyo.

Receiving station at Fukuoka, near Tokyo.

(b) Transmitting station at Yosami, near Nagoya.

Receiving station at Yokkaichi, near Nagoya.

Stations (a) are used for direct communication with San Francisco, Buenos Aires, Honolulu, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok, Bandoeng (Java), Bombay and Beirut (Syria); and, stations (b) for direct communication with London, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Geneva and Warsaw.

Number of telegrams dealt with at wireless telegraph offices in the past five years was as follows:

	Domestic	Foreign
1935-36:		
Despatched	552,718	41,112
Received	314,338	25,418
1936-37:		
Despatched	581,691	49,404
Received	336,186	31,648
1937-38:		
Despatched	655,006	43,050
Received	362,759	24,076
1938-39:		
Despatched	873,918	35,786
Received	—	19,034
1939-40:		
Despatched	1,01,836	37,605
Received	—	16,700

Telephone Service

According to the latest statistics, the number of telephone exchange offices in Japan proper was 6,511 in September and that of subscribers 1,034,387 in March 1940.

The following tables show the development and present scope of the telephone service:

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE EXCHANGE AND MESSAGE OFFICES

Sept. 30, 1939

	Exchange Offices	Other Offices
Japan proper	6,197	11,217
Taiwan	122	62
Karafuto	46	109
Chosen	274	863
Kwantung Leased Territory	4	126
South Sea Islands	5	3

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN JAPAN PROPER

	Total Subscribers	Applicants for Subscription
1930-31	715,020	176,900
1931-32	729,914	172,150
1932-33	761,136	167,276
1933-34	796,538	161,857
1934-35	830,041	154,345
1935-36	870,476	145,049
1936-37	914,320	134,819
1937-38	914,930	124,806
1938-39	1,006,498	123,963
1939-40	1,034,387	123,599

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN THE TERRITORIES

Sept. 30, 1939

Territories	Subscribers
Taiwan	21,003
Karafuto	6,534
Chosen	53,993
Kwantung Leased Territory	16,889
South Sea Islands	990

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	In the Same Subscription Districts			With Other Districts	
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversations at Offices	and Public Requests for Calling out	Hours of Conversation	Requests for Calling out
1933-34	3,564,536,772	36,949,570	43,165	211,604,540	2,003,246
1934-35	3,783,991,018	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514	2,110,144
1935-36	3,984,266,968	44,791,390	44,494	273,789,863	2,216,320
1936-37	4,412,775,259	51,439,100	61,496	307,733,439	2,357,689
1937-38	4,976,321,936	59,852,742	70,164	342,590,232	2,621,762
1938-39	4,905,000,000	—	84,000	361,690,000	2,829,000
1939-40	5,389,000,000	—	102,000	411,801,000	3,158,000

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Ministry with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobe city and steamers in the harbor. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December 1932, the International Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world, Japan's colonies and ships at sea. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected with each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobe, Osaka,

Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fukui, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suma. The service has been opened between Taiwan and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934.

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service was successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Philippines, Dutch East Indies, Sumatra, England, and Germany. The service with other 28 European countries was opened in July 1935, with China in February 1936, with Cape Town and Brazil in April 1936, with Saigon in May 1936, and with Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, French-Indo-China, Thai, and Union of South Africa in 1937.

Rates for the first 3 minutes range from ¥80 to ¥92 for European countries and from ¥72 to ¥95 for the U.S.A., the highest being ¥164 for Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. (See the Appendix)

Telephotograph Service This service is available between Tokyo, Osaka, Taiwan and Mukden, and between Tokyo and London.

Radio

Radio broadcasting in Japan is under the control of a single organization, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, which in turn is supervised by the Ministry of Communications. Programs are subjected to strict censorship and nothing that might harm the interests of the country and its people is allowed to go on the air. Advertising of all sorts is prohibited. Political speeches cannot be included in the daily programs. Even election campaign speeches and Diet proceedings cannot be broadcasted.

The First Program The first radio program in Japan went on the air on March 22, 1925, five years after the world's first regular commercial broadcasting by the station KDKA, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The station, using the call letters JOAK, was in Tokyo, and it had a power of only 500 watts. This station, established temporarily at Shibaura, on the water front of Tokyo Harbor, was replaced in July by a 1 kw. station at Atagoyama, a hill in the southern part of Tokyo. In the difficult times following the great earth-

quake and fire of September 1923, which laid waste a greater part of Tokyo, the radio played an important part in comforting and encouraging the citizens who were working hard to rebuild their city and their homes.

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centers. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programs once they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide co-operation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programs. The present number of broadcasting stations is 7 with 28 sub-stations.

Program Hours The working hours of each broadcasting station in Japan differ a little according to their local conditions as well as the seasons of the year. According to the report of the JOAK, the average broadcasting hours per day in 1938 were 11 hours and 26 minutes in the general broadcasting and 4 hours and 36 minutes in the broadcasting for cities.

For EUROPE

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 4:00—6:00 a.m., Tokyo Time (19:00—21:00 GMT)

For SOUTH AMERICAN COUNTRIES

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 6:30—7:30 a.m., Tokyo Time (21:30—22:30 GMT)

For the EASTERN DISTRICTS of NORTH AMERICA

Call Sign: JLS 2 17,845 kc/s (16.81 m.)
Time: 8:00—9:00 p.m., Previous day (EST) 10:00—11:00 a.m., Tokyo Time (1:00—2:00 GMT)

For the PACIFIC COAST of NORTH AMERICA and HAWAII

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.)
Time: 9:00—10:30 p.m., Previous day (PST) 2:00—3:30 p.m., Tokyo Time (5:00—6:30 GMT)

For CHINA and the SOUTH SEAS

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 9:00—11:30 p.m., Tokyo Time (12:00—14:30 GMT)

The first program of the day is sent out at 6.00 a.m. (from April to October) and at 6.30 a.m. (from November to March), and the closing announcements of the day's program go on the air at 10.30 p.m.

Overseas Broadcast

The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inaugurated daily short wave broadcast, under the name of "Overseas Broadcast" on June 1, 1935 with the object of furnishing the residents in foreign countries with accurate information about Japan and of introducing the culture of Japan.

The programs of this broadcast consist of news in Japanese and English, music, entertainment, talk and eyewitness accounts of various sport events and other subjects, specially selected to present a true and interesting glimpse of the real Japan to listeners abroad.

At present, five separate programs are being sent out on five transmissions: namely, (1) Europe, (2) South America, (3) the Eastern Part of North America, (4) the Pacific Coast of North America and Hawaii, and (5) China and the South Seas, Indo-China, Malay Peninsula, India and the East Indies. Furthermore, preparations have now virtually been completed for another extension, that is the setting up of two more transmissions so that two new, separate programs may be sent out,—one directed to Hawaii, the other to the Near East. In the near future, these two new transmissions will be formally opened for overseas broadcasting service.

Short-wave transmissions to the above-mentioned directions are as follows:

Listeners

When the Tokyo broadcasting station was opened on March 22, 1925, the total number of listeners for the whole country stood around 5,400. On August 29, 1926, when the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was inaugurated, the number of listeners had reached a figure of over 338,200.

The listening fee of two yen a month which had been calculated to be charged at the time when the broadcasting service was started, was reduced to one yen due to the unexpected increase in the number of listeners. This rate was uniform all over the country.

In September 1928, the number of listeners reached the 500,000 mark. In February 1932, three years and four months later, the number ran into 1,000,000, and in April of the same year, the subscription fee was reduced to seventy-five sen. The so-called "Golden Age" in our broadcasting begins at this period and in June 1933, the number passed the 1,500,000 mark, and keeping up the momentum, it leapt into 2,000,000 in April 1935. In commemoration of this growth, the subscription fee was reduced to the modest sum of 50 sen a month, which is being kept up to this day.

To sum up, it took about seven years for the number of registrations to reach the first 1,000,000; the next 1,000,000 was reached in three years only; while the subscription fee has been reduced to half the original sum during these 10 years,—a rate without parallel elsewhere in the world.

Thereafter, there was a tendency for the number of registrations to go on rapidly increasing, and on December 28, 1939, the number reached 4,666,058, the rate of distribution representing 33.0 per 100 families.

Radio in 1940 On May 29, 1940 the number of listeners passed the 5 million mark. In connection with the increase in the number of registrants, an inactive diffusion of radio sets in agricultural districts as well as mountain and fishery zones remained a serious defect in the past. Since 1937, however, this defect has been greatly remedied. In a period of three years from 1937 to 1939, for example, the number of registered listeners increased by 132 per cent in village districts, the total number having well exceeded 1,000,000. This increase, despite vari-

ous inconveniences in listening in to radio broadcasts in village districts as compared with city zones, is believed to be a direct result of the China Affair. In 1940, the number of listeners in the agricultural community gained by 100,470 while those in the fishery zone gained by 3,118, showing a gain of 29,048 or 41 per cent and 1,462 or 88 per cent, respectively, over the advance of 1939 over 1938. Subscribers among commercial circles increased by 3,386 or 5 per cent from 65,687 in 1939 to 69,073 in 1940 while governmental workers and those engaged in liberal professions increased by 357 or 0.5 per cent from 74,848 in 1939 to 75,205 in 1940. The increase rate in agricultural and fishery professions has tended sharply upward since 1938, while that in commerce has continued downward. The cancellation of registrations by listeners in 1940 was largely attributable to the change of address or travelling. They numbered 38,958 in 1940, rising by 3,994 over 1939. The transfer of radio sets in 1940 numbered 24,754, gaining by 18,703 over 1939 while the cancellations because of troubles of radio sets (21,188 cases in 1940) and overlapped applications (11,879 cases in 1940) were also dominant in 1940.

The registration of listeners in 1940 kept on normally increasing in the first five months, January to May, the monthly licenses newly issued averaging 150,000. With the number of cancellations deducted, the net increase of licensed listeners amounted to 66,000 monthly. Specially, the new licenses issued during May, totalled 108,000, far exceeding the 102,000, the past high, registered in January 1939, and establishing a new record since the commencement of radio broadcasting in this country. However, the registration started to decline from June and hit the bottom in October, the number of increased registrations in that month amounting to only 42,000, the lowest since October 1938. With October as the bottom, the upward trend gathered momentum. As a result, the total number of new licenses issued during 1940 came to top the 1,000,000 mark, thus eclipsing the figures for 1939 by more than 98,000. The depression of registration of new listeners in the five months, June to October, may be attributed to a scarcity of radio sets because of the adoption of official prices. In the past, the trend of the registra-

tion of listeners was largely based on economic factors, while, in the future the increased accessibility of radio receiving sets to the general public is expected to affect the registration situation. The new registrations in January 1941 totalled 124,544 while the cancellations in that month aggregated 25,499 with the result that the net increase in registrations amounted to 99,045, the highest record since the beginning of

radio broadcasting in this country and an increase of 21,521 over January 1940. The favorable tone in January was principally due to the steady and smooth supply of radio receiving sets, which was temporarily disturbed in the second half of 1940, because of official restriction of prices, the positive campaigns by the Central Broadcasting Corporation and the general business prosperity.

PREFECTURAL DISTRIBUTION OF REGISTERED RADIO LISTENERS

Prefectures	Registered Listeners		Per 100 Families	
	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941
Tokyo	1,111,369	1,163,026	79.1	77.5
Kanagawa	246,724	269,293	63.7	62.7
Saitama	105,639	125,591	37.0	43.0
Chiba	105,928	115,822	35.0	38.6
Ibaragi	67,040	82,325	22.7	27.4
Tochigi	68,695	76,210	31.2	35.4
Gumma	78,125	89,284	33.9	37.8
Yamanashi	45,940	50,791	36.3	39.8
Shizuoka	153,398	163,850	42.1	45.5
Nilgata	106,621	116,671	29.4	31.3
Osaka	576,136	621,737	57.8	61.0
Hyogo	294,808	319,322	45.6	46.6
Kyoto	184,110	198,369	49.4	55.0
Nara	48,587	54,934	38.4	44.3
Wakayama	48,640	53,239	25.7	28.3
Shiga	38,105	42,315	24.8	28.3
Tokushima	30,825	35,123	20.8	24.4
Kochi	31,398	38,102	20.1	24.6
Aichi	391,243	314,795	48.3	49.7
Miye	59,665	68,035	24.7	27.8
Gifu	70,079	76,951	28.1	30.4
Fukui	33,393	39,751	24.3	29.6
Ishikawa	41,156	48,349	25.8	31.3
Toyama	49,313	57,376	31.3	36.3
Nagano	107,121	124,335	32.1	37.8
Hiroshima	123,841	151,513	31.2	38.1
Ehime	51,882	63,507	21.1	25.3
Okayama	81,261	94,368	28.4	33.3
Yamaguchi	80,724	93,018	30.3	32.3
Shimane	36,448	42,305	23.0	26.8
Tottori	22,758	26,947	23.8	28.4
Kagawa	39,433	47,691	25.6	32.0
Kumamoto	35,086	99,826	31.7	38.7
Fukuoka	213,042	229,888	37.8	37.9
Nagasaki	56,350	62,669	21.6	23.1
Saga	30,119	33,434	23.6	25.3
Oita	41,456	49,882	20.7	25.4
Miyazaki	31,001	35,405	18.7	21.5
Kagoshima	56,070	60,451	16.6	17.9
Okinawa	1,237	1,523	0.96	1.2
Miyagi	63,121	70,445	30.1	33.8
Fukushima	51,750	62,128	18.4	22.2
Iwate	30,709	36,584	17.2	19.7
Yamagata	37,608	41,431	19.9	22.2
Akita	29,335	33,835	16.2	19.0

COMMUNICATIONS

Prefectures	Registered Listeners		Per 100 Families	
	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941
Aomori	32,358	38,602	18.9	22.8
Hokkaido	165,411	184,900	28.8	31.6
Karafuto	14,047	15,776	21.5	21.7
South Seas Mandated Islands	293	305	1.3	1.3
Total	5,369,898	5,922,059	37.9	40.9

YEARLY INCREASE OF LISTENERS

Year	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of Net increases	Total number of listeners at the end of year	Per 100 Families
1935	659,174	216,072	443,102	2,422,111	17.9
1936	728,777	246,128	482,649	2,904,823	21.4
1937	942,550	262,818	679,732	3,584,462	26.4
1938	878,089	296,900	581,189	4,165,729	29.4
1939	716,628	216,299	500,329	4,666,058	33.0
1940	1,064,921	361,355	703,426	5,369,898	37.9

REGISTRATIONS BY CITIES AND RURAL COMMUNITIES

	Total		Cities		Town & Villages	
	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%
1935	2,304,479	100	1,628,059	70.6	676,420	29.4
1936	2,776,189	100	1,915,857	69.0	860,332	31.0
1937	3,402,489	100	2,259,513	66.4	1,142,976	33.5
1938	4,165,729	100	2,632,629	63.1	1,533,100	36.8
1939	4,666,058	100	2,897,837	62.1	1,768,221	37.9
1940 (March)	4,862,137	100	2,992,965	61.5	1,869,172	38.5
1941 (")	5,668,031	100	3,402,087	60.1	2,265,944	39.9

families
At end of
June, 1951
22.8
31.6
21.7

1.0
40.9

Per 100
Families
17.9
21.4
26.4
29.4
33.1
37.9

7
22.4
31.0
33.0
35.8
37.9
38.3
39.9

CHAPTER XXIV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

K.K. IRISU SHOKAI

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CHAPTER XXIV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

Japan's railway projects date from 1869, when the Government formed a plan to lay a trunk line linking Tokyo with Kyoto and Kobé, together with some branches to Yokohama and Tsuruga, a port on the Japan Sea. As the first step, half a million yen was sanctioned for the work between Tokyo (Shimbashi) and Yokohama, but the State Treasury was in no position to find this amount, while private capital declined to venture into this novel field of investment. It was at this time that an Englishman, Horatio Nelson Lay, by name, came forward with a proposal to furnish the required funds. The terms offered by him were accepted and a Japanese loan for one million sterling was placed on the London market. With the arrival of a British engineering corps and materials, the first sod was dug on the 28.962 kilometer Shimbashi-Yokohama section in March 1870, and on the 32.18 kilometer Kobé-Osaka section in November 1870. The gauge adopted for these lines was one of 1.067 meters, which has later become the standard gauge of the Japanese railways.

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines
The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September 1872, while the Kobé-Osaka line was opened to traffic in 1874 and it was further extended to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometers between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was be-

ing strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometer length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometers.

Private Lines About this time the Government was in financial difficulties and the building of State railways practically came to a standstill except for a few extensions. It was at this time that, not being in a position to undertake the work itself, the Government began to encourage private enterprise, the encouragement mostly being in the shape of subsidies. Under these circumstances, many private railways were built in rapid succession, the most notable among them being the Nippon Railway, the Sanyo Railway, the Kyushu Railway and the Hokkaido Colliery Railway. The total length of line thus built by private capital in the ten years between 1881 and 1891 aggregated 1,874.485 kilometers, a length more than double that of the State which did not exceed 886.559 kilometers by the end of 1891.

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favor of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July 1889, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 611.42 kilometers between Tokyo and Kobé. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometers section between Takasaki and Naoetsu was completed with the exception of 9.654 kilometers over the Usui Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being

made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometers and the bulk of contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the Government and the public the advisability of state acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive program of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May 1920, a separate Ministry of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

The law of 1892 authorized the Government to build certain specified lines within a certain limit of time, and also to buy up such private railways as were judged necessary for the completion of a unified system. Pursuant to this program the State Railways proceeded with the work of construction and in 1906 and 1907 purchased 17 private lines to a total length of 4,547.034 kilometers, thereby bringing under national control all the railway lines in Japan proper, with the exception of feeding lines of local importance. In 1922 after a careful survey of the State lines the Railway Construction Law was modified and some new lines were added to the original program. At the same time it was decided that, pursuant to the new law, such local lines as formed a connecting link between the State lines,

either already projected or considered necessary for completing a unified national railway system be purchased.

Organization and Staff

Prior to the nationalization of the private lines, the State lines were operated on a departmental system based on the principle of centralization. The system worked well because the management of the State lines was a relatively small business, but when the Government assumed the management of all lines it was found unequal to the extra work, and in December 1908, the Imperial Government Railways were removed from the control of the Minister of Communications and assigned to a newly created administrative body, the Railway Board. The administration was then decentralized and remains so today. The existing system of organization of the State Railways was established in May 1920, when the said Railway Board was made, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 143, an independent department of the Central Government. According to the regulations, the Ministry of Railways not only controls the whole of the State lines, but supervises the provincial railways and tramways in Japan proper. It maintains one central and six regional offices. The Central Office is directly governed by the Minister of Railways and manages all matters relating to the State Railways as well as maintaining supervision over provincial railways and tramways. It is composed of eight bureaux according to the kind of business dealt with. They are the Minister's Secretariat; Bureau of Local Railway Administration; Bureau of Traffic and Operation; Bureau of Construction; Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement; Bureau of Mechanical Engineering; Bureau of Electricity; and Bureau of Finance and Purchase. The Central Office also controls Regions, District Construction, District Improvement, District Electric Offices and Tokyo Railway Hospital. On April 23, 1930, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 83, a further bureau, the Board of Tourist Industry was created as a separate bureau of the Ministry of Railways. The bureau is controlled by the Minister of Railways and attends to the business of the tourist industry, its object being to encourage people of other lands, by advertising and in other ways, to visit Japan and

see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

As stated above, the administration of the State Railways is decentralized into six regions, Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is a complete unit and is in charge of a director who is vested with power to conduct, at his own discretion, all affairs relative to his jurisdiction, excepting matters of general and large import for which decision of the central administration has to be obtained.

In the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees.

On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 227,689 (8,118 females) servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 218,352 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year 1936-37 was ¥153,812,691 as against ¥147,990,026 in 1935-36. The average annual salary per person in employment was ¥676. As compared with the preceding year, the staff shows an increase of 9,337 during the year, and the annual payment of salaries increased by ¥5,822,665.

Traffic

Earnings of the State Railways from traffic in Japan proper in the past 10 years follow:

Fiscal Years	Goods Traffic	Working Revenue			Total
		Passenger Traffic	Miscellaneous	(Unit ¥1,000)	
1931-32	180,365	245,359	7,824		433,540
1932-33	178,717	239,017	8,219		425,954
1933-34	203,189	261,159	9,905		474,254
1934-35	225,246	282,857	10,564		518,668
1935-36	233,397	300,422	10,714		544,534
1936-37	259,773	326,610	11,786		598,171
1937-38	294,133	359,573	16,458		670,164
1938-39	338,963	412,462	17,522		768,947
1939-40	356,383	527,140	—		883,524
1940-41	371,944	623,827	—		995,772

Increase of Car-loadings The number of passengers and the volume of goods carried by the State Railways have increased in these years revealing greater activities of the nation in the execution of various duties required by international wars, car-loadings increased about 48 per cent in July 1942 as compared with July 1937 or at the beginning of the current war against Chungking, as indicated in the following table:

INDICES OF CAR-LOADINGS

(July 1937=100)

Months	1940	1941	1942
January	120.3	138.9	137.8
February	125.6	139.1	133.7
March	126.5	139.6	135.6
April	127.3	139.2	138.0
May	133.3	140.3	142.4
June	132.4	136.4	141.3
July	134.4	137.6	148.8
August	137.1	143.3	
September	138.3	145.2	
October	131.3	137.9	

Months	1940	1941	1942
November	135.4	141.8	
December	135.2	138.8	

Length of Open Lines

The total length of State lines open for traffic on March 31, 1938, the end of the fiscal year of 1937, reached 20,501 kilometers as against 17,422 kilometers in 1936-37, showing an increase of 3,079 kilometers. The total length of tracks in 1936-37 reached 27,801.925 kilometers as against 27,299.552 kilometers in 1935-36, indicating an increase of 502,373 kilometers. Of the total length of lines open for traffic 15,253.323 kilometers are covered by single tracks, 1,945.749 by double tracks, 18.800 by triple tracks, 204.332 by quadruple and the rest by multiple tracks.

Finance

By Railway Special Account Law, enforced since 1909, the budget of the State Railways was made separate from the general finances of the State. Furthermore, the law provides that all

capital expenditure for railway construction and improvement should be met from the revenue accruing from all sources of traffic and that the expenditure should, in case the revenue is not sufficient to cover it, be supplemented by the proceeds of public loans issued as a charge on this special account.

The Capital Revenue settled for the fiscal year 1938 was ¥239,926,000 as against ¥248,030,000 of the expenditure settled, being an increase of ¥42,763,000 for the former and of ¥35,244,000 for the latter as compared with the preced-

ing year. The increase in the revenue settled was attributable chiefly to the increase in amount transferred from the railway profit, as well as proceeds of sundry receipts, while the gain in the expenditure settled was due to the increase in the expenditure on the railway construction, and the improvement and the motor routes, as well as the sum appropriated to the redemption of liabilities. The total amount of capital reached ¥4,454,302,327 at the end of March 1939. Below are given returns on this account settled for the past three years:

Item	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Capital revenue	172,936,606	195,798,000	238,605,000
Surplus on stores account	425,838	1,376,000	1,321,000
Total revenue	173,352,444	197,173,000	239,926,000
Construction, improvement and motor-car routes	136,405,478	148,255,000	175,164,000
Redemption of debts	22,287,245	22,531,000	22,866,000
Temporary expenses	—	2,000	—
Transfer to general account	—	30,000	—
Transfer to special account of temporary military expenses	—	—	40,000
Supply for stores fund	—	10,000	10,000
Total expenditure	158,692,723	212,786,000	248,030,000

Stores Account The settled amount of Stores Account Revenue for the year 1938-39 was ¥305,543,000 and the expenditure on this item amounted to ¥321,493,000, or an increase of ¥75,211,000 for revenue and of ¥91,063,000 for expenditure as compared with the previous year. The increase in the revenue was accounted for partly by the larger pro-

ceeds of sales of railway stores, and partly by the increase in receipts accruing from repairs of railway stores and from the supply of electric current while the increase in the expenditure is accounted for by the rise in the stores and workshop expenses and the charge for electric current.

Items	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Railway stores and workshop receipts	190,814,739	230,332,000	305,543,000
Railway stores and workshop expenses	185,415,437	230,430,000	321,493,000

Revenue Account The total revenue settled during the year amounted to ¥1,096,486,000 and the total expenditure ¥896,043,000 which are respectively ¥188,273,000 and ¥163,979,000 more than in the previous year. The increase in the revenue was attributable to the increase of the traffic and the sundry receipts, as well as receipts on suspense

account and advances, while increase in the expenditure was accounted for by the growth in working expenses and subsidies to local railways, as well as the increase in refunds and advances appropriated for the C.O.D. payments.

The Revenue Account settled for the past three years is as follows:

STATE RAILWAYS

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Items	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Revenue:			
Traffic receipts	591,252,994	662,747,000	760,524,000
Sundry receipts	11,809,580	13,473,000	13,729,000
Receipts on suspense account and advance	193,035,911	221,993,000	322,233,000
Total	796,098,485	898,213,000	1,096,486,000
Expenditure:			
Working expenses	362,542,819	412,050,000	477,455,000
Interest charges	83,206,220	83,793,000	84,133,000
Refunds and advances	198,005,869	229,546,000	327,560,000
Secret service fund	27,440	27,000	25,000
Subsidies to local railway	6,854,027	6,647,000	6,870,000
Total	650,636,455	732,064,000	896,043,000

Fixed assets of the State Railways for the last 10 years follow:

(In ¥1,000)	
End of March	End of March
1930	1935
1931	1936
1932	1937
1933	1938
1934	1939
3,246,724	3,728,485
3,374,392	3,850,507
3,413,786	3,987,210
3,503,893	4,127,200
3,613,169	4,283,600

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES

(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal Years	Income	Expenses	Profit	Fiscal Years	Income	Expenses	Profit
1929-30	518,016	399,026	118,989	1934-35	518,668	314,126	204,541
1930-31	458,140	382,552	75,587	1935-36	544,534	329,537	215,997
1931-32	433,540	365,088	68,451	1936-37	598,171	354,420	243,751
1932-33	425,954	364,874	61,079	1937-38	670,164	406,692	263,472
1933-34	474,254	282,199	192,054	1938-39	768,947	470,007	298,940

Note: Figures include those for businesses other than railway traffic.

Private Railways

General At the end of 1938 the number of local railways in Japan proper was 297. The aggregate amount of capital reached ¥1,519,002,170, reserve funds ¥86,114,556, net profit ¥63,410,103 and dividend ¥50,291,647. The total open kilometerage in March 1938 was 6,793 km., a decrease of 2.25 km.

WORKING RESULTS OF LOCAL RAILWAYS IN JAPAN PROPER

(1933-34 to 1937-38)

Items	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
Number of railways	266	260	257	250	246
Kilometerage opened	7,184.55	7,088.22	7,097.56	7,018.77	6,793.00
Earnings from passenger traffic (yen)	59,062,591	62,262,808	64,172,467	68,929,859	73,543,000
Earnings from goods traffic (yen)	19,307,870	26,303,665	21,420,598	22,308,862	23,630,000

N.B.—The above table does not include the lines belonging to private individuals for their exclusive use.

Tramcar Service The tramways in Japan date back from 1880, when an application was tendered for the construction of the Tokyo Horse Tram Co.'s line which was completed and opened to traffic in 1883. As provided by the Tramway Law now in force, all the tramways in Japan are constructed as a rule on highways. The street railways, a certain number of suburban railways

and others laid in provinces are placed under the control of the Law. Such public bodies as cities, towns and villages may take the management of tramways without restriction. Steam and electricity are mostly employed as motive power except a few local tramways where gasoline, horse or human power is used for the purpose.

WORKING RESULTS OF TRAMWAYS

	Number of Companies		Open Kilometerages		Income from Traffic (In ¥1,000)		
	Electric	Steam	Electric	Steam	Passage	Freight	Total
1933-34	92	33	2,059	339	101,864	1,130	102,994
1934-35	89	32	2,062	337	104,744	1,268	106,012
1935-36	85	28	2,038	298	108,126	1,109	109,235
1936-37	86	26	2,055	272	113,794	1,108	114,902
1937-38	85	25	2,036	235	120,176	1,117	121,293

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1890, when a railway linking Kéijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometers in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kéi-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Kéijo-Fusan, Kéijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906 respectively. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Kéijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Kéijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Héijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Kéijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kainéi line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyo line which connects Kainéi to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kainéi to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Kéito line of S.M.R.C. at Kainéi, thus preparing a new eastern transportation

facility between Chosen and Manchoukuo. On March 31, 1940, the State Lines in Chosen open to business totalled 4,089.5 km. as against 3,831.1 km. in 1939 showing an increase of 258.4 km.

The aggregate length of private railways open to traffic at the end of March 1940 amounted to 1,854.6 kilometers. The number of private companies which are already operating railways in Chosen numbered 17, viz., Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Kéinan Railway Company, Kongosan Electric Railway Company, Shinko Railway Company, Keishun Railway Company, West Chosen Central Railway Company, Chosen Kéito Railway Company, Chosen Helan Railway Company, Chosen Coal Industry Company, South Manchurian Railway Company, East Manchurian Railway Company, South Chosen Union Electric Company, Heihoku Railway Company, Sansho Railway Company, Hokusen Takushoku Railway Company, Tanho Railway Company, and Tashito Railway Company. Besides, there were 5 tramcar companies for city traffic. The above mentioned companies, if their aims are general transportation, receive regular subsidies from the Government. The aggregate capital of the railway companies amounted to ¥188,633,251. The total length of tramways operated in Chosen came to 8.23 kilometers indicating a gain of 1.4 kilometers over the previous year. The power used is mostly

electricity. (See Chapter XL for fuller information.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Taiwan (Formosa) by the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Heito section completed in 1912, the Tai-to line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The length of lines open to traffic on March 31, 1939, was 881.9 kilometers, being the same as the preceding year. The working route kilometerage of the Government lines was, in 1939-40, 885.1 kilometers. Earnings from passenger traffic amounted to ¥15,170,660, from hauling goods ¥20,221,171, making a total of ¥35,391,830, an increase of ¥4,284,803 or 13.7 per cent over the previous year.

Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. At the end of 1939, there were the total working km. of 2,651.2. The earnings of the companies through the railway business amounted to ¥3,158,663.

The tramways which form an important factor in the island communi-

cation system have made a marked development in recent years. The total length of lines in operation on March 31, 1940, was 700.6 km., and the total receipts ¥1,163,725.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 meter and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 meters, some time in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928.

In 1939-40 the earnings of the government railways were ¥1,531,770 from passengers and ¥2,263,364 from goods, making a total of ¥3,795,134.

There are altogether three local railway companies that have run railway business in Karafuto.

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavor as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came

a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which

27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921-26 for passenger cars was 100.49 per cent and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikishas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor-car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on pro-

vincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

NUMBER OF MOTOR CARS IN JAPAN PROPER

At the end of	Ordinary Cars		Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
	Private	Taxicabs				
1933	7,723	59,010	38,199	5,187	25,124	135,234
1934	7,970	62,511	42,059	4,938	39,095	156,573
1935	9,213	64,795	46,918	5,065	49,913	175,904
1936	— 74,910 —		51,338	4,978	63,348	194,574

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1936

	Ordinary Cars	Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
Tokyo	17,991	10,905	1,095	16,347	46,338
Osaka	6,019	4,039	477	11,517	22,052
Hyogo	2,620	3,405	226	3,761	10,012
Kanagawa	2,430	2,363	128	2,186	7,107
Aichi	3,008	2,704	416	4,587	10,715
Shizuoka	2,348	1,811	113	1,563	5,835
Fukuoka	3,353	1,047	217	1,807	6,424
Kyoto	2,540	1,419	180	2,125	6,264

Note: Conditions of motor transportation are not made public since 1937.

Aviation

History of Development

The Early Period During the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877, two balloons were built. In 1891, Chuhachi Ninomiya made a model of an aeroplane shaped like a bird from his own design, and, in 1894, another shaped like an insect. In 1897, Isaburo Yamada obtained a patent for a kite balloon of his own invention. Two of these kite balloons were used in the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1907, a balloon corps was organized in the Telegraph Corps at Nakano, and, in June 1909, a special military balloon investigation association was established. In March 1910, a gliding test of aeroplane No. 1 of the Hino type was made at Toyamagahara, Tokyo, and, in October that year, a flying test of an aeroplane of the Narahara type was made. On December 19 of the same year, Lieutenant Tokugawa (now Lieutenant-General) flew 3,000 meters in four minutes in a Farman aeroplane at Yoyo-

gi, and Captain Hino flew in a Glady aeroplane. This was the first time that an aeroplane flight was carried out in Japan.

The First Civilian Flight In the spring of 1911, airship No. 2 of the Yamada type was taken out of the hangar at Osaki, Tokyo, and made a successful cross-country flight. In March and April of the same year, an American flyer carried out an exhibition flight in Osaka and Tokyo; on April 8, Shinzo Morita, who had studied flying in France, flew in a 45 h.p. monoplane over the Joto parade-ground in Osaka, this being the first flight by a civilian flyer in this country; and, in April that year, the aerodrome and flying ground at Tokorozawa were completed. In June 1912, Atwater, an American flyer, conducted a series of exhibition flights by hydroplane on the sea off Nishinomiy near Osaka; and, in July that year, five officers were selected from each army division to be trained as flying officers. This marks the beginning of instruc-

tion in flying to military officers in this country. In the autumn of 1912, a number of aeroplanes and airships participated in the grand military maneuvers. In February 1913, the Tékoku Hiko Kyokai (Imperial Aeronautical Association) was established; on May 4 that year, Mr. Koha Takéishi, a civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting. In bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed stunt flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Art Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April 1918, Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 22 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and

Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., opened one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March 1924 the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September of that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

Air Mail Traffic In April 1925, air mail traffic was started between Tokyo and Osaka; and, on July 25 that year, an aeroplane of the Asahi Shimbun took off from the Yoyogi parade-ground in Tokyo and, on October 27, reached Rome after a flight of 16,000 kilometers (in stages) via Moscow, Paris and London. In 1926, the Japanese Navy purchased from Italy the dirigible S.No. 3, which was one with a semi-rigid envelope, introduced into Japan for the first time. In June 1927, the Aviation Law came into effect. In May, the Coast Defense Association successfully carried out a flight round the mainland, and, in October that year, the airship S.No. 3 exploded, while participating in the grand naval maneuvers. In April 1928, Habuto, a civilian aviator, established a new record by flying 2,000 kilometers in 13 hours and 23 minutes; and, in July that year, aerial defense maneuvers were conducted in Osaka.

The Air Transport Co. In 1929, the Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., was established and inaugurated a regular air passenger service between Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, later extending it to Seoul and Dairen; and two Army scouting planes of the 88 type flew between Tachisral and Héito without stopping, making a record of aerial connection between the mainland and Taiwan. On their homeward flight, one of the planes flew for 15 hours and 15 minutes, thus establishing a new record of staying in the air in this country. In 1930, the Japan Students' Aviation League was formed and associations for the study of aviation were established one after another in different universities and colleges in Tokyo and Osaka. Yoshihara, a civilian flyer, flew from Berlin to Tokyo via Siberia in 11 days and simultaneously, Azuma, also a civilian flyer, reached Tokyo from Los Angeles via New York, London, Berlin and Siberia. In March 1931, the airship No. 8 which had been made in Japan and belonged to the naval air force at Kasumigaura took off and stayed in the air for a record length of time of 60 hours and one minute.

In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hoséi University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Hanéda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland.

The Dai-Nippon Airways Company
Under the auspices of the Ministry of Communications a new airway company was incorporated on December 1, 1938, through a merger between the Japan Air Transport Company and the International Air Transportation Company. It is called the Dai-Nippon Kōkū Kabushiki Kaisha or the Dai-Nippon Airways Company. The establishment of the company was contemplated by the Ministry of Communications for the development of civil aviation in 1938 and the merger of the two companies was the first step for the realization of a monopolistic half-governmental airway company. The Bill for the establishment of the Dai-Nippon Airways Company was prepared by the Ministry and submitted to the Imperial Diet. Through the adoption of the bill by the 74th session which met in the early months of 1939, the Dai-Nippon Airways Company's capitalization was fixed at ¥100,000,000. The company has the right of monopolizing the national and international civil airway transportation business of the country, receiving subsidies from the National Treasury and is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital.

Of the total amount of the capital, ¥37,250,000 shall be invested by the Government in cash and fixed assets; the number of shares shall be 510,000 (face value ¥50) representing ¥25,500,000, the amount to be paid-up being ¥17,625,000 according to the provisions of the law and the Imperial Ordinance for the establishment of the company.

The present major air routes in Japan are Tokyo—Dairen, Fukuoka—Taihoku, Tokyo—Sapporo, Tokyo—Hsinking, Tokyo—Peking, Fukuoka—Nanking, Taihoku—Canton, Tokyo—Bangkok and Tokyo—Palau, the last three being opened in 1938 and 1939. The aggregate length of the routes extends as long as 30,000 kilometers in 1940.

Tokyo-Bangkok Regular Air Route
Opens. Because of the successful results of three test flights made in the past, the Dai Nippon Airways Company decided to inaugurate the Tokyo-Bangkok regular air service. The Matsukaze (Mitsubishi-Type I transport plane) hopped off from Tokyo for Bangkok on its maiden flight on June 10, 1940, and landed safely at Bangkok on June 22 by way of Canton and Indo-China, thus stabilizing a regular air service between Japan and Thailand. Later, as a result of the improvement of Franco-Japanese relations, the air-liner has come to take a direct route via Hanoi and across French Indo-China from July 15, 1940.

South-Sea Line Announced. A regular air service linking Yokohama, Saipan and Palau is being conducted as a fortnightly return trip. The distance between Yokohama and Palau is being covered by a Kawanisi four-engined flying boat in two days, which is uncomparably faster than the regular steamship service which takes two full weeks or more to cover the distance.

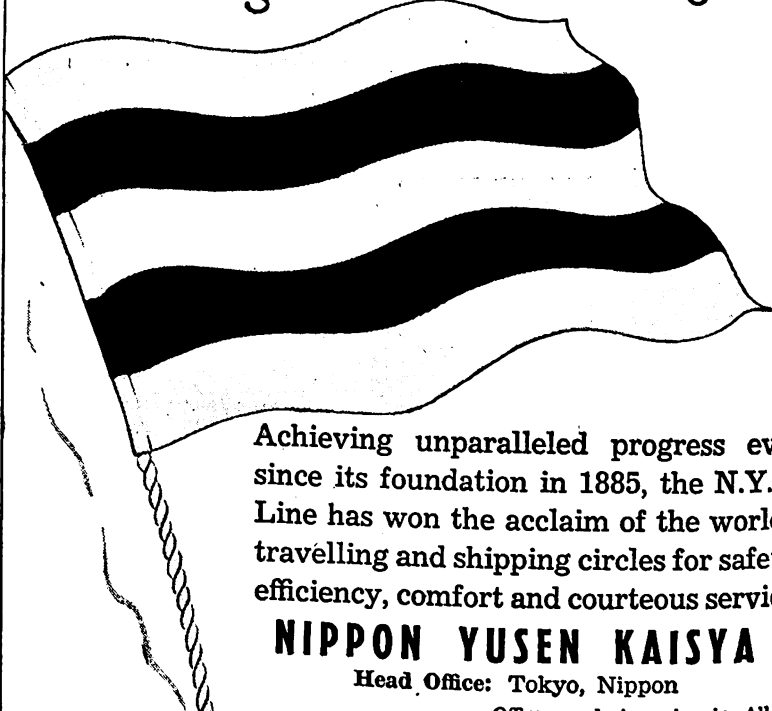
Certainly, it is a matter of great joy for residents in the South Sea islands to be able to read Japanese papers from Tokyo on the same day of publication and to enjoy looking at Japanese native flowers fresh from the garden.

CHAPTER XXV

SEA TRANSPORTATION

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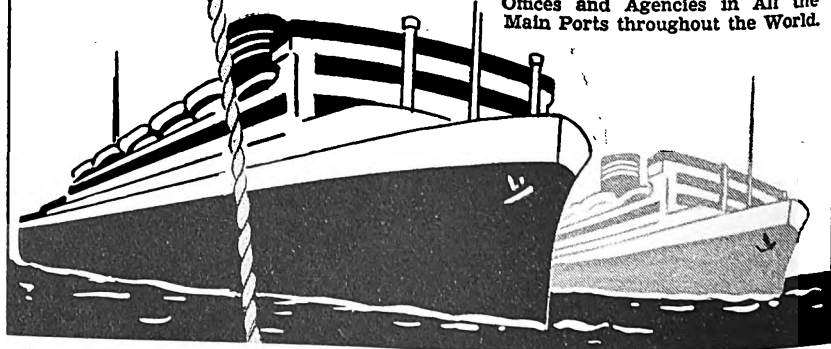


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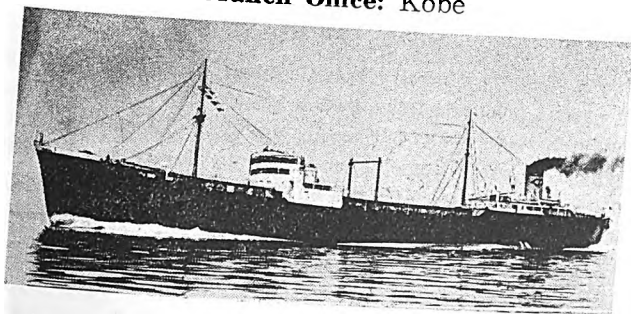
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Metal Products, Electric Lamps, Etc.

CHAPTER XXV

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

The dawn of Japan's history is associated with maritime activities. The national mythology is rich in stories of sea adventures. Later authentic records fully demonstrate the energy and spirit of the early Japanese, who had to fight their way through stormy seas in the primitive craft of those days. The period covered by the latter half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century marks the golden age of marine activity in Old Japan. This was in a great measure due to the stimulus received by the natives through the appearance of Portuguese and other foreign ships in Japanese waters. Japanese vessels not only were in evidence in South China and the South Sea Islands, but cruised the Pacific as far as Mexico and fought their way through the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope to Europe. Military rulers encouraged maritime enterprises and many large vessels were built. Thus the shipping trade between Japan and the South Seas and India, carried on under letters patent and numbering no less than 200 ships at one time, engaged in commerce with 20 different countries, which were eventually dotted with regular Japanese colonies.

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a period of more than two centuries thereafter the ocean trade of Japan was forcibly suspended.

The Well-timed Visit Commodore Perry's visit in 1853 was opportune, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese

amongst the intelligent classes were dimly aware of conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government, amid much confusion of opinion, took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with the leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and ship-building were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese methods of ship-building and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A shipbuilding yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki.

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaisho Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later renamed the Teikoku Yusen Jokai Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.) Mampel Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobe. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called the Tsukumo Shokai, later renamed the Mitsubishi Shokai, in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which place Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against

Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was smoothly effected.

The N. Y. K. Comes into Existence Shigenobu Okuma, then Minister of Finance, and Toshimichi Okubo, then Home Minister, made efforts to organize the Yubin Kisen Mitsubishi Kaisha after the termination of the expedition. The two above-mentioned firms were dissolved and the Government's ships were handed over to the new company. The Mitsubishi interests made large profits under Government protection. Kaoru Inoué and Admiral Tsugumichi Saigo, who were Okuma's political opponents, organized a corporation to rival the Mitsubishi's as a means of overthrowing Okuma and ordered, in 1882, Eichi Shibusawa, Takashi Masuda and others to form a semi-Government shipping company under the name of the Kyodo Unyu Kaisha. Keen competition later ensued between the two and threatened to lead them to ruin. Consequently, the Government ordered them to effect a merger. In 1885 the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was incorporated through the investment of ¥5,000,000 by the Mitsubishi and ¥6,000,000 by the Kyodo Unyu. At the time of founding, the company owned 58 steamers with an aggregate of 68,700 tons. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company of America was then operating a regular line between Yokohama and Shanghai with the s. s. Golden Age, the Costa Rica and two other ships, all of which were purchased by the Japanese Government in 1874 for the transportation of Japanese soldiers on the expedition to Formosa. Iwasaki waged a freight war with the Pacific Mail at that time and finally purchased these four ships for \$8,000,000. This price included the Shanghai wharf now owned by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha at Whampoo.

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predeces-

sors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobe and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship connection with a far-away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping is attested by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and one year later this figure had increased by 10,000.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when the greater part of Japanese shipping space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers were purchased or chartered by Japanese owners and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war Japan found that its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent compared with the pre-war figures. Meanwhile the Nippon Yusen Kaisha lost no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Tokyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger ships. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new line on the Yangtze-kiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Taiwan to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897, it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898 to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts, business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the

business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell and Hector Frazer, whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era the captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884 the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 175 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War Japanese mariners were the recipients of much praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and by 1920 there was not a single foreign officer in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found herself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in her history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East-Puget Sound service. Elsewhere the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobé-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world dur-

ing this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent the further growth of its shipping, for, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894-5), only 10 per cent of imports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it had grown to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent, the remaining 20 per cent being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and, besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and despatched extra ships to European waters during the war. Furthermore, in response to the call of the United States after that country entered the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

The inevitable aftermath of the war abnormalities—shipping depression—set in early in 1920, and this is still being felt all over the world. Japanese shipping in common with that of all other nations is undergoing a severe test of its perseverance and fortitude. Despite this Japanese shipping has considerably increased. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha transferred all of its Pacific ships to the

Nippon Yusen Kaisha, by which the latter became one of the greatest shipping companies of the world.

Present Conditions

At the end of 1938 there were 328 companies engaged in sea transportation business, with an aggregate amount of

capital of 711 million yen and reserve funds 176 million yen, raising profits of 80 million yen in that year. The number of companies engaged in shipbuilding was 161 capitalized at 372 million yen, with reserve funds amounting to 78 million yen, and they raised annual profits of 42.5 million yen.

LIST OF LARGE N.Y.K. VESSELS

(In 1940)

	Gross Tonnage	Passenger Accommodation			
		1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
M.S. Kamakura Maru	17,526	240	—	95	—
S.S. Nitta Maru	17,163	127	—	88	—
S.S. Yawata Maru	17,000*	127	—	88	—
M.S. Asama Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
M.S. Tatuta Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
S.S. Taiyo Maru	14,458	—	91	—	241
M.S. Terukuni Maru	11,931	121	—	68	—
M.S. Yasukuni Maru	11,933	116	—	68	—
M.S. Hikawa Maru	11,622	—	76	—	69
M.S. Hié Maru	11,621	—	76	—	69
M.S. Heian Maru	11,615	—	76	—	69
S.S. Husimi Maru	10,936	86	—	38	—
S.S. Suwa Maru	10,672	83	—	38	—
S.S. Haruna Maru	10,421	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakone Maru	10,420	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakozaki Maru	10,413	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakusan Maru	10,380	85	—	40	—
S.S. Kasima Maru	9,908	74	—	34	—
S.S. Katori Maru	9,849	42	—	110	—
M.S. Heiyō Maru	9,816	42	—	—	80
S.S. Yamato Maru	9,656	61	—	217	—
S.S. Rakuyō Maru	9,419	42	—	—	51
S.S. Asahi Maru	9,327	63	—	220	—
S.S. Anyō Maru	9,257	—	24	—	47
S.S. Huzi Maru	9,130	38	—	165	—
S.S. Yosino Maru	8,990	18	—	177	—
S.S. Ginyō Maru	8,613	—	20	—	37
S.S. Atuta Maru	7,983	55	—	14	—
S.S. Kamo Maru	7,955	51	—	—	—
S.S. Kitano Maru	7,952	55	—	14	—

Ships under Construction

S.S. Kasiwara Maru	28,000*	220	—	120	—
S.S. Izumo Maru	28,000*	220	—	120	—
S.S. Kasuga Maru	17,000*	127	—	88	—
M.S. Miike Maru	11,400*	60	—	—	—
M.S. Misima Maru	11,400*	60	—	—	—

Note: (*) indicates approximate tonnage.

LIST OF LINERS

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LIST OF LARGE O.S.K. SHIPS

(In 1940)

	Gross Tonnage	Nominal Horse Power	Year Constructed
S.S. Arizona Maru	9,684	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro Maru	9,627	5,000	1929
M.S. Buenos Aires Maru	9,626	5,000	"
M.S. La Plata Maru	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Santos Maru	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Montevideo Maru	7,267	3,800	1926
S.S. Arabia Maru	9,480	5,500	1918
S.S. Africa Maru	9,476	5,500	"
S.S. Manila Maru	9,486	5,600	1915
S.S. Hawaii Maru	9,467	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai Maru	9,192	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho Maru	8,506	6,400	"
S.S. Takachiho Maru	8,154	7,100	1933
M.S. Argentina Maru	13,000	10,500	1939
M.S. Brasil Maru	13,000	10,500	1939
M.S. Hokoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
S.S. Sela Maru	6,659	4,200	1939
M.S. Nana Maru	6,757	4,200	1940
M.S. Toa Maru	6,732	3,300	1939
M.S. Hokai Maru	8,416	5,700	1932
M.S. Nankai Maru	8,416	5,700	1932
M.S. Sanyo Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Kinai Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Hokuriku Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Tokai Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
S.S. Takasago Maru	9,347	8,600	1936
M.S. Aikoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
M.S. Kokoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
S.S. Nekka Maru	6,785	6,400	1934
S.S. Ural Maru	6,374	5,000	1928
S.S. Kokuryu Maru	7,369	6,100	1937
S.S. Oryoku Maru	7,363	6,100	1937
S.S. Kiturin Maru	6,783	6,400	1934

LIST OF KOKUSAI LINERS

(In 1940)

	Deadweight Capacity Tons	Main Diesel Engine B.H.P.	Maximum Speed Knots
M.V. Kagu Maru	9,206	7,000	19.503
M.V. Kano Maru	9,731	7,600	19.016
M.V. Kashi Maru	9,400	7,000	19.435
M.V. Katuragi Maru	9,581	6,000	17.082
M.V. Kinka Maru	10,096	9,200	21.554
M.V. Kinryu Maru	10,142	9,200	20.004
M.V. Kinugasa Maru	9,485	7,000	19.175
M.V. Kirisima Maru	9,781	6,000	18.029
M.V. Kiyosumi Maru	9,849	7,600	19.165
M.V. Komaki Maru	9,779	7,600	19.583
M.V. Kongo Maru	9,801	7,600	19.636
M.V. Kurama Maru	10,294	4,050	15.978

Sea Transportation in 1941-42

In order to cope with the stringency of bottoms the Central Shipping Control Association was created in November 1940 with the purpose of making and executing plans for the transportation of important goods. The control of shipping business was entrusted to the association during early part of 1941. But the aggressive commercial measures of Britain and the United States against Japan and the dangers of voyage increased with the development of the submarine warfare in the Atlantic Ocean demanded a thoroughgoing change in the sea transportation business. No competition among shipping companies was allowed any more, but all of them had to serve the country in accordance with the general economic policy of the Government and later to use majority of their ships for military purposes. The selection of routes of regular liners and a well planned placement of tramp ships became inevitable. The Government decided to move all Japanese ships under one unified program, to call all mariners to serve for the country and to make plans for a speedy and great increase of bottoms, encouraging all shipbuilding undertakings in the construction of required number of vessels. The Cabinet meeting held on August 19, 1941, adopted the proposed plan for the State management of the sea transportation business during the time of war. The control of shipping in Japan developed from the original autonomous control by shipowners which was centered on freight rates and valuation of ships to the semi-Governmental control which was mainly concerned with the placement of ships, then to the final stage of the complete State administration of all matters of shipping in conformity to the national general mobilization system. The State administration of shipping means in part the creation of a strong juridical person under Article 18 of the National General Mobilization Law (see Chapter on National Defense) from whom shipowners will receive a fixed charterage and commission for their services as actual managers of the shipping business. In order to attain the aim of the State administration the Bureau of Mercantile Ships in the Ministry of Communications was to be made an independent office and become the Board of Shipping toward the end of 1941 when war against the United States and the British Empire

was declared. Shipping had necessarily to assume war organization with all other national activities to serve the country in the first line of defense and aggression. The organization of the Board of Shipping was speeded up and it came into being on December 19, 1941, with a Vice-Admiral as president, suggesting a close connection of shipping with the navy in the emergency. The existing Central Shipping Control Association was strengthened in its organization, while the State compensation system for losses in shipping through the war area was revised.

In regard to shipbuilding there were different ideas between the Japan Shipowners' Association and the Board of Shipping, the former proposing a larger type as most convenient for conveyance of South Seas products in quantities against the latter's scheme of building much smaller cargo boats, oil ships and ships for carrying mineral ores. But the Board of Shipping made a final decision to go on with its own scheme. The Imperial Ordinance of February 5, 1942, empowered the Navy Minister to supervise shipbuilding in Japan and the ministerial order for the commencement of shipbuilding was later issued, according to which the Shipbuilding Control Council, created on January 28, 1942, allocated a certain number of ships to be built by each shipyard. The construction of wooden vessels is also encouraged by the Government through the Board of Shipping which fixes standard types of such vessels and gives help to the shipbuilders in the matter of getting sufficient supply of material, in accordance with the Wooden Vessels Building Program published on February 25.

The Ships Employment Council The Ships Employment Council was created on April 1, 1942, as the central juridical person of the State administration system. On April 1, 40 major companies out of 97 member companies of the Central Shipping Control Association were designated as the actual executors of sea transportation under the supervision of the Ships Employment Council. The Council consists of 4 bureaux (17 departments and 42 sections) and has 11 local stations in the country. Its organization was completed and scope of function was clearly outlined after careful consultation with the 40 companies mentioned above by May 1 when the Government Board of Shipping issu-

ed the first order of the State appropriation of ships, not less than 500 gross tons and registered in Japan proper. A ship thus called for the national service

is handed over by its owner to the Government at a fixed place and date, where and when it is rent by the Government to the Ships Employment Council.

Warehousing

History

Since warehousing depends on the storing of large quantities of goods, transportation facilities are the factors which influence its success, and expansion of one calls for an expansion of the other and, in Japan, it was the development of transport facilities in the days of Meiji which gave rise to the modern warehousing business.

Warehouses of kinds have always existed. Emperors in olden times kept rice and cereals in warehouses for military purposes. Later, cereals were kept to provide for relief of the people in case of poor crops, but in either case, the warehouses were used for military or political, not commercial, purposes. When the Tokugawas came to rule the country as Shoguns about three hundred years ago, both Yedo (present Tokyo) and Osaka became great cities where trade and commerce flourished. Transportation by sea developed, and many feudal lords came to reside in these cities, bringing with them, or having sent to them, the agricultural products of their country districts. The produce was stored at the lords' residences, which became, in a sense, public warehouses. The produce was sold by public tender and to the successful bidder a memorandum was given against receipt of payment in cash. This memorandum was equivalent to the warehouse receipt of the present day, and the holder of the memorandum was authorized to keep his cereals in the warehouses for the time stipulated on it. Loans were often raised with memoranda as collaterals.

After the Restoration, owing to development of commerce and activity in the movement of goods, many warehouse businesses were started, the first company to operate on a modern basis being the Soko Kaisha in Fukagawa, Tokyo, established in 1881 with a capital of ¥65,000. Dissolution took place 3 years later. In Osaka, the Konoike family organized the Osaka Soko Kaisha

with a capital of ¥200,000 in 1882. In 1883, the Sanbashi Kaisha in Kobe, and in 1884, the Otsu Soko Kaisha in Otsu in Shiga prefecture, were established. In 1886, the Tokyo Soko Kaisha, Ltd., was founded by the Iwasaki family. After that year there was no great change until after the Sino-Japanese War, when with increased foreign trade and improved transportation facilities by land and sea, the number of warehouse companies rapidly increased. In 1906, there were 536 people engaged in the warehouse business, either on private account or on an incorporated basis.

Present State of the Business

At the end of 1940 the number of warehouses managed by the member companies of the Japan Warehouse Association was 201, the value of commodities stored, being, on the average throughout the year ¥1,311,300,000. The monthly average for the first half of 1940 was ¥1,126,170. According to an investigation made by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the number of warehouse managements in the country at the end of 1938 totalled 456, capitalized at ¥182,736,977, and profit gained ¥6,059,511.

Along with the progress of the new structure of national economy, the Japan Warehouse Association was dissolved and the new Japan Warehousing Association was organized on June 3, 1941, with the purpose of improving the business conditions by putting all the warehousing enterprise in Japan proper and overseas territories under its control, which shall be enforced in conformity with the national economic policy. The number of member companies is 605 or over 80 per cent of the total number of warehousing companies in the Empire, the floorage owned comprises 1,250,000 tsubo.

Value of Commodities The quantity and value of commodities stored in the warehouses were as follows:

SEA TRANSPORTATION

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(According to the Japan Warehouse Association)

Year	Average			End of June			End of December		
	Ware- houses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Ware- houses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Ware- houses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1935	103	31,750	645,913	107	33,449	686,155	111	27,284	537,809
1936	127	29,461	614,381	114	30,935	683,639	155	26,026	539,635
1937	173	33,020	807,692	175	34,045	936,759	183	33,550	722,408
1938	186	33,933	730,448	187	35,691	762,675	188	30,967	718,828
1939	188	31,327	818,183	188	32,469	862,841	185	29,947	893,452
1940	191	—	—	191	—	1,225,731	201	36,526	1,659,216

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES BY IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

(Quantity in 1,000 parcels)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
At the end of									
Rice	9,966	14,381	18,630	9,714	6,525	7,729	6,906	2,299	3,092
Other cereals & flour	1,384	2,118	2,267	2,870	2,870	3,804	3,802	5,972	4,040
Sugar	2,637	2,156	818	910	1,011	1,420	654	605	5,171
Foodstuffs	1,464	1,493	2,373	2,776	3,914	3,264	3,257	3,177	3,857
Cocoon	246	338	218	211	298	369	306	374	—
Cotton	242	368	383	127	303	149	117	152	149
Wool etc.	115	153	126	139	77	114	88	51	72
Yarns	212	194	223	245	173	547	535	320	395
Textiles	165	305	301	1,162	362	961	817	1,074	1,832
Paper & materials	541	418	680	810	720	71	679	688	645
Fertilizers & materials	2,400	1,959	1,610	2,127	2,550	2,738	2,522	2,459	1,769
Iron & metal manufac- tures	1,603	3,303	2,809	3,452	3,826	5,027	5,502	5,308	6,036
Chemicals, dyestuff, gats	470	472	572	914	1,181	1,017	852	832	1,089
Total incl. others	23,134	28,892	33,016	27,284	26,026	33,550	30,967	29,947	36,526

(Value in ¥1,000,000)

	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
At the end of									
Rice	86.7	122.3	198.2	108.7	75.3	89.5	87.1	40.1	63.2
Other cereals & flour	14.6	9.5	15.3	19.3	27.9	36.6	38.4	82.2	70.6
Sugar	46.9	39.5	12.4	15.1	15.3	26.9	12.5	11.0	96.6
Foodstuffs	21.0	18.1	30.7	35.4	43.5	43.0	53.0	55.3	73.5
Cocoons	15.2	18.2	9.6	15.2	17.2	20.1	16.6	47.4	—
Cotton	46.1	68.1	82.7	22.8	68.3	22.8	8.4	9.9	15.9
Wool, etc.	43.9	35.1	37.2	21.1	22.2	41.5	26.1	15.2	23.7
Yarns	126.6	123.3	115.8	102.3	77.3	103.4	94.9	82.3	99.9
Textiles	21.1	44.2	45.1	49.4	43.9	81.4	142.3	184.6	297.9
Paper & materials	29.0	22.2	25.5	31.3	29.6	41.9	37.9	31.0	30.4
Fertilizers & materials	12.7	7.6	6.6	9.6	15.5	19.3	15.1	19.4	21.9
Iron & manufactures	14.6	27.4	22.6	36.0	34.9	73.0	77.7	121.8	135.8
Chemicals, dyestuff, fats	9.3	13.7	12.9	17.5	21.4	32.8	30.4	34.2	47.6
Total incl. others	486.1	585.0	661.8	537.8	539.6	722.4	718.8	893.4	1,225.7

Note: 1940 figures are for June.

1970



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Sanchoku Kaihatsu Kabushiki Kaisha

Nippon Keigin Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha

CHAPTER XXVI

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

Factories and Laborers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed in Japan proper at the end of 1939 was 137,422, an increase of 25,090 or 18.2 per cent as

compared with the previous year.

The number of laborers employed in those factories was 3,766,709 gaining 548,994 or 17.0 per cent over the previous year. Details follow:

INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS FOR 1939

As Compared with the Previous Year
(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Number of Factories:			
	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Metal	11,183	11,603	3.8
Machinery	17,570	23,067	31.3
Chemical	6,349	9,005	41.8
Gas and electric	669	672	0.4
Ceramic	5,231	6,686	27.8
Textile	32,618	36,871	13.0
Lumber and wood-work	10,629	13,111	23.4
Foodstuff	16,944	22,737	34.2
Printing and binding	3,932	3,777	3.9
Miscellaneous	7,207	9,893	37.3
Total	112,332	137,422	22.3
Number of Laborers:			
	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Metal	380,594	436,386	14.7
Machinery	860,431	1,126,568	30.9
Chemical	337,921	399,214	18.1
Gas and electric	10,517	12,034	14.4
Ceramic	111,675	139,707	25.1
Textile	1,045,538	1,063,387	1.7
Lumber and wood-work	113,823	152,180	33.7
Foodstuff	190,697	229,683	20.4
Printing and binding	63,568	66,186	4.1
Miscellaneous	102,951	141,364	37.3
Total	3,217,715	3,766,709	17.1
Value of Products (In ¥1,000):			
	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Metal	4,694,405	5,472,090	16.6
Machinery	3,821,881	5,421,378	41.9
Chemical	3,513,748	4,160,975	18.4
Gas and electric	47,190	69,243	46.7
Ceramic	431,765	572,034	32.5
Textile	4,200,228	4,791,534	14.2
Lumber and wood-work	457,302	719,847	57.4
Foodstuff	1,786,075	2,331,919	30.5
Printing and binding	281,169	297,480	5.8
Miscellaneous	433,251	532,624	20.9
Total	19,667,219	24,360,129	23.7
Working Hour in a Year (Unit: 1,000):			
	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Metal	1,145,251	1,344,625	17.4
Machinery	2,534,835	3,428,125	35.2
Chemical	1,091,387	1,215,682	11.4
Gas and electric	39,522	43,970	11.3
Ceramic	331,377	403,091	21.6

	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Textile	3,249,247	3,263,814	0.4
Lumber and wood-work	336,167	433,147	28.8
Foodstuff	460,581	577,513	25.4
Printing and binding	207,738	214,203	3.1
Miscellaneous	309,840	392,582	26.7
Total	9,705,952	11,316,755	16.6
Aggregated Wages Paid (In ₹1,000):			
Metal	251,976	318,621	26.4
Machinery	499,497	738,857	47.9
Chemical	155,968	194,309	24.6
Gas and electric	9,283	10,617	14.4
Ceramic	53,659	73,034	36.1
Textile	285,900	339,171	18.6
Lumber and wood-work	49,927	78,383	57.0
Foodstuff	62,130	82,710	33.1
Printing and binding	37,642	41,656	10.7
Miscellaneous	36,022	49,976	38.7
Total	1,442,009	1,927,339	33.7

Wages

According to investigations made by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the average wage of factory laborers per hour was 15 sen in 1938, an

increase of 2 sen as compared with the preceding years. The lowest 9 sen was to be found among textile industry laborers, for a large number of women and juvenile workers are to be found in this industry. Details follow:

Industry	Aggregate Labor Hours	Total Amount of Wages (In yen)	Per Hour Wage (In sen)
Textile	3,054,272,247	264,602,972	9
Metal	1,142,358,056	251,560,416	22
Machinery, tools, etc.	2,534,835,774	499,497,415	20
Ceramic	310,354,575	50,164,089	16
Chemical	1,040,565,694	149,391,688	14
Lumber and woodworking	336,167,173	49,927,237	15
Printing and binding	207,738,886	37,642,876	18
Foodstuff	460,581,895	62,130,239	13
Gas and electric	39,522,528	9,283,650	23
Miscellaneous	605,718,675	67,808,609	11
Total and average	9,732,113,503	1,442,009,191	15

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABORERS

(In 13 largest cities)

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In Yen)

Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Textile Industry:						
Silk-reeler (Female)	0.62	0.64	0.65	0.68	0.71	0.80
Cotton-spinner (Female)	0.67	0.68	0.68	0.74	0.77	0.85
Silk-thrower (Female)	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.69	0.75	0.82
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	0.65	0.73	0.68	0.71	0.74	0.85
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	0.24	1.37	1.32	1.23	1.18	1.35
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	1.59	1.59	1.41	1.24	1.42	1.75
" " (Female)	0.66	0.67	0.66	0.68	0.71	0.84

WAGES

547

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Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Metal, machine and tool industry:						
Lath-man	2.56	2.58	2.52	2.65	2.75	2.83
Finisher	2.46	2.51	2.49	2.57	2.61	2.82
Founder	2.71	2.72	2.64	2.76	2.92	3.05
Blacksmith	2.45	2.44	2.41	2.72	2.88	3.17
Wooden-pattern maker	2.57	2.61	2.54	2.79	2.91	2.87
Kiln industry:						
Potter	1.39	1.36	1.45	1.59	1.66	1.88
Glass-maker	1.68	1.67	1.70	1.72	1.82	2.08
Cement-maker	2.05	2.04	2.03	2.19	2.31	2.54
Brick-maker (Shape)	1.27	1.25	1.25	1.32	1.41	1.81
Tile-maker (Shape)	1.50	1.54	1.51	1.65	1.58	2.05
Chemical industry:						
Vitriol-maker	2.11	2.17	2.11	2.18	2.36	2.53
Match-maker (Male)	1.04	1.11	1.18	1.25	1.35	1.56
" " (Female)	0.50	0.52	0.53	0.58	0.62	0.67
Oil-presser	1.94	1.97	1.92	2.03	2.01	2.29
Japanese-paper maker	1.48	1.46	1.44	1.55	1.69	1.89
Foreign-style paper maker	1.71	1.75	1.75	1.87	1.92	2.08
Leather-maker	2.38	2.35	2.49	2.61	2.86	3.18
Foodstuff industry:						
Flour-miller	1.88	1.92	1.90	1.89	2.01	2.16
Saké-brewery worker	1.51	1.53	1.58	1.59	1.69	1.94
Soy-brewery worker	1.47	1.45	1.42	1.45	1.49	1.67
Sugar-refinery worker	2.34	2.35	2.50	2.66	2.75	2.96
Confectioner	1.46	1.47	1.45	1.54	1.65	1.84
Canner	1.22	1.21	1.25	1.38	1.52	1.73
Clothing industry:						
Tailor (for European clothes)	1.83	1.79	1.77	1.87	1.96	2.13
Shoe-maker	1.77	1.81	1.82	1.91	2.05	2.18
Wooden-clog maker	1.33	1.35	1.40	1.54	1.70	1.96
Engineering and constructional work:						
Carpenter	1.92	1.93	1.99	2.20	2.35	2.68
Plasterer	2.13	2.16	2.22	2.41	2.55	2.86
Stone-mason	2.33	2.40	2.46	2.66	2.82	3.20
Brick-layer	2.31	2.40	2.43	2.59	2.74	3.17
Roofing-tile layer	2.40	2.41	2.50	2.70	3.03	3.25
Painter	2.10	2.12	2.14	2.27	2.41	2.69
Wood and bamboo work:						
Sawyer (Machine)	1.55	1.56	1.56	1.64	1.79	2.11
Joiner	1.72	1.76	1.80	1.97	2.11	2.48
Lacquering	1.62	1.62	1.60	1.66	1.74	1.91
Floor-mat maker	1.79	1.84	1.89	1.96	2.07	2.29
Printing and book-binding:						
Compositor	2.17	2.21	2.20	2.24	2.21	2.21
Book-binder	1.61	1.72	1.75	1.78	1.89	1.96
Stevedores and daily laborers:						
Stevedore	2.59	2.66	2.57	2.89	3.14	3.48
Day laborer (Male)	1.31	1.33	1.33	1.43	1.58	1.97
" " (Female)	0.78	0.78	0.77	0.82	0.90	1.09

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN
TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATIONS

(Average of 27 Prefectures)

(In yen)

	1936		1937		1938	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
General Average	2.01	1.03	2.07	1.11	2.03	1.14
Land transportation			2.12	1.27	1.97	1.30
Railway	2.01	1.03	2.04	1.03	1.97	1.02
Electric railway	2.19	1.32	2.30	1.43	2.38	1.49
Bus	2.66	1.28	2.81	1.36	2.84	1.41
Sea transportation	1.95	—	2.08	—	2.22	—
Ocean	2.26	—	2.49	—	2.82	—
Near seas	1.78	—	1.86	—	1.92	—
Coastal	1.44	—	1.48	—	1.56	—
Forwarding	1.62	0.75	1.62	0.72	1.68	0.68
Communications	1.47	—	1.57	1.01	1.62	1.06
Clerks	1.27	1.07	1.34	1.13	1.36	1.16
Postmen	1.69	1.16	1.83	1.30	1.92	1.40
Engineers	1.35	—	1.46	—	1.48	—
Telephone clerks	—	0.92	—	0.99	—	1.04
Operatives	1.53	—	1.62	—	1.68	—

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN
FARMING AND SERICULTURE

(In yen)

Wages of Workers Employed in Farming

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
General index numbers	77	59	54	56	56	60	64	73	84	113
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.57	0.47	0.42	0.44	0.44	0.48	0.50	0.60	0.76	0.83
Index numbers	77	61	56	59	59	64	67	79	87	109
Female										
Actual	0.41	0.33	0.29	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.35	0.42	0.48	0.62
Index numbers	70	56	51	55	52	56	62	72	81	106
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.25	0.95	0.85	0.89	0.88	0.95	1.00	1.14	1.33	1.89
Index numbers	82	63	58	60	60	64	67	75	86	119
Female										
Actual	0.96	0.72	0.66	0.69	0.69	0.78	0.80	0.92	1.01	1.45
Index numbers	79	61	56	58	58	64	65	75	85	117
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.14	0.86	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.85	0.89	1.00	1.18	1.65
Index numbers	76	57	52	53	53	57	60	67	80	112
Female										
Actual	0.87	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.61	0.65	0.67	0.79	0.94	1.29
Index numbers	77	55	50	50	54	57	61	71	84	115

N.B. Wages per day are calculated by averaging wages, and amounts paid in kind are estimated in equivalent money values. The average is the simple arithmetical average. Base: 1921-23=100

Wages of Workers Employed in Sericulture

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
General index numbers	78	64	59	64	64	69	73	77	87	116
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.73	0.59	0.53	0.58	0.57	0.61	0.64	0.67	0.85	1.07
Index numbers	83	68	65	74	73	77	81	84	89	115
Female										
Actual	0.51	0.38	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.44	0.48	0.51	0.60	0.83
Index numbers	81	60	60	75	73	75	80	88	82	117
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.05	0.89	0.81	0.86	0.84	0.95	0.98	0.98	1.27	1.72
Index numbers	75	64	57	60	60	66	68	68	91	122
Female										
Actual	0.84	0.67	0.62	0.65	0.66	0.74	0.79	0.81	0.95	1.26
Index numbers	81	65	60	61	63	70	74	76	90	122
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.09	0.93	0.86	0.89	0.88	0.96	1.01	1.07	1.30	1.76
Index numbers	70	60	55	56	56	61	65	69	84	110
Female										
Actual	0.85	0.73	0.67	0.69	0.70	0.75	0.79	0.84	0.99	1.32
Index numbers	75	65	59	60	61	66	69	76	88	111

N.B. Base: 1921-1923=100.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF MINERS

(In yen)

	1936		1937		1938	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mineral mines	1.69	0.64	1.84	0.71	2.02	0.77
Coal mines	1.87	0.79	2.10	0.87	2.47	1.07
Oil-fields	1.65	0.86	1.67	0.88	1.73	0.93
Other mines	1.68	0.68	1.74	0.68	1.89	0.75
Average	1.81	0.74	2.01	0.82	2.33	0.96

INDICES OF EMPLOYMENT AND WAGES

(Monthly Average, 1926=100)

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan and the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics)

Factory Labor

Year and Month	Total		Male	
	Employment	Wage Rates	Employment	Wage Rates
1937	117.3	82.4	134.3	83.1
1938	129.2	85.4	158.5	86.4
1939	142.0	93.3	184.0	94.3
1940	146.4	100.6	196.3	100.6
1941:				
June	152.5	105.2	209.9	104.3
July	150.8	106.6	208.0	105.7
August	149.6	106.5	206.8	105.4
September	150.1	106.3	207.7	105.1
October	150.7	106.4	209.4	105.1
November	151.6	107.7	210.8	107.1
December	153.0	109.3	212.5	108.8

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

Year and Month	Employment	Total		Male	Wage Rates
		Wage Rates	Actual Earnings	Employment	
1942:					
January	153.6	110.5	160.6	213.7	110.0
February	154.2	112.0	160.3	215.3	111.4
March	155.6	111.7	160.7	218.1	106.1
April	165.5	109.7	158.4	232.0	108.7
May	167.6	109.2	158.7	236.2	108.1
June	168.9	109.8	162.0	239.2	108.7
		Male		Female	
	Actual Earnings	Employment	Wage Rates	Actual Earnings	
1937	98.0	100.6	77.9	71.2	
1938	108.9	99.9	80.6	75.0	
1939	112.5	99.4	89.3	85.0	
1940	124.3	94.8	99.7	97.2	
1941:					
June	135.1	91.8	106.6	106.8	
July	136.5	90.4	107.9	108.1	
August	137.6	89.2	108.4	109.2	
September	138.8	89.1	109.0	110.5	
October	141.0	88.5	109.8	110.9	
November	140.8	88.9	110.6	112.7	
December	147.8	89.9	112.2	113.3	
1942:					
January	146.1	89.8	113.2	113.8	
February	145.7	89.2	114.7	114.1	
March	145.9	88.8	123.6	114.9	
April	144.2	94.6	113.5	112.5	
May	144.0	94.3	113.5	114.3	
June	146.0	93.7	113.2	115.1	

Mine Labor

	Employment		Wage Rates	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1937	96.7	23.7	113.1	65.2
1938	111.1	26.6	130.2	75.4
1939	121.8	31.0	151.0	85.3
1940	130.1	36.5	170.8	99.2
1941:				
June	134.7	41.1	187.4	108.1
July	134.7	41.4	185.3	106.6
August	136.3	41.5	185.1	106.0
September	135.0	41.6	187.4	106.9
October	132.1	41.6	188.4	107.8
November	132.4	41.9	189.2	105.0
December	134.5	42.2	188.4	107.9
1942:				
January	140.2	42.5	190.9	107.9
February	141.8	42.8	194.3	109.8
March	139.5	43.1	193.6	107.6
April	134.7	44.3	193.5	109.0
May	133.8	44.9	196.3	109.7
June	135.0	44.8		

WORKING HOUR

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INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES BY INDUSTRIES Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry (Average for 13 larger cities)

(Base: Average of April 1934-March 1935=100)

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Kind of Industry:							
Fiber	100.3	98.9	103.2	107.7	124.5	141.7	157.3
Metallic	98.7	98.9	105.9	111.2	122.5	131.7	144.4
Machine	101.0	99.4	105.0	109.2	118.9	127.5	141.9
Kiln	100.4	100.7	107.6	114.6	132.5	152.0	173.9
Chemical	101.9	103.3	109.0	117.0	130.5	155.2	178.5
Foodstuff	100.6	102.3	107.5	104.5	126.4	140.2	155.7
Clothes	102.4	101.6	108.1	118.1	133.5	157.4	171.7
Wood-work	101.8	103.0	109.6	118.3	136.2	162.7	185.7
Printing and book-binding	103.8	105.6	108.2	110.9	116.9	127.3	145.9
Building	102.3	104.9	113.8	122.0	138.7	157.1	164.3
Day laborers	101.2	100.0	108.0	121.0	143.8	166.9	183.0
Average	101.1	101.1	107.0	113.7	128.5	146.1	162.4

Working Hour According to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the number of working hours of laborers in 1939 and last 5 years was as follows:

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN 1939

Kind of Industry	Monthly Working Days	Daily Working Hours
Fabric	24.7	9:48

	Monthly Working Days	Daily Working Hours
Metallic	24.3	11:03
Machine manufac-		
turing	24.5	10:43
Ceramics	24.9	9:51
Chemical	25.6	10:24
Foodstuffs	26.2	10:09
Clothing	25.7	10:21
Wood work	25.7	9:48
Printing	26.3	10:43
Stevedore	24.9	10:33

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN 1935-1939

Kind of Employment	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Silk-reeler (Female)	9:56	9:55	9:56	9:58	10:00
Cotton spinner (Female)	8:32	8:33	8:32	8:30	8:30
Rayon yarn (male)	8:39	8:59	9:01	9:07	10:21
Rayon textile (Female)	10:05	10:06	9:59	10:03	10:53
Dyeing (Printing) (Male)	11:08	10:43	10:47	10:53	10:53
Hosiery (Male)	9:56	9:57	10:12	10:12	10:04
Furnace (Male)	12:05	11:53	11:55	11:48	11:51
Casting (Male)	10:51	10:45	11:05	11:07	10:55
Lath-man	10:50	10:51	10:56	11:09	10:38
Polisher	11:10	11:06	11:01	11:05	10:52
Finisher	10:50	10:51	10:56	11:02	10:44
Cement	10:22	10:04	10:32	11:04	11:25
Potter	9:40	9:40	9:37	9:32	9:39
Vitriol-maker	10:59	10:55	10:55	11:09	11:22
Match-maker (Female)	9:29	9:20	9:30	9:14	9:15
Japanese paper maker (Male)	10:50	10:54	10:54	10:48	10:46
Leather-maker	9:12	9:25	9:52	9:55	9:43
Flour-miller	10:45	10:40	10:41	10:59	11:22
Canner	9:57	10:00	10:14	10:16	9:57
Tailor (Foreign clothes)	10:03	10:12	10:22	10:28	10:20
Sawyer	9:40	9:46	9:49	9:50	9:47
Printing, Compositor	10:48	10:43	10:57	10:36	10:42
Stevedore (sea)	10:53	10:31	11:00	11:34	10:22
Yearly average (for 64 kinds)	10:07	10:05	10:10	10:13	10:13

It will thus be seen that labor is being strained in all its phases, especially in the heavy industries.

The working hours in the above statistics do not include time for rest. But time for rest has been shortened since 1929.

Labor Disputes

The number of labor disputes in 1931 recorded highest with 2,456 including 998 which were accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. The following 4 years showed a decreasing tendency in labor disputes, their number in 1935 being 1,872 including 590 cases accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. But in 1936 the number rose once again and in the first half of 1937, it surpassed the corresponding period of the record year 1931, and then suddenly began to decrease after July 1937, when the North China incident occurred.

The reason for the decrease in the number of labor disputes in 1932 and after may be found in the occurrence of the Manchurian incident in September

1931 and the consequent change of thought among the people in which nationalism gained an ascendancy over the socialistic ideologies of labor leaders. The leaders themselves altered their concepts and showed a spirit of cooperation with capitalists in promoting the benefit of industrial enterprises. The prosperity attending the heavy industries and the export trade also had much to do with the decrease in labor disputes, and the nature of disputes was considerably modified.

The increase in 1936 and the first half of 1937 was caused not by any change in thought but by a purely economic reason, namely, the increase in wage did not correspond to the rise in prices. The sudden decrease in the second half of 1937 was exceptional, being the result of the emergency situation and the national mobilization of men and resources. The tendency prevailed in 1938 and the number of disputes decreased to a half of 1937. The following table is given here to show the general conditions of labor disputes during past 10 years, 1931-1940.

LABOR DISPUTES IN 1931-1940

	Total of Disputes Cases	Partakers	Partakers per Case	Disputes accompanied by Strikes, Sabotage or Lockouts		
				Cases	Partakers	Partakers Per Case
1931	2,456	154,528	63	998	64,536	65
1932	2,217	123,313	56	893	54,783	61
1933	1,897	116,733	82	610	49,423	81
1934	1,915	120,307	63	626	49,536	79
1935	1,872	103,962	56	590	37,734	64
1936	1,975	92,724	47	547	30,900	56
1937	2,126	213,622	101	628	123,730	197
1938	1,022	53,550	52	262	18,341	70
1939	1,096	90,723	82	688	50,162	72
1940	718	54,005	75	—	—	—

Results of Disputes

	Total	Compro- mised	Demands Accepted	Demands Unaccepted	Defeated	Left Unsettled
1934	623	271(43.5)	163(26.2)	188(30.2)	1(0.1)	—
1935	584	276(47.3)	157(26.9)	151(25.8)	—	—
1936	547	217(39.7)	176(32.2)	153(27.9)	—	1(0.2)
1937	628	261(41.5)	168(26.9)	197(31.3)	2(0.3)	—
1938	262	84(32.0)	90(34.3)	86(32.8)	2(0.8)	—

Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

Tenant Disputes

In the past 5 years tenant disputes centered round the protection of the tenant rights, or the demand of tenants for the continuation of their tenure. The difficulty for a farmer to get another farm has become much greater than that of finding work for a laborer in a city. To lose one's farm is to starve, and tenant disputes along this line are accordingly acute. The number of tenant disputes since 1937 decreased as shown in the following table.

TENANT DISPUTES

Year	Number	Tenant Partici- pants	Area Included (In cho)
1936	6,804	77,187	46,036
1937	6,170	63,246	39,255
1938	4,615	52,817	34,075
1939	3,578	25,904	16,622
1940	1,683	—	9,824

The causes, demands and results of disputes in the past 5 years have been as follows:

TENANT DISPUTES**By Causes**

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Raising tenant rents	115	227	237	146	142
Bad crops	2,451	1,373	1,116	896	563
High tenant rents	66	155	139	96	135
Unbalanced production cost	6	15	10	5	47
Cancellation of tenant right	3,031	3,644	3,575	2,562	1,752
Arrears of farm-rents	734	871	621	553	554
Others	421	519	472	357	385

By Demands

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Temporary lowering of tenant rents	2,616	1,621	1,546	1,212	711
Permanent lowering of tenant rents	96	213	228	148	218
Against raising tenant rents	114	197	184	132	127
Continuation of tenant rights	2,862	3,674	3,274	2,274	1,524
Recognition of tenant rights	45	69	47	25	21
Compensation for lost tenant rights	123	184	155	127	106
Others	968	846	964	845	871

Results of Disputes

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Compromised	5,131	5,162	4,824	3,619	2,960
Demands accepted	381	294	277	264	136
Demands withdrawn	160	167	107	85	93
Naturally settled	82	72	76	51	52
Unsettled	1,070	1,109	886	596	337

Patriotic Industrial Association The outstanding event in the annals of the trade union history in Japan was the birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association (Sangyo Hōkoku Kai) in 1938. The organization of the Association was first initiated by the Arbitration Society for the purpose of readjusting the relations between capital and labor in the time of emergency. A special commission in the Society recommended, early in 1938, the organization of such associations in factories and industrial

establishment all over the country, and within a few months the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations became so many that the Central Patriotic Industrial League was organized on July 30th. The Central League, then began a national campaign for the spread of the principles of the association among the employers and workers in all kinds of factories and for the organization of the association in every one of them in all the districts of the country. On August 24, 1938, the Government de-

cided to give a helping hand to the movement and issued an order, in the name of Vice-Minister of the Home and Welfare Ministry, to encourage the organization of a patriotic trade union in every factory if possible. Thus the movement became semi-governmental and the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations rapidly increased. In view of the necessity of national control, the leadership and supervision of the Associations was finally transferred from the Central Patriotic Industrial League to the Government on April 24, 1939, and the National Federation of

the Patriotic Industrial Associations was organized, while the Central League was reorganized so as to take the part of education and propaganda only.

According to the report the Government the membership reached 5,273,352 at the end of June 1941. There is no doubt that the appearance of such patriotic trade unions will bear hard upon the existing trade unions and federations which are confronted with the danger of dissolution or dissension among members as revealed by the decreasing tendency of trade unions.

TRADE UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

	Unions	Members	Total Number of Laborers	Union Percentage
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5
1934	965	387,964	5,764,277	6.7
1935	993	408,662	5,906,589	6.7
1936	973	420,589	6,090,116	6.9
1937	837	395,290	6,422,333	6.1
1938	731	375,191	6,765,399	5.5
1939	517	365,804	—	—
1940	428	184,004	—	—

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary to permanent organizations, and are steadily increasing in number. According to

the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1921 there were only 681 tenant-farmers' unions, and their growth is shown below.

FARMERS' UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and Tenant-farmers	
	Unions	Members	Unions	Members	Unions	Members
1933	686	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431
1934	633	48,836	4,390	276,246	2,219	271,434
1935	531	38,172	4,011	242,422	1,748	202,785
1936	513	35,703	3,915	229,209	2,878	254,907
1937	497	35,054	3,879	226,919	2,849	251,056
1938	473	31,902	3,643	217,883	3,158	263,071
1939	474	32,595	3,509	210,208	3,152	251,313

Living Conditions of Workers' Families Living conditions of the families of industrial and mining workers under the wartime situation during the year

from April, 1940 to March, 1941 were as follows according to a survey by the Ministry of Welfare:

AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOMES AND EXPENDITURES OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS' FAMILIES

(Value in Yen)

Incomes

	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Over Average	
	80	100	120	150	200	200	200	
Actual Incomes								
Labor Incomes	60	80	100	120	150	200		
Of Head of Families	43.90	70.09	84.98	102.24	122.97	157.66	212.88	129.99
Of Spouses	5.88	1.26	1.09	1.70	1.72	1.11	0.50	1.35
Of Children	0.04	0.01	0.08	0.19	0.53	1.73	4.19	0.81
Total	49.82	71.36	86.20	104.46	125.56	160.91	218.72	123.48
Income Not by Labor	1.95	3.42	4.67	6.04	8.38	10.59	14.91	7.64
Total	51.77	74.78	90.81	110.50	133.94	171.50	233.63	131.12
Non-Actual Income:								
Deposits drawn out	9.05	6.19	6.90	9.71	11.46	16.32	34.04	10.87
Debts	5.94	2.46	2.70	3.15	2.97	3.11	5.47	3.11
Total (including others)	20.28	13.12	10.77	14.71	17.86	24.83	34.73	16.66
Grand Total	72.05	87.90	101.58	125.21	151.80	196.33	268.36	147.78

Expenditures

Actual Expenditures:								
Foods and Drinks	31.16	32.35	36.76	41.47	48.18	54.94	65.14	45.71
Housing	8.60	8.34	9.13	11.37	13.72	16.45	21.79	12.93
Light and Fuel, etc.	2.41	3.58	4.52	5.33	5.62	6.86	8.39	5.59
Clothing, etc.	3.59	7.49	8.89	10.51	12.07	15.76	19.76	12.06
Health and Sanitation	7.28	6.31	5.16	6.76	7.77	9.39	15.22	7.19
Education of Children	3.49	1.75	3.36	4.12	5.28	8.17	14.12	5.59
Traffic	1.39	1.81	1.26	1.64	2.07	2.68	3.27	1.96
Others	3.73	8.59	10.76	14.54	18.22	27.04	40.34	18.32
Social	1.10	3.12	4.90	6.08	7.72	10.87	13.81	7.57
Culture and Amusements	1.18	2.98	3.02	4.11	5.10	7.61	9.12	5.09
Total	61.65	70.22	79.84	95.74	112.93	141.29	188.03	109.34
Non-Actual Expenditures:								
Deposits	4.49	11.12	11.34	16.06	22.09	31.45	52.32	21.84
Total (including others)	7.42	16.74	19.74	27.66	37.32	52.47	75.04	36.10
Grand Total	67.07	86.96	99.58	123.40	150.25	193.76	263.07	145.47

AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF MINE WORKERS' FAMILIES

(Value in Yen)

Incomes

	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Over Average	
	80	100	120	150	200	200	
Actual Incomes							
Labor Incomes							
Of Heads of Families	65.45	84.95	100.48	121.96	154.71	181.14	103.80
Of Spouses	1.14	1.26	1.71	2.16	1.10	5.40	1.68
Of Children	0.20	0.21	0.56	0.96	0.01	5.71	0.58
Total	66.85	86.47	103.52	125.72	156.23	192.25	108.54
Income Not by Labor	2.43	4.75	5.51	5.45	6.87	19.52	5.37
Total	69.29	91.22	109.03	131.17	163.10	211.77	111.91
Non-Actual Incomes:							
Deposits drawn out	5.86	7.58	8.35	8.87	7.10	17.76	8.17
Debts	1.33	3.85	3.81	2.48	1.28	0.16	3.13
Total (including others)	8.63	14.12	14.66	14.92	15.82	31.89	14.51
Grand Total	77.91	105.34	123.69	146.09	178.92	243.66	126.42

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

Actual Expenditures	Expenditures						
Foods and Drinks	34.37	40.05	44.52	49.57	58.99	71.98	45.20
Housing	2.43	2.43	3.05	3.40	4.61	4.39	3.05
Light and Fuel, etc.	3.21	2.03	3.12	2.91	2.89	3.54	3.04
Clothing, etc.	7.54	11.52	13.50	15.24	18.69	22.10	13.47
Health and Sanitation	4.17	5.28	4.81	5.26	4.26	5.75	4.98
Education of Children	1.72	2.90	3.53	4.28	5.94	12.11	3.70
Traffic	0.42	0.67	0.85	0.67	1.29	1.16	0.76
Others	8.10	11.31	14.83	17.45	20.86	27.97	14.65
Social	3.75	4.73	6.42	6.46	9.20	8.69	6.02
Culture and Amusements	3.62	5.65	7.43	9.43	9.88	15.70	3.94
Total	61.96	77.19	88.21	98.78	117.62	149.00	88.85
Non-Actual Expenditures:							
Deposits	8.63	14.19	20.62	29.73	39.99	61.13	22.12
Total (including others)	15.67	26.95	34.04	44.62	61.32	86.36	35.96
Grand Total	77.63	104.14	122.25	143.40	178.94	235.36	124.81

The present survey was made of 898 industrial workers families and 207 mining workers' families.

AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOMES AND EXPENDITURES OF INDUSTRIAL
AND MINING WORKERS CLASSIFIED BY NUMBER OF FAMILY

(In Yen)

Industrial Workers:								
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Actual Incomes	120.59	115.05	127.37	132.97	142.08	152.67	143.72	131.12
Non-Actual Incomes	10.65	16.57	17.55	16.71	21.80	22.81	21.42	16.66
Total Incomes	131.24	131.62	144.92	149.68	163.88	175.48	165.14	147.78
Actual Expenditures	92.21	95.49	95.29	112.60	129.31	133.72	124.16	109.34
Non-Actual Expenditures	36.39	34.82	37.22	35.08	31.33	40.25	38.42	36.10
Total Expenditures	128.60	130.31	132.51	147.68	160.64	173.97	162.58	145.47
Mining Workers:								
Actual Incomes	106.70	105.85	104.46	114.61	117.94	114.09	121.79	111.91
Non-Actual Incomes	13.96	12.42	11.46	17.89	15.86	13.44	15.83	14.51
Total Incomes	120.75	118.27	115.92	132.50	133.80	127.53	137.62	126.42
Actual Expenditures	74.63	80.82	81.83	93.69	97.00	95.03	99.92	88.85
Non-Actual Expenditures	41.24	36.73	32.65	35.81	33.73	30.97	40.05	35.96
Total Expenditures	115.87	117.55	114.48	129.50	130.73	126.00	139.97	124.81

Note: A. Families with two members, namely, husband and wife. B. Families with one child. C. Families with two children. D. Families with three children. E. Families with four children. F. Families with five children. G. Others. H. Total Average.

(In regard to labor conditions in 1941 the reader is referred to "(6) Supply-Demand of Labor, Development and Tendency of the National Economy in 1941-42," Chapter X "Commerce and Industry.")

71.98 45.20
 4.39 3.05
 3.54 3.94
 22.10 13.47
 5.75 1.98
 12.11 3.70
 1.16 0.76
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61.13 22.12
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d 207 mining

INDUSTRIAL
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 3.72 131.12
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CHAPTER XXVII JUSTICE AND POLICE

*For Those Who Want to Know
Realities of East Asia*

CONTEMPORARY JAPAN

A Review of East Asiatic Affairs

PUBLISHED MONTHLY

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CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

JUDICATURE

The Judicature's Position

Since the promulgation of the Japanese Constitution in 1889, the right of the sovereignty of the Emperor has been divided into the three distinct departments, of legislation, judicature and administration.

In accordance with Article 57 of the Constitution, "the Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor." Judges are appointed from among those possessing such qualifications as are determined by law and they are guaranteed by the Constitution against being deprived of their positions unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. Not only are the judges guaranteed their positions, but they have authority in exercising judicial power to judge on their own independent views, using the statutes as the sole standard of judgment without being in any way swayed by interference from others and unaffected by authority arising from any quarter.

Since the judges are entirely independent of the administration the results of judicial decisions are equally independent thereof, and the decisions are not affected by the administrative power except in cases of pardon or provisional release.

Composition of the Courts

In Japan, the ordinary Courts of Law for the adjudication of civil and criminal cases consist of (1) Local Courts (Kusai-bansho), (2) District Courts (Chiho-Sai-bansho), (3) Courts of Appeal (Koso-in), and (4) the Supreme Court (Tai-shin-in). The District Courts, the Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court are all collegiate courts with special divisions, in each of which sit a number of judges.

Local Courts The Local Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a

judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

In the matter of civil cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power to adjudicate on the following matters in the first instance:

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.

2. The following cases irrespective of value:

- (a) Legal actions brought by lessors against lessees, or vice versa, for the receipt, vacation, use, occupation or repair of houses or other buildings or parts thereof, or for the seizure of the furniture and fixtures or belongings of lessees by lessors.

- (b) Legal actions only concerning the boundaries of real estates.

- (c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

- (d) Legal actions brought by employers against employees, or vice versa, for contracts of employment, the terms of which do not exceed one year.

- (e) Legal actions brought by travellers against hotel or inn keepers, or vice versa, for matters concerning board or lodging, or by travellers against water or land forwarding agents, or vice versa.

- (f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

In criminal cases, the Local Courts, as the courts of law for adjudication in the first instance, possess judicial power concerning the following matters, provided they have not been subjected to preliminary examination:

1. Offences punishable with detention or fine.

2. Offences punishable with penal servitude, imprisonment for fixed terms or by imposition of fines, except those punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment for more than one year.

District Courts District Courts are courts of the first instance. In civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Demands other than those falling under the jurisdiction of the Local Courts or of the Courts of Appeal.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the Local Courts;

(b) Demands determined by law for revision of decisions or orders rendered by the Local Courts.

Further, with reference to criminal cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Criminal cases falling neither under the jurisdiction of the Local Courts nor under the special jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the Local Courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered by the Local Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal are courts of the second instance and possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. Appeals lodged against judgments rendered in the first instance by the District Courts.

2. Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the first instance by the District Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Powers to adjudicate in the first and second instances in civil cases brought against the members of the Imperial Family belong to the Tokyo Court of Appeal.

The Supreme Court The Supreme Court (Tai-shin-in) is the highest court of law and possesses judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the final instance:

(a) Appeals against judgments rendered by the lower courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the District Courts or by the Courts of Appeal;

(c) Complaints against decisions to reject appeals made by the Local or District Courts.

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance: Preliminary examination and adjudication of offenses against the Imperial House, offenses of internal disturbance, and offenses committed by

members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Prosecutors

A public prosecutor's office, with the necessary number of prosecutors, is attached to each court, except the District Court for civil cases. The work of the public prosecutor is, in accordance with the code of criminal procedure, to take legal actions, to go on with necessary legal proceedings, to demand the right application of the law, and to observe the right execution of a judgment. According to the code of civil procedure, he also has rights to ask for a report whenever he thinks it necessary and presents his opinions to the court on it, and as a representative of public welfare he carries out his supervising business as laid down by the law in all judicial and administrative matters related to the court. But the public prosecutor acts absolutely independently of the court.

Court Officials and Prosecutors

Qualifications Candidates for the office of judge or prosecutor are chosen by the Minister of Justice from among those who have passed the higher judicial service examination. The selected candidates then have to serve a term of over one and a half years of probation in the courts or in a public prosecutor's office and pass a further examination, after which, should the report on their estimated ability be favorable, they will receive an appointment as judge or prosecutor. But those who have been professors of law in the Imperial Universities or lawyers of over three years standing can be appointed as judges or public prosecutors without examination and estimation.

The following are not to be appointed as either judges or public prosecutors.

(1) Those who have been convicted of a grave crime, with the exception of those political offenders who have been rehabilitated.

(2) Those who have served sentences on minor offenses.

(3) Those who have been adjudicated bankrupt and could not be exempted from the responsibility.

Position of Judges and Public Prosecutors Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way

of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The public prosecutors are appointed by His Majesty directly or by His Majesty's order indirectly or by His Majesty's approval. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment the public prosecutors are not to be deprived of their positions against their own will.

The Prosecutor-General at the age of 65 years and all other public prosecutors at 63 years of age must retire from service. A public prosecutor must obey the orders of higher authorities and judicial policemen must obey the orders issued by the public prosecutors or through them within the district of jurisdiction of the public prosecutor's office.

Jury System

In 1923 the Jury Law was issued and came into force on October 1, 1923, and Japan finally adopted the jury system under which persons other than judges are allowed to take part in criminal trials. The jury system is used in such criminal cases as where the punishment may be capital, or penal servitude or imprisonment for life. Other criminal cases in which the sentence may be penal servitude or imprisonment for a term longer than 3 years are tried by jury only upon demand of the accused and when they come within the jurisdiction of the District Courts. The following cases are not submitted to trial by jury:

- (1) Offenses which come under the special authority of the Supreme Court.
- (2) Offenses against the Imperial House, causing an internal disturbance, helping an enemy, disturbing international relations, and sedition.
- (3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.
- (4) Violations of the Military Secrets Preservation Law, the Army or Navy Criminal Laws or any other offenses in connection with military secrets.

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

The accused can refuse to have his case tried by jury or withdraw his own demand to be tried by jury at any time previous to the statement of the case by the public prosecutor, under which circumstances the case cannot be referred to a jury.

The jury is composed of 12 men. At the trial, the chief judge, after having heard all the evidence for and against the accused, sums up the facts and main points of the case, and charges the jury to deliberate and render its verdict by a majority vote. The verdict must be a simple statement as to guilt or otherwise. If the court considers the verdict improper the case may be referred to another jury.

In a case where sentence has been passed on a jury's verdict of guilt, no appeal can be made to the Court of Appeal, but a demand for revision may be presented to the Supreme Court.

Penal System

History It was in the time of the Empress Suiko, 620 A.D., that the first written Penal Code was issued in Japan. The code was very simple, but later the Chinese penal code, the "To," was introduced and the Japanese code was drafted in a more systematic manner and promulgated by the Emperor Mommu, in 702, as the "Taiho Ritsuryo." Five kinds of punishment were mentioned, namely, flogging, whipping, penal servitude, exile, and death, but in most cases these could be varied to confiscation of property or payment of a fine. Grave crimes were treason, atrocities, blasphemy, undutifulness to one's parents, adultery, etc. Confession of the accused was required as a necessary procedure of a criminal suit, and naturally torture was recognized as an indispensable means of obtaining such a confession. Several hundred years after the issuance of the Taiho Ritsuryo the Shogunate Governments adopted extremely terroristic penal systems with the purpose of preventing the occurrence of criminal cases. One of the most important of them was the One Hundred Criminal Regulations of the Tokugawa Shogunate. It was a secret criminal code which was not published and was accessible to the judges only, an expression of the despotism of the ruling class that had as its motto, "leave the people ignorant of the niceties of law."

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice of Monsieur Gustave Boissonade, a French scholar of jurisprudence who was invited to Japan for that purpose. A new Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Law, the characteristics of which were that, "though the lawful punishment of criminals is assured, the penalties are tempered with sympathy toward the accused and are in no ways severe," were enacted and promulgated. "No crime shall be punished unless there is a regulation in the law," (*nullum crimen et nulla poena sine lege*) is one of the guiding principles of the code, which was formulated on the French penal code of 1810. Within a few years it was found that the new code was out of date and various amendments were discussed from 1884 to 1907, in which year a thorough revision was made and the present Penal Code issued. Since then the social conditions of the people have undergone rapid changes, more advanced theories regarding penalties have been gaining ground and so many defects have been noticed in the present code, that in 1926 the Extraordinary Legislative Committee passed a resolution that the Penal Code should be revised. A special investigation committee set to work and in 1931 an outline and draft of a revised penal code and prison law was drawn up. It is expected that the thorough study of the draft that is now going on will soon be completed.

Penalties Penalties are divided into six kinds, namely, the death penalty, penal servitude, imprisonment, monetary penalties, custody, and fines. Confiscation is recognized as an additional punishment. The death penalty is by hanging and is carried out in prison. Penal servitude and imprisonment are for limited terms and for life; limited terms extend from one month to 15 years. Under penal servitude labor is compulsory, but a prisoner serving a term of imprisonment is not compelled to work, though he may be allowed to do so at his own request. A monetary penalty is 20 yen and above, unless made lighter on decision. Custody is from one to under 30 days, and a fine is from 10 sen to less than 20 yen. Those who cannot pay monetary penalties and fines are kept in workhouses as an alternative.

Suspension of Sentence and Provisional Release The present penal law allows probation. The execution of a penalty often leads to self-abandonment and turns comparatively harmless people, who are not yet addicted to criminal deeds, into habitual jail-birds. This is found to be especially so when the penalty is one of penal servitude for a short time, and it is, therefore, far better for people convicted of light and incidental offenses to be excused from the real infliction of the penalty under special conditions and to be given proper admonitions in order to make them repentant by self-examination. Consequently, the Japanese courts are empowered, under certain conditions, to postpone the execution of sentence for from one to five years, beginning with the day of the sentence and according to the nature and condition of the case, on persons sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for less than 2 years.

Probation is cancelled (1) when the probationer, during the time of probation, commits another offense and is sentenced to imprisonment or is given a heavier sentence, (2) when the probationer is sentenced to imprisonment or a heavier penalty is imposed because of some other crime committed before the granting of probation, and (3) when, in cases not mentioned above, the probationer is found to have had at some previous time a sentence of imprisonment or some other heavier penalty inflicted on him. Should the term of probation expire without being revoked the sentence is automatically cancelled thereby. The draft of the penal code of 1931, besides confirming the system of probation, admits the principle of postponement of passing sentence in specially pitiable cases of a non-serious nature.

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yédo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term or

ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

Provisional release may be cancelled (1) when the persons on parole have committed another offense during the term of the release and have been sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty, or (2) when they are sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of some other offense committed before the provisional release, or (3) when they were sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of another offense committed before the provisional release and that penalty must now be fulfilled, or (4) when they break the provisional release rules. In this case the rest of the term of sentence must be served.

Criminal Compensation System

A nation has the responsibility of compensating innocent persons who have been wrongfully punished or have been kept in detention during trial. The Criminal Compensation Law was enacted in 1931. Cases to be compensated according to the Law are as follows:

(1) When a verdict of "not guilty" or an acquittal has been given by the examining judge to a person who has been kept in detention, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the detention.

(2) In case a verdict of "guilty" is reversed by a higher court and the accused has already suffered the execution of the penalty or was kept in detention before the execution, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the penalty or detention.

When the accused is dead, the bereaved get the compensation. The bereaved in the terms of the Law are meant to be the spouse, children, grandchildren, parents, grandparents and those whose names were in the same census registration at the time of the death of the accused.

As compensation for unlawful arrest or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid against the warrant of arrest or for each day of detention after the arrest or for each day of detention after the execution of the warrant of detention.

As compensation for penal servitude, imprisonment, or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid for each day of the whole period. The same rule applies to detention before the execution of the death penalty.

As compensation to the bereaved of

a person who has mistakenly suffered the death penalty, a sum of money considered reasonable by the Court is given in addition to the compensation for detention.

As compensation for a monetary penalty or fine wrongly imposed, the amount of money corresponding to that of the monetary penalty or fine already paid is given back. In case a person was unable to pay the amount imposed and in lieu was kept in a Labor House, a sum of 5 yen for each day of detention is paid as compensation.

Claims for compensation should be made to the Court returning the verdict of "not guilty", or to the Court in which the examining judge pronounced the acquittal.

Criminal Thought Offense

The Imperial Ordinance No. 403 of November 14, 1936, prescribed for the organization of the Protection and Surveillance Station, and other Imperial Ordinances and orders of the Minister of Justice were subsequently issued in connection with the measures to be taken by the State for preventing criminal thought offenses.

Protection and Surveillance System

The new rule which involves the creation of protection and surveillance stations and the establishment of a protection and surveillance commission is aimed at protecting persons who have once committed "thought" offenses and preventing them from repeating the crime. It not only calls for placing old offenders under surveillance but aims at giving them positive guidance in order that they will not commit similar offenses and will walk in the path of rectitude. This positive nature of the new system is expected to help in bringing about the defeat of Communism and elevating the Japanese spirit through encouraging those on the way of changing their minds to forge ahead, and assisting those who have already done so to earn a living. It constitutes an important link in the national "thought" defense line on the strength of its mission towards the preservation of peace and public order by preventing "thought" offenses on the one hand and on the other by serving to elevate and clarify the essential spirit of the nation.

Objectives of the New System The objectives of the protection and surveillance system are limited to persons who have committed offenses in the

light of the Peace Preservation Law. Offenders of other kinds do not come within its scope. Only those who have been granted a reprieve in indictment by the public prosecutor, or a stay of execution of their sentence by the law court, or who have been released on bail, or who have served their term, are placed under protection and surveillance. The invocation of this rule, however, must be made with the approval of the Protection and Surveillance Commission which is under the control of the Minister of Justice, and in such cases where the commission adopts a resolution against the invocation, the rule cannot be invoked.

Organs and Procedure The new system is enforced through the operation of 22 protection and surveillance stations throughout the country and a protection and surveillance commission. These stations are independent offices and are located in Tokyo, Yokohama, Mito, Mayebashi, Shizuoka, Nagano, Niigata, Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Takamatsu, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Okayama, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Sendai, Akita, Aomori, Sapporo and Hakodate and their staffs are composed of guiding officials, protecting officials and secretaries.

The guiding officials take charge of directing and supervising the protection and surveillance business and as such may be regarded as the central machinery of the protection and surveillance stations. The protecting officials conduct the enquiry and surveillance business under instructions from the station masters, who are selected from among the guiding officials. There are at present 33 whole-time protecting officials over all the country and the Minister of Justice may commission other suitable persons as part-time officials.

The protection and surveillance stations are to be notified by the authorities concerned when some "thought" offenders have been granted a reprieve in indictment, a stay of execution of their sentence, have been released on bail, or have left prison after serving their term. Upon receipt of such a notification, the station concerned must immediately institute an investigation into the career, environment, mental and physical condition, and changes in thought and other relative affairs of the person in question. In the investigation, special attention should be given to ascertaining whether the person in question has changed his mind or not

and if so, the motive and extent of the financial and family conditions of his guardian and whether there is any prospect of the person in question earning a living in the future.

If the results of the investigation lead to a decision to place the person under protection and surveillance, the station concerned is to refer the matter to the protection and surveillance commission which must then pass a judgment. The station cannot place any person under protection and surveillance until it has received a notification from the commission that its decision has been approved.

Methods of Effecting the Protection and Surveillance There are three different methods for effecting the protection and surveillance. One is that the protecting officials concerned keep a personal surveillance over the person in question, another is to hand the person over to his guardian. In the third method, the person is put in the charge of some protective organization, temple, shrine, church, hospital, etc. In all the three cases, the station authorities concerned must explain to the person in question the significance of the decision to place him under protection and surveillance and caution him about his future conduct.

According to circumstances, two or even three methods may be employed simultaneously. The authorities concerned may also put restrictions on the abode, intercourse and correspondence of the protected if such a measure is deemed necessary or advisable.

The period of protection and surveillance is fixed at two years but it may be shortened or prolonged. Prolongation of the period, however, requires the approval of the protection and surveillance commission.

As already stated, the protection and surveillance system has, as its primary aim, the encouragement of "thought" offenders to change their minds and the assistance of those who have changed their minds in securing a living. It therefore is natural that adequate measures should be taken to guide such persons properly in thought and help them to enjoy life.

In view of the specific nature of "thought" offenders, the authorities follow a principle of respecting their social conscience and conception of justice while encouraging them to master the Japanese spirit. As a stable living

has a close bearing upon the perpetuation of the change in mind, efforts are also made to secure suitable positions for persons under protection and surveillance and to assist them in making their own homes and appreciating the beautiful points of the Japanese family system. Facilities for attendance at school are also provided in some cases.

The Revised Penal Code

The revised Penal Code which was passed by the 76th session of the Imperial Diet (December 1940-March 1941) was promulgated on March 12 and enforced as from the 20th of the same month, 1941.

The existing Penal Code was enforced in 1908 and only one article has been revised since. In accordance with the advice of the Extraordinary Legislative Committee on the necessity of a thorough revision of the Penal Code in order to meet the requirements of the times, the Penal Code and Prison Law Commission were established in the Ministry of Justice in 1927. The Commission which consisted of competent scholars and legal practitioners drafted a tentative scheme for the proposed revision and made it public in April 1940, while continuing their efforts for completing the work of a thorough revision of the existing Penal Code. Unfortunately, however, the Government had to abolish most of the governmental commissions in order to save expenses, the said Commission being among those dissolved so that its work was left unfinished. Thus the complete revision of the Penal Code as contemplated, could not be submitted before the 76th session of the Imperial Diet. But the need for revision at least on important points related to the preservation of peace and order and national defense was keenly felt, and the bill for a partial revision was presented and passed by the Diet.

The cardinal points of the revision are as follows:

(1) Prolongation of the term of detention in workhouses as an alternative to failure in payment of fine, corresponding to the system of enhancement of fines under various laws in recent years.

(2) The extent of confiscation has been enlarged by the provisions of Article 19, to things obtained in reward for a criminal deed as well as things obtained directly by a criminal deed,

or the money acquired by sale of such things, and things possessed by persons other than the criminal which have been acquired from the latter with a knowledge of the crime. When these things are not such as can be confiscated, their value is to be forfeited. The Article purports to completely take away all things obtained by any person through crimes committed against the National General Mobilization Law, the Extraordinary Trade Goods Disposition Law and the laws for economic control.

(3) Rules have been inserted for ensuring the compulsory auction and fair tender in Article 96. Article 96, paragraph 2 provides for the imposition of a penal servitude not longer than 2 years or a fine not exceeding 1,000 yen on those who have hidden or damaged their properties or made disguised assignments or contracted a false debt, in order to defy the confiscation and compulsory auction of their properties. Article 96, paragraph 3 provides for the imposition of a penal servitude not longer than 2 years or a fine not exceeding 5,000 yen on those who have done deeds detrimental to the fair public auction or tender for contracts to be made or material to be purchased by the Government offices, or those who have taken counsel together with the purpose of impairing fair valuation or obtaining iniquitous profits. These provisions purport to prevent tricks of bidders or tenderers who have an unlawful understanding among themselves regarding their common profit but impairing the national benefit.

(4) Penalties for those who have committed offenses against the national peace and order have been newly defined.

Article 105, paragraph 2 prescribes that those who have spread fictitious reports with the purpose of misleading the people shall be sentenced to a penal servitude or imprisonment not longer than 5 years or a fine not exceeding 5,000 yen, and those who have spread fictitious reports with the purpose of inciting a run on the bank or other financial confusing to a penal servitude or imprisonment not longer than 7 years or a fine not more than 5,000 yen.

Article 105, paragraph 3 prescribes that those who have spread fictitious reports likely to mislead the public or cause economic confusion, at a time of war or natural calamities or similar

occasions, shall be sentenced to a penal servitude or imprisonment not longer than 3 years or a fine not more than 3,000 yen. Hitherto there have been no specific rules applicable to these types of offenses, other than the Peace Preservation Law or the military penal codes.

Article 105, paragraph 5 prescribes that those who have done deeds, at a time of war or natural calamities or similar occasions, which may gravely impede the normal progress of national economy, by intentionally confusing the money market, obstructing the production or distribution of important materials and commodities or by other means, in order to get excessive profits, shall be sentenced to a penal servitude for life or more than one year, or, when deemed necessary be concurrently liable to a fine not exceeding 100,000 yen.

(5) Penalty against causing fire through negligence has been made heavier by the revision of Article 116 and addition of paragraph 2 to Article 117. Those who have caused fire through negligence have been hitherto fined a sum not more than 300 yen, much too light a punishment as compared with that for a similar crime resulting in a forest fire which is a fine up to 1,000 yen, according to the Forestry Law. The former was therefore raised up to 1,000 yen in commonplace cases, and an imprisonment not longer than 3 years or a fine not more than 3,000 yen in the case of fires caused by negligence in the discharge of one's responsibility or by a grave mistake, as, for instance, causing a fire in a factory.

(6) Article 157 has been revised providing for heavier penalties for those who have given false statements in a notarial deed. A sentence of imprisonment for a period not longer than 2 years or a fine not more than 100 yen has been considered too light; and it was revised to an imprisonment not longer than 5 years or a fine not more than 1,000 yen.

(7) Penalties to be imposed on both parties in the case of a bribery have been made heavier by the complete revision of Articles 197 and 198. The strict discipline of government officials for ensuring honest discharge of their duty is always of paramount importance, and it is specially so during the present emergency when the national

economy is being transformed from a free economy to a thoroughly controlled or planned economy.

Revision of the Public Peace Preservation Law

The existing Public Peace Preservation Law was first enacted in 1925 with the purpose of ruling over radical thought movement, and was partly revised in 1928. It consists of only 7 articles and limits the extent of penalties to the organization of secret societies and their activities, or any acts of individuals, with the purpose of changing the national constitution or altering the private property system.

The revised Public Peace Preservation Law which was promulgated on March 10, 1941, consists of 3 chapters and 65 articles; the first chapter defines the persons and extent of penalties which are to come under the purview of this law; the second chapter provides for special criminal procedure different from the general criminal procedure; and the third chapter provides for the preventive custody of suspected persons. It is not, therefore, a mere revision but the introduction of a new legislation.

The definition of activities of offenders who aim at changing the national constitution is further enlarged, while religious bodies which step out of their normal field of activity and deny the national constitution, or blaspheme the sanctity of the Grand Shrine of Ise or the Imperial House, are newly included in Chapter I. The definition of acts of those offenders who work against the private property system has been revised.

In regard to the penalties to be meted out against the criminals who come under the purview of the present law, imprisonment has been abrogated and replaced by penal servitude for all convicts and the terms are lengthened, provisions being made for death penalty, penal servitude for life or more than 7 years for the officials and leaders of secret societies, and penal servitude for more than 3 years for other members.

Article 2 provides for death penalty, penal servitude for life or more than 5 years for organizers or leaders of secret bodies whose aim is to support the secret societies for changing the national constitution, and penal servitude for more than 2 years for members of such bodies. It has been found to

be a general practice for several private bodies to be affiliated with the regular communistic societies to which they supplied men and money and when the members of such societies are arrested in a mass raid these tributary bodies supplied new members and aid for the rebuilding of the societies, or to carry on propaganda among the masses. The Article purports to dry up such tributary bodies.

Article 3 provides for the imposition of similar penalties on those who have led men or worked for the organization of secret societies to change the national constitution, in order to nip such societies in the bud.

Article 4 provides for the imposition of penal servitude for life or for more than 2 years on the organizers or leaders of any group, which has not yet developed into a society, working for the overthrow of the national constitution, and the imposition of penal servitude for more than one year on those who have entered or worked for such body, in view of the fact that the recent movement of radical thinkers began to take the form of small units or groups.

Article 5 provides for the punishment of any individual who has worked in any manner for the purpose of changing the national constitution. The existing Peace Preservation Law provides punishment, so far as individuals are concerned, for only those who have provoked, agitated or incited others to criminal action for the purpose of changing the national constitution. But there are other innumerable shrewd methods employed by such persons for executing their radical plans. The revised article provides penalties for all such offenders, the term of punishment ranging from one year to 10 years of penal servitude.

Articles 7 and 8 provide for the punishment of vicious semi-religious bodies. Any religious body which preaches doctrines detrimental to the sane conception of the national constitution must be severely punished. Such pseudo-religious bodies aim at a revolution of the national constitution or social order, rather than the spiritual salvation of their followers; in other words, such spurious bodies try to incite their believers to political and social agitation in the guise of religious fervor. The existing Peace Preservation Law which has only, social and political movements as objects of con-

trol has been unable to bring to book such so-called religious bodies. The said Articles, therefore, provide for the imposition of penal servitude for life or for more than 4 years on the organizers, officials or leaders of the societies whose aim is to propagate ideas detrimental to the national constitution or blasphemous to the dignity of the Grand Shrines of Isé or the Imperial House, and the imposition of a penal servitude for more than one year on those who have entered such bodies or worked in promoting their aims, similar penal servitude being provided for those who have organized or led groups of men or members and workers thereof for similar purposes.

Special Criminal Procedure Chapter II includes special rules of criminal procedure different from the rules in the common Criminal Procedure. The main points of the new rules are as follows: (1) the public prosecutors are invested with much greater power than usual in arresting, examining, etc. in handling the suspects; (2) the trial in the law court follows the two instance system, omitting the appeal to the Courts of Appeal, but allowing the appeal to the Supreme Court in order to ensure the justice of the final decision; (3) the lawyers are to be designated by the Justice Minister, their number being limited to only two for a defender; and (4) the transfer of the case from one district court to another is allowed when deemed necessary by the competent public prosecutor.

In the case of thought offenses, the crime is attempted secretly and systematically with a great number of associates, and the search of related persons and the grasp of facts are extremely difficult. The power of the public prosecutors, therefore, has to be augmented in order to enable them to take quick actions, while the trial must be speeded up, limiting the number of lawyers for the defenders so as not to make the procedure unnecessarily complicated and prolonged.

Preventive Custody The preventive custody system has been newly instituted by the provisions in Chapter III for keeping the ex-convicts from the society as long as they do not change their thought. The main points are: (1) the persons who shall be kept in custody are the ex-convicts who are first released from prisons or those who are put under the care of the Protec-

tion and Surveillance Commission, and do not change their mind; (2) they are to be kept in custody by the request of the public prosecutor and the decision of the competent law court; (3) the usual duration of custody is two years, but it may be extended for any number of years if necessary; (4) release from preventive custody may be made by the disposition of the competent administrative office at any time when deemed unnecessary; and (5) the request for keeping a person in preventive custody, extension of the term or release shall be made after consultation with the Preventive Custody Commission.

Treatment of Juvenile Offenders

It was in the code promulgated in 1880, that the treatment of juvenile offenders was, for the first time, definitely regulated. At that time, a house of correction was an institution where children entrusted to it by private individuals, deaf and dumb children as well as juveniles committed by the courts were detained and trained.

The first house of correction which was independent of the ordinary prison was the Sumoto House of Correction, on the Island of Awaji, Hyogo prefecture. Other houses of correction were established within the precinct of prison, under the management of the prison staff. The experimental reformatory established in 1885 and the Naritasan Reformatory, opened in 1886, were outstanding. It was not, however, until 1900, that the Reformatory Act was passed. This Act provided that every prefecture should establish its own reformatory (Kanka-in), which should be under the direct supervision of the prefectural government. At the same time, the system of supplementary reformatories was regulated.

In 1907, the present Criminal Code was promulgated. By the new code, the system of detention in the House of Correction, prescribed in the Criminal Code of 1880, was abolished.

Under the new code, the courts in the larger cities usually appointed judges and prosecutors especially qualified for such work to take charge of cases in which juveniles were involved. In 1908, the Ministry of Justice issued an order to all procurators, to the effect that wherever it was considered necessary, juveniles under the age of fourteen, who are not amenable to law, should be committed to prefectural reforma-

tories. At the same time, the Home Ministry instructed prefectural governments to receive such juveniles into their institutions. In 1917, by an Imperial Ordinance, sanctioning the establishment of national reformatories, the central government assumed its share in the care of juvenile offenders. In 1920, after several years of discussion, a special committee appointed by the Ministry of Justice completed a draft of a Juvenile Act, which passed the Diet in 1922, was promulgated on April 17, 1922, and came into effect on January 1, 1923.

A draft of the Act concerning the House of Correction (Kyōsei-in), prepared by the same committee, passed the Diet and came into effect at the same time.

The Act stipulates that persons under 18 years of age shall be regarded as juveniles, though those under 14 are not amenable to law, except when they are sent to the Juvenile Courts by prefectural governors.

Juvenile Courts Juvenile courts are established in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Fukuoka. These cities were selected as centers for respective districts and because they have the largest number of juvenile offenders and those needing protection.

The Juvenile Courts are special organs with an organization entirely different from that of other courts. Their personnel consists of judges, probation officers and clerks. The system of Juvenile Courts falls under the supervision of the Minister of Justice, and their establishment, abolition and jurisdiction are regulated by Imperial Ordinance. The Minister of Justice has the authority to order the presidents of Courts of Appeal or District Courts, to supervise all Juvenile Courts.

In the Juvenile Court, a single judge hears the trial. The judge supervises the work of his subordinates. If two or more judges are assigned to the same court, the one holding the highest rank exercises this power. A judge may simultaneously hold a position in the Juvenile Court and in an ordinary court, if he is qualified for the position.

Probation officers are either officials appointed by the Government or private individuals commissioned by the Minister of Justice. The former are officials appointed because of their special knowledge and experience in dealing with juveniles. The latter are

selected from voluntary probation workers who have experience in dealing with juveniles. The probation officers assist the judges by providing material used at trials, or by assisting in the supervision of juveniles. They also have the power to summon juveniles before the court, by order of the court.

Court Procedure Cases to be tried by the Juvenile Court are brought through various channels, such as notification, recognition by the Court, transfer by the prosecutor, transference by the ordinary court, commitment by the prefectural governor, or transfer of a case from one Juvenile Court to another.

When a case is brought before the Juvenile Court, the judge makes a preliminary investigation and decides whether to proceed with the case or not. He may order the probation officer to gather materials to help him in this decision. If the case is to be proceeded with the court shall investigate the nature of the case, the character, environment, past record, physical and mental condition, degree of education, etc. of the juvenile, together with his family circumstances and the status and fitness of the guardian. These investigations are to be made principally by the probation officer, and for this purpose, he interviews the juvenile and his guardian in the court or in the juvenile's home. The members of the household of the juvenile, his employer, his former employer, his teacher, his acquaintances and the injured party in the case may also be interviewed or asked to give information in writing. The probation officer then reports to the judge upon the information obtained, and makes whatever suggestion he considers best regarding suitable protective measures in the case. If possible, the court has the juvenile examined as to his physical and mental condition. The court may also order the guardian of the juvenile to investigate the facts in the case, or may entrust the investigation to a protective institution.

The Juvenile Court may summon any person or persons to appear before the court to give evidence, which is considered necessary for the investigation. The court may also order the probation officer to present himself with the juvenile before the court at any time, and, if necessary, it may adopt one or more of the provisional protective measures mentioned above during the period of

the investigation.

In March 1928, branches of the House of Correction were opened adjacent to each Juvenile Court for the purpose of detaining juveniles who have to be supervised during the period of investigation. This provisional protective measure may, at any time be altered or abolished, and if the Court decides that a trial shall not be proceeded with, it is, of course, cancelled. As this is very important to the juvenile, the Court is obliged to inform the guardian whenever such measures are ordered or changed in any way.

Trial and Decision If, after investigation, the Court decides that a case shall be proceeded with, it sets the time for the trial. The Court may, at its own volition, nominate a counsel for the juvenile, if it is considered necessary. The juvenile, his guardian or the protective institution concerned may nominate a counsel, subject to the permission of the Court. Such counsel is chosen from among lawyers, persons engaged in the protection of juveniles, or any other persons whom the court may permit to be chosen.

On the day of the trial, the juvenile, his guardian and counsel are summoned, but the guardian need not be summoned, when the Court considers it unnecessary. For the sake of the juvenile's reputation, the trial is not open to the public, but the Court may permit relatives of the juvenile, persons engaged in juvenile protection or other interested persons to attend the trial. The probation officer, guardian and counsel may express their opinion at the trial: during the statement of which opinions, the Court may order the juvenile to retire, when there is no reason for his presence.

When the trial is completed, the Court renders its final decision. If the Court considers that the juvenile should be tried before the ordinary court, it refers the case to the prosecutor of a competent court. When, in the case of a juvenile who has previously been referred to the Juvenile Court by an ordinary court or a prosecutor, new facts are discovered by the Juvenile Court making it necessary to refer such juvenile back to an ordinary court, this may be done upon consultation with a prosecutor of a competent court. With the exception of such rare cases, however, the Court if protective measures are deemed advisable, orders such measures to be applied to the juvenile. The judge

may select one or more of the following 9 protective measures: (1) to give admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. After the juveniles are placed by the Juvenile Court, the probation officers visit them and exercise supervision over them by means of reports submitted by the institutions or individuals with whom the juveniles are placed. They then make monthly reports to the Court. Though the maximum age of juveniles is 18 years, those committed, entrusted or being supervised may continue under the supervision of the Court until they reach the age of 23 years, during which time the Court may at any time cancel or alter its decision regarding said juveniles.

Special Penal Measures Special measures for the punishment of juvenile offenders are:

(1) The death penalty or penal servitude for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 16 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave the death penalty or penal servitude for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servitude or imprisonment for 10-15 years.

(2) When a juvenile criminal should be sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years at its maximum, the minimum and the maximum limits are fixed within the scope of the penalty to be inflicted on the crime committed. And when he should be sentenced to imprisonment for more than 5 years at its minimum, the term is diminished to 5 years. That is to say, in case of a juvenile convict an indeterminate sentence is admitted.

(3) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment are put in a special jail or in a section of the common prison secluded from adults. If they reach the age of 18 during the term of confinement they may still be kept secluded till they reach the age of 23.

(4) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment can obtain provisional release (a) after 7 years in case of a life-term sentence, (b) after 3 years in case of (1) above mentioned, (c) after serving one-third of the time in case of (2) above.

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

Statistics

The following are the statistics relevant to the judicature of the country:

NUMBER OF COURTS (October 1, 1941)

	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	District Courts	Branch Courts	Local Courts	Branch Offices
	1	Tokyo	12	17	64	419
		Osaka	9	12	43	282
		Nagoya	6	9	30	208
		Hiroshima	6	13	36	257
		Nagasaki	8	17	53	293
		Miyagi	6	16	36	234
		Sapporo	5	3	21	104
Total	1	7	52	87	283	1,797

FIXED NUMBER OF JUDGES AND PROCURATORS

(November 25, 1941)

Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Presidents	1	7	52
Divisional heads	8	32	—
Judges	38	90	1,373

JUSTICE STATISTICS

569

Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Prosecutor's Office			
Prosecutor-General or heads	1		
Prosecutors	14	7	51
		39	691
Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Judges	1,541	Interpreters	2
Prosecutors	734	Secretaries	5,547
Judges and prosecutors in reserve		Attendants	59
Probationers	39	Employees	5,096
	240	Total	13,325

NUMBER OF CIVIL CASES HANDLED AT COURTS IN 1940

Courts	Total	New	Settled
Local Courts	665,432	622,817	625,330
District Courts	89,807	63,955	63,597
Courts of Appeal	7,901	3,644	3,793
The Supreme Court	2,119	3,280	2,468
Total	766,423	692,535	695,189
1939	866,639	783,197	792,723
1938	1,043,738	947,984	960,264
1937	1,198,478	1,098,664	1,102,689
1936	1,364,841	1,259,440	1,264,987

NUMBER OF CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED IN 1935-1939

	No. of the Accused	Preliminary Examinations	Cases of First Instance	Cases of Second Instance	Cases of Third Instance
1935	524,358	6,920	121,084	8,278	2,364
1936	505,500	7,100	124,494	10,424	4,123
1937	452,025	5,841	117,038	8,772	3,665
1938	429,059	4,617	108,173	4,915	4,307
1939	375,190	4,275	34,017	4,608	1,580

CRIMINALS SENTENCED IN THE FIRST INSTANCE, JAPAN PROPER

	Total	Penal Servitude	Imprisonment	Monetary Penalties	Cus-tody	Fines
		Death	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms
1935	121,662	31	51	42,335	—	116
1936	120,871	19	37	41,413	—	86
1937	170,883	31	37	38,527	—	117
1938	155,863	—	—	—	—	—
1939	147,244	—	—	—	—	—

JUVENILE COURTS

(October 1, 1941)

Courts	Judges	Probation officers	Secretaries
	5		
	17		

Number of New Cases

	Cases brought in	Unpro-ceeded	Placed under pro-tection		Cases brought in	Unpro-ceeded	Placed under pro-tection
1935	21,802	14,327	6,526	1936	21,704	13,668	7,023
"	1,675	937	632	"	1,468	676	659
Boys				Boys			
Girls				Girls			

JUSTICE AND POLICE

		Cases brought in	Unpro- ceeded	Placed under pro- tection			Cases brought in	Unpro- ceeded	Placed under pro- tection
1937	Boys	19,963	11,516	7,881	1939	Boys	21,537	12,532	8,363
"	Girls	1,453	662	745	"	Girls	1,465	651	747
1938	Boys	24,690	15,784	8,327	1940	Boys	20,802	10,649	9,325
"	Girls	1,668	859	737	"	Girls	1,579	632	863

Results of Protection
(Reports right after the release)

	Year	Number of the released	Satis- factory	Unsatis- factory	Report unobtainable
Under Protection bodies and individuals	1936	1,228	754	66	408
	1937	1,282	762	78	442
	1938	1,285	702	80	503
	1939	1,290	742	59	486
	1940	1,289	746	49	503
Under probation officers	1936	1,096	802	62	232
	1937	1,250	924	70	256
	1938	1,441	1,052	55	334
	1939	1,335	904	95	336
	1940	1,386	963	71	352

STATE CORRECTION HOUSES

(October 1, 1941)

Correction houses	5	Secretaries	19
Instructors	35	Assistants	62
Physicians	5	Employees	19

Number of Juveniles Cared For
(Inclusive of temporary cases)

Year	Received	Sent out	Year	Received	Sent out
1935	1,626	1,255	1938	2,134	1,680
1936	1,651	1,264	1939	1,753	1,732
1937	1,845	1,446	1940	1,545	1,604

Results of Correction
(Exclusive of temporary cases)

Year	Old	New	Sent out as corrected	Sent out by other reasons	Remaining (at the end of the year)
1935	317	215	167	21	344
1936	344	195	150	21	368
1937	368	201	174	24	371
1938	371	301	204	28	440
1939	440	254	205	17	472
1940	472	217	235	27	431

**PROTECTION AND SURVEILLANCE STATIONS FOR
THOUGHT OFFENDERS**

(October 1, 1941)

Stations	22	Protecting officials	41
Station-masters	22	Secretaries	39
Guiding officials	11	Employees	50

Number of Persons Placed
(During November 1936—June 1939)

	Men	Women		Men	Women
Total number of persons placed under protection and surveillance	3,733	212	With satisfactory results	280	16
The released	878	49	Decrease by change of measure	65	2
			Remaining at the end of June 1939	2,790	161

PRISON SYSTEM

Historical Background

A short historical retrospect of our penal system will show that it is only in comparatively modern times that "Imprisonment" became the recognized method for the punishment of crime.

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yédo Period (1602-1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons punished with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Okí, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogun-

ate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labor) and, in 1790, that of ninsokuyoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado gold-mine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were also sent there.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict-coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yédo (Tokyo) and at Kamigo, Ibaraki prefecture, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labor for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yédo were put to forced labor for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labor. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labor of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet! ick wreck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goet, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijk myn gemoedt." (Do not fear! I will not

take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsokuyoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favored release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

Improvement of 1872 In 1871, with a view to carrying out a great improvement in our prison system, the Emperor Meiji despatched the Vice-Director of Prisons, Mr. Jinsal Obara, to Hong Kong and Singapore to inspect and study the prison systems there, and, as a result, the Prison Regulations, the first written law concerning prisons in Japan, were promulgated in 1872. According to the provisions of these regulations, the reclamation and education of the inmates of prisons should be based on love and benevolence. At the beginning of the Regulations, it is stated: "Prison is a place for the incarceration of criminals for chastisement. They are placed there because of love and benevolence towards them and not because of any desire to inflict cruelty upon them; prison is intended for chastising them and not for subjecting them to hardships. Punishment is imposed on them because it is unavoidable and because it is a means of removing evil from the State. The authorities of prisons shall conscientiously observe this principle in treating prisoners." The Regulations were framed on a progressive system and on very advanced lines, but subsequently their operation was suspended for a time, and, in 1881, the Revised Prison Regulations were published. The Regulations were again revised in 1889, and with the revision of the Criminal Code in 1907 the existing Prison Law was enacted and published the following year.

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900 they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but since that year

they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Ministry of Home Affairs to the Ministry of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Ministry for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by fingerprints.

Prison superintendents are appointed from among officials ranking as governors and assistant-governors by the Minister of Justice, and branch-prison the task of directing and supervising governors from among assistant governors and chief warders.

Classification

In the Japanese prison system there are four kinds of prisons: (1) prisons for those sentenced to penal servitude; (2) prisons for those sentenced to imprisonment; (3) houses of detention for persons destined to spend time in detention, and (4) prisons of confinement for (a) those sentenced to death, (b) those awaiting trial. In view of the different characters of these prisons, they should, in principle, be established independently of one another, and, in the case of their being erected in the same area, they are usually separated. At present, work-houses are not classified as prisons, but are attached to prisons for the sake of convenience.

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment by imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Law now in force. But Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavored to reform prisons.

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offenses, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous con-

finement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly, and confined separately, according to their categories. There are prisons for minors at Odawara, Kawagoe, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakuni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hachioji, and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural laborers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fishing-vessels or steamers.

In addition to the above-mentioned classified confinement, with a view to proper individualized treatment, they are examined by doctors, alienists, psychologists and educationists to find out their psychopathic idiosyncrasies, hereditary natures, physiological peculiarities, adaptabilities to occupations, educational possibilities, etc. in different prisons previous to their confinement. Further, a "social diagnosis" is made by collecting reports on them from city, town and village offices, police stations, schools, and organizations devoted to their protection in order that they may be suitably classified for treatment.

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. On the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental condition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

The Four Stages The stages of the progressive treatment are: (1) those under investigation; (2) those in course of correction and training; (3) those in process of improvement; and (4) those who have developed a sense of responsibility. After being subjected to a study of character, convicts are received into the first class to begin with. Those who are accorded this treatment are given fixed marks according to their terms of imprisonment and promotion to higher classes is given only when a sufficient number of marks have been earned by diligence, good conduct, and growth of the sense of responsibility and of the will for self-improvement. Those belonging to the first and second classes are kept in confinement in association, while those belonging to the third class are kept in confinement in association in the day time, but in solitary confinement at night, those belonging to the fourth class are confined in a special room.

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping the prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourth class may be permitted to take walks in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meetings, take walks in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labor. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and

the maintenance of order among themselves. Should any one of them violate the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for some or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 of labor may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class, less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class, less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class, less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labor they engage in, those of the second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit outside of working hours, but such free time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labor, and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games,

the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of interviews and the number of letters that may be written increase in proportion to advances in class.

Provisions, drinks and other articles for the maintenance of the health of prisoners are uniform and do not differ according to classes. Those belonging to the fourth class are given white garments, are permitted to decorate their cells with flowers or pictures, and are lent table-ware and other sundry articles for common use.

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence the enforcement of the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but if he passes the said period without any further violation it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence he will be restored to his former category without reckoning his marks.

When any person of the fourth class has served one-third of his term of imprisonment and the prison governor considers him fit for provisional release his case should be reported to the Minister of Justice. Even one

who belongs to lower classes and who has served one-third of his term and shows notable signs of penitence and is considered to be fully adapted to social life may be specifically granted provisional release, subject to the approval of the conference for provisional treatment on the progressive system.

Prison Labor

Paragraph 2 of the Japanese Criminal Code provides: "Any convict sentenced to penal servitude shall be detained in a prison and subjected to a fixed amount of labor." This "fixed amount of labor" constitutes prison labor. It is not legally imposed on convicts punished with imprisonment or custody, but its imposition is permitted in case they desire it. Since the institution of the *ninsoku-yoseba* at Ishikawajima hard labor has been recognized as an essential part of the discipline of prisoners, and present-day criminal theory in Japan is opposed to punishment by the restriction of personal liberty without the imposition of hard labor. Accordingly, prison authorities are encouraging industrial work at their own request by prisoners punished with imprisonment or custody.

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the "made-to-order" system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labor under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the "made-to-order" system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and when the articles are either manufactured or repaired the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labor of prisoners and re-

ceiving their wages in exchange. Under the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners, as well as undertaking their supervision and selection for work, and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

Among the above-mentioned three different systems, the public account system does not permit any third party other than prison officials to direct prisoners in the prosecution of their work as in the case of the contract system and, moreover, enables the prison authorities to select and impose on prisoners such kinds of work as are suited for their moral instruction and vocational education. In these respects, it is considered to be the most desirable for the enforcement of penological measures and its adoption is greatly encouraged.

Training for Occupations In imposing work on prisoners, the most suitable kinds of work are given them not only by taking into consideration health, economy, terms of imprisonment, ability, occupations in free life, and future means of livelihood, but also by scientifically examining their individual adaptabilities to occupations. Industrial work in prisons is the most suitable means of giving moral instruction to prisoners; in particular, training them in certain lines of work in the course of detention is the best way to prevent them from perpetrating crimes once again. Since 1926, therefore, houses for the training of prisoners for occupations have been erected in different prisons throughout the country and there prisoners have been trained for occupations requiring special skill, such as those of carpenters, joiners, furniture-makers, tin-smiths, plasterers, timber-mill workers, painters, smiths, shoemakers, etc. The term of training is 6 months, during which fundamental theories and practice are taught.

Rewards Given as Favors Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether

it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favor. This gratuity varies from ¥0.50 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Anyone who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given to a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

The Hito Prisoners are given moral instruction en masse on national holidays, on the first two days of January and the 31st of December, or on Sundays. The same instruction is also given prisoners individually in case it is deemed necessary. It is chiefly given by chaplains appointed from among priests of the Shinshu sect. Adult prisoners who are uneducated and those under age receive an elementary school education. The latter are also given military training, which gives very satisfactory results in the way of moral instruction. Prisoners are permitted to read books and look at maps and pictures, unless it is injurious to the good order of the prison, but writings concerning current topics are forbidden. As, however, it is needful to keep them acquainted with changes in the condition of society, lest they should fall behind the times, a specially edited newspaper, "Hito," (Man) is issued and distributed among them.

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

Criminals come in general from among the poorer people, and when

they are released from prisons after the completion of their term they are greatly handicapped in entering into gainful occupations or getting positions in shops or offices, being known as "Zenka-mono" or "former criminals," and dealt with as such by society, and it becomes difficult for them to earn a livelihood, so that they are forced into further crimes. For the protection of the discharged prisoners measures have to be employed for giving moral instruction and a knowledge of some useful arts while providing them with necessary funds so that they may establish themselves in some suitable occupation. These works have been entirely left in the hands of volunteer social workers who have made valuable contributions. But the number of establishments for this purpose is insignificant as compared with the number of ex-convicts who are in immediate need of protection and the fund contributed by benevolent persons to these protection houses is too insufficient.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr. Meizen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907, the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and later, in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913, Baron Hachiroyemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosel-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1923 the Ministry of Justice created a Section for the work of protection of ex-prisoners, which supervises the various organizations carrying on this work. In 1925 the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and since 1923 the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

The Beneficiaries The persons protected by these organizations are not limited to those who have served the

terms of their sentence, but include those who have been provisionally released; those whose prosecution is suspended; those the enforcement of whose sentence is suspended; and those who have been released from punishment for minor offenses; as well as the members of the families of those who are detained in prisons. The method of protection is roughly classified into (a) quarters and protection, (b) indirect protection. Those to whom the method (a) is applied are quartered in places

specially selected by the above-mentioned organizations and are given board, lodging and clothes as well as employment. Those to whom the method (b) is applied are not directly protected, but visits are paid to their fixed places of residence from time to time so as to give them advice and suggestions. Those to whom the method (c) is applied are given only temporary help at the time of liberation from prisons such as providing them with clothes and other necessities and journey money.

PRISON STATISTICS

NUMBER OF PRISONS (October 1, 1941)

Prisons	Branches	Total
53	105	158

FIXED NUMBER OF PRISON OFFICIALS

(October 1, 1941)

Governors	43	Pharmacists	16
Assistant governors	41	Chaplains	149
Chief warders	596	Instructors	37
Chief sub-warders	204	Industrial work experts	19
Juvenile-examiners	3	Assistants, ditto	495
Interpreters	4	Warders	7,576
Doctors	104	Employees	640
Assistant doctors	46	Total	9,973

NUMBER OF PRISONERS KEPT IN PRISON HOUSES
AT THE END OF EACH YEAR

	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	Average of the 5 years
Convicts	51,977	49,132	46,686	43,260	38,599	45,931
Criminal defendants	4,675	4,012	3,483	3,662	4,251	4,017
Detained in the House of Labor	462	362	269	169	174	288
Infants	9	6	4	7	5	6
Total	57,123	53,512	50,442	47,098	43,029	50,241
(Women in the total)	919	830	702	741	710	780
Daily average	57,440	56,566	52,581	48,873	43,106	51,513

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Criminal Code Offenses						
Theft	18,848	19,167	18,204	17,292	14,403	16,008
Gambling and lotteries	1,838	1,920	1,870	1,831	2,046	2,262
Fraud and usurpation	8,097	7,621	7,138	6,443	5,314	4,883
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	381	418	344	307	344	227
Injury	1,494	1,303	1,158	966	880	859
Receiving stolen articles	418	474	608	559	479	499
Murder	642	647	608	514	450	398
Burglary	729	731	673	555	477	372
Incendiarism	701	584	501	390	302	221

JUSTICE AND POLICE

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Interference with the execution of official duties	48	31	41	30	19	25
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	25	21	16	14	11	14
Forgery of currency	24	44	24	11	11	1
Abortion	54	34	30	17	21	12
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	287	261	288	253	303	294
House-breaking	249	270	312	504	573	431
Perjury	38	24	34	10	15	5
False accusation	17	22	32	22	6	8
Others	571	573	570	406	346	314
Offenses against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	42	71	91	140	179	154
The forest law	30	26	25	16	11	17
The military service law	11	18	21	16	32	21
The mail and telegraphy law	—	1	6	6	11	6
Others	1,034	3,360	2,575	1,074	437	815
Police laws & prefectural laws	5,520	4,143	3,550	2,932	1,710	1,175
Total	41,093	41,764	38,719	34,307	28,380	29,011

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS
ACCORDING TO THE TERM OF SERVITUDE

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Penal Servitude							
Penal servitude for life	64	55	43	34	44	25	26
Over 15 years	45	45	38	33	29	20	17
Less than 15 years	63	38	57	43	36	26	19
Under 10 years	963	816	804	684	607	623	580
" 5 "	2,300	2,154	2,040	1,951	1,947	1,828	1,860
" 3 "	4,046	3,719	3,330	3,490	3,220	2,896	3,429
" 2 "	8,462	7,640	7,638	7,097	6,938	6,211	6,684
" 1 year	13,651	13,472	13,730	12,971	11,846	9,972	9,905
" 6 months	5,306	5,282	5,244	4,881	4,128	3,314	3,386
" 3 "	1,882	1,970	2,925	2,520	1,884	1,566	1,712
Total	36,782	35,191	35,849	33,704	30,679	26,481	27,628
Imprisonment							
For life	—	—	6	1	—	—	—
Over 15 years	—	—	6	—	—	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Under 14 years	—	—	8	—	—	—	—
" 5 "	—	—	11	4	—	3	1
" 3 "	—	3	4	4	1	2	1
" 2 "	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" 1 year	1	2	4	6	4	3	7
" 6 months	4	5	41	61	40	17	14
" 3 "	40	47	319	394	199	49	44
Total	238	313	1,355	968	437	96	113
Detention	283	370	1,755	1,438	681	170	180
Death penalty	4,994	5,518	4,149	3,554	2,932	1,715	1,183
Total	35	14	11	23	15	14	20
Total	42,094	41,093	41,764	38,719	34,307	28,380	29,011

POLICE SYSTEM

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely vested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. The police are administered

in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture.

governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division, or in Tokyo and Osaka prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may, in some cases, be appointed chief or secretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public prosecutors they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest persons in flagrant offense. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public prosecutor, or help a public prosecutor in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Times of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabers. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmierie is called on for help. The gendarmierie is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmierie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with an extraordinary and limitless authority. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows: (1) when the country or a district is placed under

martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

Police business in Japan is many sided, and may be classified into 4 main lines and 24 kinds:

Public Peace (a) supervision of publications. The publication of all kinds of printed matter should be reported and a copy of each must be sent to the authorities. Secret publication is strictly forbidden. A sum of money as guarantee of good faith has to be deposited by the publishers of newspapers or periodicals which deal with political problems. The name of the person responsible for any publication must be printed on the publication. Secret matters which come under the control of the public procurators, the Ministers of the Army and the Navy, and the Minister for Foreign Affairs must not be reported in newspapers or periodicals. The Home Minister may prohibit the publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

(b) Supervision and care of public meetings, organization of societies and mass movements. According to the Public Peace Police Law, all public meetings on political questions and some other meetings which come under control of the authorities must be reported to a police-station beforehand. A policeman may be present at such a meeting and may stop a speech or close the meeting. The organization of such associations or societies as may endanger the existing form of Government and system of private property is strictly forbidden. The said P. P. Law inflicts heavy penalties on those who break these regulations.

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, social economy and price control. For instance, such shops and businesses

as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stall-holders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision. The police business in connection with the State policy for price control began since 1938, and the police force was augmented.

(d) Religion. It is the duty of the police to prevent the desecration of shrines and breaches of the peace in temple grounds. Superstitions and superstitious actions are prohibited by the Police Penal Law.

(e) Accidents. The police take charge in cases of fire, flood, explosion, of people being injured, etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness, and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theaters, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

For the prevention and extinction of fires, fire-brigades are established in cities under the control of the Chief of the Police Division in the prefecture. In Tokyo prefecture, a fire division is established in the Metropolitan Police Board and fire-brigade stations are located in different parts of Tokyo. In the larger cities, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobé and Nagoya special fire-brigade

stations are established by the State. In the smaller municipalities fire-guilds are established at the expense of local self-governments. The firemen are volunteers and differ from those in the said cities who are officials of the State.

(f) Public morals. The police look after the maintenance of good public manners and morals. Japan has a licensed prostitute system and forbids private prostitution and conniving at it. Through the efforts of Christian and other religious and public bodies and the growth of other means of pleasure, prostitution is growing less, but it is the duty of the police to see that the prostitutes are treated as humanely as possible as long as their term of service exists. All pleasure resorts such as theaters, places of performances, wrestling, movies, etc. are carefully supervised and any obscene or immoral performances prohibited.

Restaurants, dining rooms, bars, cafes and other eating places are under police supervision. The laws for prohibiting liquors and smoking to minors, the prohibition of lotteries, misbehavior in the street or outdoors, and the regulations regarding street advertisements and the erection of monuments must be enforced.

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare, juveniles who are addicted to bad habits, ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

(h) Actions which may harm others such as forcing an interview, extorting contributions, blackmail, causing disturbances, obstruction, etc., are forbidden by the Police Penal Law. Deceitful actions, spreading false reports, and the mishandling of dead bodies comes under the care of the police. Obstructing officials in pursuit of their duty is strictly forbidden. The care of lost articles, prohibition of deceitful religious actions, the supervision of "mu-jin-ko" and "tanomoshi-ko" or mutual financing associations come under police power to some extent.

Public Hygiene The problem of the health and hygiene of the people is one of the greatest concerns of the Department of Home Affairs, and in many points the responsibility of looking after such cannot be confined to the police alone, though in its direct management the police have much to do.

(a) Prevention of epidemics. For the prevention of epidemics there are many laws in force, the most important of them being the Epidemic Prevention Law, the Regulation for the Medical Inspection of Aviators, the Seaport Quarantine Law, the Vaccination Law, the Tuberculosis Prevention Law, the Trachoma Prevention Law, the Leprosy Prevention Law, the Venereal Diseases Prevention Law and the Parasites Prevention Law. The water police help in the medical inspection of passengers and goods arriving in vessels from abroad. The annual compulsory cleaning of individual houses and public buildings, drains, wells, dumping grounds, etc. is supervised by the police. When an epidemic breaks out policemen are used to try and confine it to as small an area as possible.

(b) Medical. As the health and welfare of the people depend on proper medical attention, doctors, dentists, midwives, nurses, masseurs and acupuncturists are under special regulations, as also are druggists and pharmacists. Poisonous chemicals are well looked after.

(c) General Health. A law is in force prohibiting the sale of unwholesome food, and utensils for eating, drinking and preparing food are under police supervision.

Traffic Police (a) Road. The police are responsible for safety on the streets. "Walk and drive on the left" is the rule of the road in Japan.

(b) Vehicles. Railroads, electric cars, automobiles, trucks, waggons, rikishas, bicycles, etc. are under police supervision.

(c) Water police. The water police look after foreign-going vessels entering and leaving open ports, navigation in closed ports, rivers and lakes, and the business of steamship companies doing a coastal trade.

(d) Ocean navigation has many international ramifications and though there are countless matters which ought to come under police supervision it is separated from common police business and put under the administration of the Department of Communications.

(e) The aviation police are under the supervision of the Minister of Communications.

(f) Colonial police come under the control of the Minister for Overseas Affairs except in some cases which may

come under the supervision of local governments.

Police and the People

The function of the State, as far as it concerns the economic life of the people is largely protective and administrative and certain laws and ordinances of the State have to be imposed on various businesses in order that the people shall be fully protected. The police work by orders from higher authorities at the request of the Ministers of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, and Finance.

(a) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial exchanges, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

(b) Agriculture is supervised by the police in such matters as the prevention of the spread of noxious insects, the control of plants imported or exported, the fertilizer industry, agricultural warehouses, the sericulture industry and the control of rice imports and exports.

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed to see that the regulations are carried out, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly prevent damage to the forests.

(e) Fishery police protect the propagation of aquatic animals and at the same time look after the safety of the fishermen. There are many laws and regulations on fisheries, whale-fishing, fishing boats, etc.

(f) The hunting of beasts and birds is limited to those mentioned in the revised Game Laws of 1918, the seasons and districts of hunting are put under police regulation.

(g) For the protection of laborers there are numerous laws in force, for instance, the Factory Law, Laws on the limitation of age of factory or marine workers, the Labor Accident Prevention Law, the Mine Law, and the Ordinance regarding the enlistment of workers. Policemen either help factory or

mine inspectors or directly handle matters mentioned in these laws. Labor | movements and disputes call for the use of police power frequently.

POLICE STATISTICS

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Police offices				
Police stations	1,203	1,205	1,206	1,206
Water-police stations	23	17	16	16
Branch stations	4,742	4,704	4,757	?
Police-boxes	14,242	14,209	14,217	14,391
Police officials:				
Divisional directors	52	52	52	52
Police superintendents	351	412	415	434
Police inspectors	1,607	1,675	1,726	1,818
Assistant police inspectors	3,909	4,021	4,269	4,686
Policemen	60,609	63,692	67,133	58,723
Total	66,528	69,852	73,543	75,443
Fire-brigade stations	241	243	244	254
Fire-brigade officials	3,981	17,375	17,539	4,703
Firemen	12,646	—	—	—
Fire-guilds	11,477	11,489	11,516	—
Volunteer firemen	2,139,869	2,149,608	2,141,487	—

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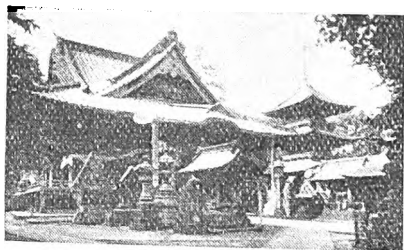
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CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Worshippers Visit Temple At Narita



NARITA SAN

The Shinshoji Temple at Narita, 42.8 miles from Tokyo, is one of the most well-known Buddhist institutions in the country.

The Shinshoji Temple can be reached in a few minutes by electric railway from the town of Narita located along the base of a hill on which the temple stands. Over a million pilgrims are said to visit the institution every year, the number being especially large in January, May and September, when work on the farms is light.

The temple is dedicated to the Deity Fudo, whose miraculous powers are greatly revered. The founding of the temple is related to the legend which says that Fudo's powers were responsible in suppressing a rebellion started by Taira No Masakado, in 940. At that time, there was an image of Fudo enshrined in a small temple near Kyoto, the capital, and this image was sent to the place where Masakado's rebellion took place near Narita. Prayers offered to the sacred image brought about the defeat of the rebels. Since that time the image has remained at Narita, it is said.

At the Shinshoji Temple, all monetary contributions from believers go to the promotion of public welfare and education of good disciples of Buddha. The late Abbot Milke established in 1887 the Eikan Gijuku, a middle grade school for local youths. Its system was improved and reorganized into the Narita Middle School in 1898 by Abbot Ishikawa.

The temple also operates a reformatory with the Reverend Milke, Ishikawa and Araki in charge. Since it was established 54 years ago, it has sent out to the world 24 reformed youths.

Under the Shinshoji Temple's management are also the Narita Girls' Higher School, the Narita Kindergarten, the Narita Library and other educational and cultural institutions.

Chiba Prefecture

Situated on the Boso Peninsula, Chiba Prefecture is washed on three sides by the waves of the Pacific Ocean and is well known for its brisk activity in the fishing industry.

Fishing is one of the important industries of the prefecture with about 70,000 people engaged and the annual fishery products amounting to more than ¥25,000,000. Main products in this line are mackerel, horse-mackerel, ear-shell, tunny, dried bonito, dried laver and fish manure.

The mild climate and the fertile land, on the other hand, gives the sea-boardering province a favorable place for farming in which the greater part of the population are engaged.

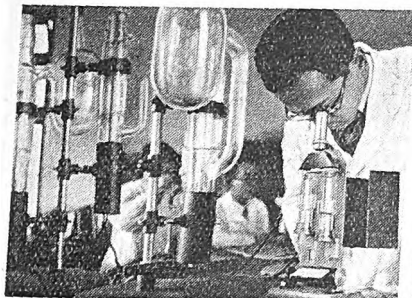
The prefecture also has recently made remarkable progress in sericultural, live-stock and the manufacturing industries. Among the leading manufactures are shoyu (soy sauce), sake, starch, milk and meat products.

Chiba Prefecture is also favored with the scenic spots, since the neighboring district of the town of Sahara, which is 40 kilometers up from the mouth of River Tone, are celebrated for its scenic beauty. There, the main course of the Tone, River Kita-Tone, Lake Toda, Lake Kasumi and Somu Islet, dotted in a 196.350 kilometer circumference, enchant the visitors with wonderful landscapes and the scenery of encouraged primitive forests.

Tourists are encouraged to go up River Tone from the town of Sahara to Itako and Kashima Shrine by motorboat, to take advantage of the wonderful and enchanting scenery to its fullest extent.



Highest Grades Vitamins A.D. Produced By Suisan Kagaku K.K.



**A Chemical Laboratory of
Suisan Kagaku K.K.**

Japan produces 60 per cent of the world's total marine products. This is a country of marine production in name and reality. This is because the country has in the spheres of its fishery activity the Arctic, Japan Sea, South Seas, Pacific and Antarctic. The manufacture of vitamins from the entrails of fish is of a recent invention. As a result of elaborate studies by the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry's Marine Product Experimental Station, it was established that vitamin manufacture be protected by patent. The industrialization of vitamins from livers of fish through industry thus has been perpetuated.

Fish livers are exported to the United States in cold storage, but, as a matter of fact, that country has not yet placed the manufacture of vitamins on a paying basis and large scale industrial footing. American industrialists can simply separate liver oil from livers and the products thus are utilized.

The manufacture of vitamins A and D is really epochal. It is especially noteworthy that the vitamin is preserved in casein capsules made from milk. This is a great success attributed to technical excellence of Japanese.

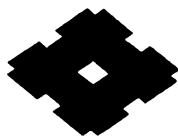
Whales of the Antarctic Ocean eat prawns (plancton), while men appreciate

very much, and their livers contain a large percentage of animal albumen. Liver of one whale weighs more than one ton. Whale livers are sent to Japan in cold storage.

Cleanliness marks factories making A-D vitamins. Hygienic welfare is perfected there. Not a single fly is allowed to exist there through perfect equipment. Sanitary welfare of the operatives working in these factories is up to the mark. It can be said the manufacture of AD Vitamins is going on as if it were done in a sanatorium. The factory superintendent is Dr. Tanaka, medical expert. Mr. Kinya Nagao as pharmaceutical magnate is president of the Aquatic Chemical Industry Company, Limited, (Suisan Kagaku Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha), the manufacturer of the A-D Vitamins. The company is at No. 1843, 4-chome, Miyamoto-cho, Funabashi City, in Chiba Prefecture. Mr. Nagao has perfect understanding of the manufacture of this particular health promoting medicine and nourishment.

Whale livers are sent to the factories and are sliced into pieces by the slicing machines and then they are powdered by a patented machine. Powdered products are preserved in vacuum iron pails through air separators. Out of the need of finding out the percentage of vitamins, they are preserved there and then are taken out for final manufacture, being preserved in capsules made of casein.

The casein capsules are an invention of this company and are protected by patent. As far as these capsules are concerned, other vitamin manufacturers cannot imitate this brilliant invention. Vitamins can be kept for a long period in these special capsules without impairing their substance. This Vitamin contains 8000 international units of Vitamin A in one gram and 400 international units of Vitamin D, being accepted as an ideal synthetic nourishment made from livers. The company has its own cold storage warehouse at Shibaura, Tokyo. Under President Nagao are senior Managing-Director K. Shioya and junior Managing-Director Dr. S. Tanaka, who are responsible for business and factory management of the company. Japan's leading aquatic product companies, including the Japan Aquatic Product Company, Nichiro Fisheries Company, Hayashikane and Company, and others, are interested in this concern.



SUMITOMO KAGAKU KOGYO K.K.

(Sumitomo Chemical Co., Ltd.)

Chairman: S. FURUTA

Head Office: Kitahama, Osaka, Nippon

Factories: Niihama, Ehime Pref.

MANUFACTURES:

**Chemical Fertilizers, Sulphuric Acid,
Nitric Acid, Alumina, Artificial
Cryolite, Floatation Oil**

CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

Chinese letters and Confucian books were first introduced to Japan in the third century, and it was then that the civilization of the country made a real start. From the nearby peninsula of Korea came sericulture, weaving, brewing, and the art of the blacksmith. It was about this time that the Imperial Prince Wakairatsuko established a Court School.

In the sixth century Buddhism came to the Island Empire to give added material progress to the Japanese civilization, and in 607 the Imperial Prince Shotoku-taishi (see Chapter III) caused the Horyuji Temple to be built at Nara and there he established a school in the temple. These were the earliest schools of Japan.

In the latter half of the seventh century a college in the capital and some provincial schools were established to educate officials, according to the Taiho Laws. Later, in the Héian period, the courses of study became encyclopaedic and both public and private schools were established. In the Muromachi period school education suffered a decline and only two places of study were recorded, namely, the Kanazawa Library and Ashikaga School, although there might have been private lecture halls kept secretly by scribes and Buddhist monks.

The Tokugawa Shogunate encouraged the study of Confucianism and several schools of this moral system and Chinese philosophy were introduced, and education extended to the common people. There were established many schools; the highest one was called the Shohéi Hill Academy or Shohéi School, which was established by the Shogunate. The central government had many other schools, while each local clan government also had its own schools. In addition to these, private schools and "téra-koya" appeared all over the country for the education of the people in general.

"Téra-Koya" Education

The "téra-koya" needs some special explanation, as it played the most important part in the education of the masses before the Meiji Era, and laid the foundation for the remarkable progress of elementary education in new Japan.

The word "téra" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the téra-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks. Side by side with Governmental schools for the samurai class, téra-koya education began to spread in the Yedo period among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Téra-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders of téra-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem composition, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honor and respect of community. According to the report of the

Ministry of Education, there were 15,862 *téra-koya* in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system.

It must be remembered also that technical schools had made considerable progress in old Japan. Medical schools in particular were established in the Taiho Era, and medical science made steady progress toward the middle of the Yedo period. The Tokugawa Shogunate established a medical school in 1765, and local clan lords followed this example. There were several private ones well known to the people. But these taught the Chinese method of the science, and the "*materia medica*" was almost entirely of herbs and animal matter. The modern or Western medicine and its system and practice were introduced through Dutchmen at the end of the Yedo period, so we may say that medical science was the earliest of all the sciences that were learned by the Japanese people from the Westerners.

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872 the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. The new system was established, in the main, after the examples of the French system, and the entire country was divided into 7 university districts, each of them consisting of 32 middle school districts and each of which was again divided into 210 primary school districts, or one primary school for 600 of population. The national educational principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows:

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye,

Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop your intellectual faculties and perfect your moral powers; furthermore, advance the public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should any emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne, coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue."

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.

(Imperial Sign Manual)

(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages.

Private individuals are also allowed to found schools and universities, although here too the Government does not give much latitude of method or scope, and the uniformity of school education in all parts of the Empire has worked well in bringing the degree of advancement in modern ways and thought to almost the same level throughout the land, and greatly strengthening the national spirit and unity of the people.

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefectures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and

girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elementary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

The main principles regarding the nature and objects of schools, their scholastic terms, curricula, organization, entrance qualifications, qualifications for the teachers, equipment, means of meeting the expenditure, and tuition fees are prescribed by Imperial Ordinances. The establishment of schools by public bodies or private individuals must be approved by the local supervising authorities, which also exercise control to a certain extent over their methods of education and finances.

Religion is, on principle, excluded from the educational agenda of schools. In all schools established by the Government and local public bodies, and in private schools whose curricula are regulated by laws and ordinances, it is forbidden to give religious instruction or to hold religious ceremonies either in or out of the regular curricula.

Education in the colonies comes under the control of the colonial governments, and the military schools belong to the Army and the Navy Ministries, while there are some technical schools which come under the supervision of other ministries. But with these exceptions, it may be safely said that the Minister of Education has charge of all matters relating not only to school education, but also to what may be termed social education, such as art, science, literature and religion. He is assisted by the parliamentary councillor in the conduct of political affairs and in matters which are connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The vice-minister assists him in the business part of the Ministry.

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Ministry, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which

do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine textbooks; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

The Minister of Education is authorized to direct and supervise the Superintendent of the Metropolitan Police and the local governors in matters under his control.

The prefectural governors direct and supervise their subordinate officials and exercise supervision over the public and private schools, kindergartens and libraries within their jurisdictions. There is a Division of Educational Affairs in each prefecture which has control of matters relating to education. School inspectors and sub-inspectors in it inspect schools and conduct educational business directly.

The mayors of cities and towns and the heads of villages deal with affairs regarding elementary schools and exercise control over them. The mayors of cities, moreover, have authority to make recommendations to prefectural governors in the appointment of the principals and teachers of elementary schools. The municipalities have school boards to look after elementary schools.

School Education

As is shown in the following tables, Japan is well provided with schools, ranging from kindergartens up to universities. Almost all the elementary schools are controlled by public bodies.

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in number those under official control.

Only 18 out of the 45 existing universities were built by the Government, 2 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies.

The total number of schools in Japan

proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1935-1939, is shown below:

Year	Schools	Students
1935	46,138	14,035,823
1936	47,750	14,949,792
1937	48,216	15,242,333
1938	48,637	15,638,780
1939	49,128	16,118,910

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper on March 1, 1939, with the number of students enrolled, was as follows:

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,938	11,978,683
Middle Schools	566	380,498
Girls' High Schools	999	479,425
Business Schools	1,382	507,629
Young Men's Schools	17,743	2,207,022
Higher Schools	32	17,017
Universities	45	72,968
Colleges	118	72,088
Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges	61	27,613
Normal Schools	101	32,025
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,805
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	886
Special Institutes for Training of Teachers	1	58
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	3	232
Institutes for the Training of Young Men's School Teachers	51	3,106
Schools for the Blind	78	5,277
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	62	6,141
Miscellaneous Schools	1,942	326,435
Total	49,128	16,118,910
Kindergartens	2,060	174,934

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many

improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows:

"Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life, due attention being paid to their bodily development."

According to the system of compulsory education all children from 6 to 14 years of age are called school-age children, and those who exercise parental authority over them, or their legal guardians, must send them either to the ordinary elementary schools established by the cities, towns or villages until they complete the required course of study, or to schools established by the Government, prefectures or by private individuals, recognized as equal to the ordinary ones above mentioned. The law is not enforced when a child is unfit for study owing to physical or mental deficiency or cannot be sent to school by reason of extreme poverty. There is a provision which requires the employers of school-age children to see that the work imposed does not interfere with their going to school.

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages. But special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99.59 per cent for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows:

These figures represent the condition existing on March 31 of the respective years.

RATE OF ATTENDANCE

Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1935	11,150,824	11,103,920	46,904	99.58
1936	11,358,094	11,311,266	46,828	99.59
1937	11,482,451	11,434,983	47,468	99.59
1938	11,671,876	11,624,979	46,897	99.59
1939	11,808,025	11,762,815	45,210	99.61

Elementary schools are divided into two grades, namely, ordinary or lower and higher. The former are for the beginners and their course extends over six years. The latter are for those who have completed the lower course, and their courses are of two or three years' duration. The subjects taught are morals, Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, sewing (for girls only) and gymnastics. In the higher courses, either one or more subjects out of handicraft, agriculture, industry, commerce and domestic science (for girls only), are added, and if local circumstances make it advisable, handicraft in ordinary elementary schools and foreign languages and other useful subjects in higher elementary schools may

also be taught.

An elementary school may comprise both the ordinary and the higher elementary school courses and may equip itself with a supplementary course of not more than two years.

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1939:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1939

	Governmental and Public	Private	Total
Schools	26,839	99	26,938
Teachers	273,198	956	274,154
Pupils:			
Ordinary	—	—	10,116,000
Ordinary & supplementary	—	—	600
Higher	—	—	1,860,000
Higher & supplementary	—	—	1,600
Total	11,948,614	30,069	11,978,683
Graduates	2,440,338	5,050	2,445,388

Teachers There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to the education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teachers,

(3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers, and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1939)

	Male	Female	Total
Ordinary Elementary Schools:			
Regular teachers	120,072	60,959	181,031
Special teachers	3,024	7,725	10,749
Assistant teachers	2,924	2,626	5,550
Substitute teachers	13,006	16,611	29,617
Total	139,026	87,921	226,947
Higher Elementary Schools:			
Regular teachers	38,759	4,235	41,994
Special teachers	1,634	1,349	2,983
Assistant teachers	51	4	55
Substitute teachers	1,704	471	2,175
Total	42,148	6,059	47,207

Kokumin Gakko Beginning April 1, 1941

Reform in Elementary Education
The term of compulsory general education in this country was fixed at 4 years in 1886, then the period was extended to 6 years in 1908. And now after 32 years, the term is extended to 8 years beginning April 1941.

The aims of developing the Japanese character and vocational extension are embodied in the curriculum of the Kokumin Gakko, or national school, with special attention paid to the following points:

(1) Not only will knowledge and skill be imparted through the curriculum, but the Kodo (principles of imperial benevolent rule) will be inculcated so as to foster national characteristics.

(2) With a view to effecting basic national training in accordance with the trend of the times and the new theory, the curriculum of the national school is divided into the five courses of civics, science and mathematics, physical training, art and business.

(3) Basic national training will be given so as to qualify the pupils as future useful members of the Empire, by establishing close connections among the five courses themselves and also by coordinating the five courses with the teaching of the Kodo.

(4) All material for the five courses will be systematized so as to give full play to the characteristics of each course, at the same time maintaining close connections among the five courses.

(5) The curriculum for eight years will be systematized so as to establish unification and coordination.

(6) The aims of compulsory common education will be realized by paying close attention to selection and arrangement of subjects taught with the addition of necessary items as required.

Article 1 of the National School Regulations declares that the national school is aimed at imparting a type of general education indispensable to the nation and at effecting a basic training for the Emperor's subjects along the lines of the Kodo, by observing the following points:

(a) Training in the Kodo shall dominate all educational activities, by fostering the national spirit and strengthening faith in the national polity.

(b) An outline of the Japanese culture shall be impressed on the pupils with emphasis on salient features. Also the general situation of East Asia in particular and the world in general shall be taught them so as to make them conscious of the position of the Empire.

(c) All courses and subjects of study shall be so handled as to give full play to their characteristics by maintaining close harmony among them, but all shall converge toward the aim of providing a basic national training.

(d) Mind and body shall be trained as a whole with a view to balanced development of national characteristics.

(e) Festivals, ritual, school programs, work, athletics, hygiene, and other educational measures outside the school curriculum shall be incorporated into the curriculum in a suitable manner, so as fully to realize the real aim of common education.

(f) Education must be concrete and practical, in keeping with national life. Greater attention must be given to this point in the higher national school, which is expected to give proper guidance to the pupils in entering vocational life.

(g) Teaching material shall be carefully selected for efficient instruction, while pupils shall be induced to take a voluntary interest in their studies, by means of proper guidance and by cultivating a habit of voluntary study.

(h) Proper training shall be given the pupils, by paying attention to their growth, physical and mental, as well as to the special character, individuality and surroundings of boys and girls.

The curriculum of the national school system is attached in the following pages. Every lesson hour consists of 40 minutes and the lunch recess follows the fourth lesson hour.

Schedule No. 1. (Elementary course)

Curriculum subjects		First year		Second year		Third year	
Curriculum	subjects	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	{Morals	10	National morals	11	"	8	Reading, writing, speaking
	{Japanese language		Reading, writing, speaking		"		
	{Geography		General arithmetic,		"		
	{Arithmetic		Natural science		"		
	{Science		Gymnastics, drill, play,		"		
Science and mathematics course	{Physical training	4	Sports & hygienics	5	"	4	"
	{Military arts		Singing, appreciation,		"		"
	{Music		Observation, representa-		"		"
Art course	{Penmanship	2	tion and appreciation	3	"	2	Kana, <i>kaisho</i>
	{Drawing		of objects, handicraft		"		
	{Work				"		
Total weekly lesson hours		21		23		26	
Curriculum subjects		Fourth year		Fifth year		Sixth year	
Curriculum	subjects	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	{Morals	8	"	7	"	7	"
	{Japanese language		Local history and geography		"		"
	{Geography		General science		"		"
	{Arithmetic		"		"		"
	{Science		"		"		"
Science & mathematical course	{Physical training	4	"	5	Fundamentals of military arts	5	"
	{Military arts		"		"		"
	{Gymnastics		"		"		"
Art course	{Music	2	"	2	"	2	"
	{Penmanship		"		"		"
	{Drawing		"		"		"
Total weekly lesson hours	{Work	4 (boys) 2 (girls)	"	4 (boys) 2 (girls)	"	1	"
	{Needlework (for girls)		Needlework (fundamental)		"		"
		30		31	Gardening	4 (boys) 2 (girls)	"
Total weekly lesson hours		30		31		32	

Schedule No. 2 (Higher course)

Curriculum	Subjects	First year		Second year	
		Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	Morals	2	National morals	2	"
	Japanese language	4	Reading & writing	4	"
	Japanese history	2	Outline of Japanese history	2	"
	Geography	2	Outline of geography	2	"
Business & technical course	Agriculture	5 (boys)	Outline of one or several of the subjects and practice	5 (boys)	"
	Technical industry				
	Commerce	2 (girls)		2 (girls)	"
	Fishery				
Science & mathematics course	Arithmetic	3	General arithmetic	3	"
	Science	2	General science	2	"
Physical training course	Gymnastics	6 (boys)	Gymnastics, drills, play sports & hygienics	6 (boys)	"
	Military arts	5 (girls)	Fundamentals of military arts	4 (girls)	"
	Music	1	Singing, appreciation, & basic exercise	1	"
	Penmanship	1	<i>Kana, kaisho, gyocho, sosho</i> and appreciation	1	"
Art course	Drawing Work	2	Observation, representation and appreciation of objects	2	"
	Housekeeping (girls)	5	Wood and metal works, gardening & handicraft (girls)		
	Needlework (girls)		General housekeeping	5	"
			General needlework		
	Lesson hours	30		30	
	Extra hours	2-4		2-4	
	Total weekly lesson hours	32-34		32-34	

Textbooks The task set before the Bureau of Books, Ministry of Education, to decide what textbooks to prepare for this epoch-making reform in national education was a difficult one. In order to embody the spirit of the new system

in schoolbooks, the authorities, since 1939, had studied the report of the Educational Council and other data, while investigating the actual conditions of education. In the spring of 1940 they sought the opinions of the

authorities on pedagogy, critics of educational affairs and leading educationalists; and after careful deliberation formulated general principles on which to carry out the work of compilation.

The new schoolbooks are so compiled as to realize the spirit and ideals embodied in the Imperial Ordinance Pertaining to the National School Law. What is deemed necessary for the basic training of the rising generation as Japanese subjects, in accordance with the principles on which the Japanese Empire was founded, has been selected as material for the textbooks. And they are so arranged as to be in keeping with the national life and the mental and physical development of the pupils.

The national school admits children of six years of age and its course of study extends over eight years. Based upon psychological theories and practical experience in education, the eight years have been divided into four periods, i.e. the first, second and third periods covering respectively the first and second years, the third year, and the fourth, fifth and sixth years of the elementary course, and the fourth period extending over the two years' higher course.

The new textbooks prepared in April 1941 are those for the first period, i.e. for the first and second years of the elementary course. As a matter of fact, schoolbooks for the lowest classes are the most difficult to compile, because the pupils are six and seven years old and little better than kindergarten children. So the books require to be prepared with elaborate plans and meticulous care. The textbooks for the first period, therefore, ought to be extension of picture-books, such as books with pictures of trams and railway trains. The new schoolbooks are accordingly titled in terms familiar to the pupils, for instance, *Good Boys and Girls*, *How to Read*, *Book of Figures*, *Book of Pictures*, *Book of Songs* and *Copy-books*. Their contents are also suited to the life and sentiments of the young boys and girls in this period of growth.

But even in the life of those innocent little ones there is some element of gravity and piety. On Tenchosetsu (the Emperor's Birthday), Meijisetsu (Anniversary of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday), New Year's Day and Kigensetsu (Empire Day) they attend the ceremony

held at their school, when they pay respects to the Imperial Portraits and sing the national anthem. At home they lead a moral life in their way, performing their filial duties to their parents and grandparents. There are also the family Buddhist altar, the family Shinto shrine, and the Shinto shrine of their birthplaces, institutions to which they are taken by their parents to offer prayers. The environment in which those little ones live is full of things which contribute to the fostering in them of the concept of national polity and the spirit of piety and of reverence toward their ancestors.

Children's songs, such as "Evening Burning, Little Burning" and "O Full Moon" are the expression of praise to their beautiful land, and their search for cicadas and grasshoppers may be regarded as the beginning of their interest in science. Playing marbles and shop develop in the children mathematical and economic ideas. Drawing, paper-work and toy-making all help to foster creativeness and inventiveness in the child's mind. Those brought up in the mountainous districts have a yearning after the sea lying beyond the hills, while the children born and bred by the sea grow up to be the defense of the island country. Since the outbreak of the current hostilities, they have seen their fathers, uncles and brothers leave for the front, and have heard from those relatives about the battle-fields over the sea. And not a few of the children become ambitious to go over to the Continent. They play soldiers, address soldiers in the street, take radio callisthenics, coax their parents to buy them toy tanks, pore over picture-books of warships, are keenly interested in the aeroplane, and fly model planes. Schoolbooks for the first period are intended to draw attention to their lives which are occupied with such innocent games and lead them educationally so as to develop their spiritual lives. They embody, so to speak, the spirit of what we call the highly organized national defense structure.

By the use of the *Book of Songs* the development of the sense of sound is intended, and the *Book of Pictures* aims at training children in the sense of color. Standard colors cannot be printed even by the advanced art of printing today. So the *Book of Pictures*

has beautiful, hand-dyed colored paper containing nine to thirteen colors. Thus the textbooks for the national school are compiled with well-selected and systematized materials necessary for giving children basic training as subjects of the Japanese Empire. Even the books for the first period form an integral part of this system of textbooks.

These schoolbooks are printed on a vast scale with most advanced technical skill. In the present school year, beginning with April 1, 1941, about 60 different textbooks for the first and second years of the elementary course, including teachers' manuals and maps, have been completed. Altogether about 53,000,000 copies of them have been supplied to the pupils and teachers throughout the country.

Secondary Education

For the secondary grades there are middle schools for boys, girls' high schools, business schools and Young Men's schools.

Middle Schools The course of the middle school extends over five years, and its object is to give boys such a higher general education as will fit them to be useful members of society after their graduation. The subjects taught are morals, civics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, both Japanese and foreign, geography, a foreign language (either one of English, German, French or Chinese), mathematics, science, technical studies, drawing, music, practical work (carpentering, gardening, etc) and gymnastics.

From the fourth year upwards, the subjects are selected and arranged into two groups, the pupils making choice between the two. Under special circumstances, however, the Minister of Education may authorize a school in which either of the two groups may be dispensed with. This dual system of

curriculum is of benefit on the one hand to the pupils who wish to take up employment immediately upon graduation, and on the other to those who wish to advance to collegiate schools.

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary elementary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination, the method of which was improved from written examination on subjects of study to the calculation of the fitness of children to the secondary education by examining the report of the elementary school on each boy or girl, testing physical conditions, and making oral examinations on character, since 1940. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils on March 1 of each year:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1934	554	327,261
1935	555	330,992
1936	557	340,657
1937	559	352,320
1938	563	364,486
1939	566	373,498

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1938 may be obtained by the following table:

MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1939

	Governmental and Public	Private	Total
Schools	446	120	566
Teachers	11,211	3,277	14,488
Pupils	301,461	72,037	373,498
Graduates	50,494	12,041	62,535
Applicants	131,608	52,186	183,794
Admitted	71,012	21,079	92,091
Percentage of Admitted in Applicants	53.95	40.39	50.10

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school extends over four or five years, and those schools whose entrance requirement is the completion of the higher elementary school or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments are allowed to shorten their course to three years. There is another kind of girls' high school which is called Girls' Domestic High School, where domestic science is the main course of study, and its regular course extends over two to four years. Girls who wish to take only one part of the course are allowed to do so on application. A supplementary course of two years or less may be provided for the benefit of those who wish to continue their study after completing the regular course, and a post-graduate course or a higher course of two or three years for the purpose of giving higher education. In the cases of the higher course, higher qualifications are required of the teachers and its standard is brought up almost to that of the higher school for boys.

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study is added and the hours for domestic science

and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls' high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March 1938, there were 996 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows:

Year	Schools	Girls
1935	970	388,935
1936	974	412,126
1937	985	432,553
1938	996	454,423
1939	999	481,425

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1939

	Governmental and Public	Private	Total
Schools	750	249	999
Teachers	11,631	5,811	17,442
Pupils	339,899	141,526	481,425
Graduates	79,584	28,437	108,021
Applicants	148,557	71,251	219,808
Admitted	96,096	38,407	134,503
Percentage of Admitted in Applicants	64.68	49.05	61.19

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left

to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extent from two to five years accord-

ing to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

On March 1, 1939 there were 1,379 business schools. The figures for the years 1935-39 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	1,125	367,026
1936	1,250	396,968
1937	1,301	433,437
1938	1,355	477,596
1939	1,379	467,629

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1939 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted
Technical	130	3,078	56,246	13,351	56,333	20,407
Agricultural	267	3,151	63,846	18,482	31,983	22,286
Commercial	350	8,194	220,129	38,156	117,767	57,189
Navigation	8	115	1,806	463	988	585
Fisheries	15	163	2,641	596	1,137	712
Practical	302	3,950	83,766	28,867	46,653	35,265
Total	1,072	18,651	388,434	99,815	254,822	136,444

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted
Technical	50	654	13,922	3,207	19,137	7,335
Agricultural	99	947	22,443	7,715	10,387	8,829
Commercial	88	916	27,080	9,236	20,358	13,761
Navigation	1	10	109	116	67	267
Fisheries	5	18	353	102	204	157
Practical	64	531	15,288	8,517	14,580	12,731
Total	307	3,076	79,195	28,893	64,933	43,080

Of these schools, 15 technical, 12 agricultural, 154 commercial, and 154 practical schools were under private management.

Young Men's School On April 1, 1935, the Young Men's School was established by the amalgamation of the Young Men's Training Institute and the Business Continuation School. The attendance became compulsory from April 1939.

The purpose of the new institution is to elevate young people's attainment as citizens of Japan by training mind and body, by cultivating moral nature and by educating in knowledge and ability indispensable to their profession and practical life.

The course of study of Young Men's School is graded into three, common, regular and post graduate. The common course extends over two years, the regular course five years for boys and three years for girls (four years for boys and two years for girls may be allowed according to local conditions), and the post graduate course over one year. Graduates of the lower course of elementary school may enter the common course of Young Men's School; those who finished the common course may be advanced to the regular course, while the graduates of the high course of elementary school have the same privilege; and graduates of the regular course or those who are in possession of an adequate scholastic attainment may

take the post graduate course.

Subjects of study are, in the common course, morals, civics, some of subjects common to middle schools, agricultural subjects and gymnastics, with additional studies on housekeeping and sewing for girls only; in the regular course the same subjects are given in a more advanced grade; and in the post graduate course, morals, civics and certain studies selected from the subjects of the regular course. Special course may be added. Pupils are free of charge as a rule.

The number of Young Men's Schools and that of their pupils for the years 1935-39 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	15,306	1,281,814
1936	16,708	1,902,876
1937	17,043	1,964,599
1938	17,337	2,041,321
1939	17,743	2,207,022

Higher Education

The institutions for higher education are higher schools, universities, colleges, and higher trade and industrial colleges.

Higher normal schools, institutions for training teachers of higher education, post-graduate or supplementary courses in secondary educational institutions and higher grade classes of the special educational institutions are mentioned under other headings, though they might be included here with the other higher educational organs.

The number of schools under this heading and higher normal schools and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1934	257	184,473
1935	255	186,963
1936	259	189,151
1937	259	190,332
1938	260	192,377

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A postgraduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher

course alone. On May 30, 1938, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 25, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 7.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same as those for the middle schools. The higher course is divided into the literature and science courses and a candidate must be one who has completed the lower course of the same school or one who has completed the fourth year of the middle school or whose scholastic attainments are equal or superior to the same standard.

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1937-38 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

Schools	(1940-41)
(School which have lower course)	32
Teachers	(7)
Students	1,550
Graduates	24,987
Applicants	4,474
Entrants	51,618
	6,097

Of the 32 schools, 25 are governmental, 3 public and 4 private.

Universities A university (Daigaku), in its regular form, consists of several faculties, but a single faculty may also constitute a daigaku. Each faculty is required to have a post-graduate course, and in those universities which include several faculties a university hall may be established for keeping the various post-graduate courses in touch with one another. Under special circumstances a preparatory course may be provided.

Admission to a university is extended to the graduates from higher schools and from preparatory courses of its own, and to those who have the same scholastic attainments. When a student has studied in the university for three years or more (four years or more in the faculty of medicine) from the date of his entrance, and has passed a prescribed examination, he may assume the degree of "Gaku-shi" (lit. "learned gentleman") or Bachelor. He is also qualified to enter the post-graduate course. In many universities facilities are provided for those who

wish to pursue studies only in some particular subjects according to prescribed regulations.

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate

course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degrees. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, SEPTEMBER 1941

	Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrance
Governmental (19):					
Tokyo Imperial	385	8,115	2,128	4,261	2,448
Kyoto Imperial	261	5,799	1,335	1,953	1,750
Tohoku Imperial	224	1,976	441	1,333	629
Kyushu Imperial	24	2,024	449	1,477	654
Hokkaido Imperial	227	2,584	647	3,443	867
Osaka Imperial	141	1,384	284	1,091	489
Nagoya Medical	92	830	77	907	270
Niigata Medical	96	402	58	550	296
Okayama Medical	81	814	76	536	311
Chiba Medical	106	499	82	629	396
Kanazawa Medical	87	421	70	723	452
Nagasaki Medical	49	355	79	516	294
Kumamoto Medical	119	358	61	665	333
Tokyo Commercial	138	1,797	311	2,100	241
Kobe Commercial	80	820	212	1,564	156
Tokyo Technical	119	984	176	737	305
Tokyo Liter. & Science	—	398	106	—	—
Hiroshima Liter. & Sci.	76	413	118	252	137
Jingu Kogakkan	—	119	—	378	296
Public (2):					
Kyoto Medical	—	549	—	1,390	98
Osaka Commercial	—	456	—	113	48
Private (26):					
Kelo-Gijuku	—	8,543	—	11,253	1,433
Waseda	—	9,404	—	14,438	1,177
Meiji	—	4,637	—	5,180	799
Hosei	—	2,871	—	853	699
Chuo	—	5,917	—	4,492	750
Nippon	—	5,220	—	1,500	—
Kokugakuin	—	641	—	451	150
Doshisha	—	1,949	—	2,962	394
Tokyo Jikei-kai Medical	—	1,130	—	3,016	160
Ryukoku	—	610	—	157	80
Otani	—	380	—	121	90
Senshu	—	—	—	3,417	649
Rikkyo	—	—	—	1,487	317
Ryumei-kan	—	1,983	—	800	300
Kansai	—	1,917	—	1,903	304
Takushoku	—	1,551	—	—	—
Rissho	—	1,329	—	82	54
Komazawa	—	325	—	300	150
Tokyo Agricultural	—	700	—	1,341	165
Nippon Medical	—	815	—	3,175	172
Koyasan	—	1,105	—	89	72
Taisho	—	227	—	239	111
Toyo	—	532	—	—	—
Jochi	—	—	—	245	128
Kansai-gakuin	—	446	—	1,824	285
Fujihara Engineering	—	1,344	—	3,200	160
		350	—		

The oldest of the 45 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1877, Keio-Gijuku was founded in 1858, but it was raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1937 and 1938 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1937	1938
Post graduate course	2,602	2,440
Law	8,432	8,629
Medical Science	8,225	8,287
Science	1,112	1,150
Agriculture	2,200	2,246
Economy	6,138	6,004
Commerce	4,736	4,946
Law and Literature	4,390	4,155
Politics and Economy	1,358	1,395
Technology	4,170	4,319
Literature	4,571	4,325
Law and Economy	645	652
Science and Technology	821	796
Literature and Science	756	773
Commerce and Economy	872	1,207

Nippon University

In the former numbers of the Japan Year Book, Tokyo Imperial University, Waseda University and Keio University were chosen as models of universities. For the present issue Nippon University has been chosen.

The Nippon University is located at Misaki-cho, Kanda Ward in the central

University Proper:

Law Department
Literature Department
Commerce and Economy Department
Technical Department

Graduate Course
Elective Course
Preparatory Courses

Collegiate Department

Osaka College
Higher Professional Schools

Middle Schools

Commercial Schools

The university has also a kindergarten, a library, a publication department and a hospital.

part of Tokyo. It was founded in 1889, or the year of the promulgation of the Imperial Constitution of the Nippon Empire. Its original name was Nippon Law School. The establishment of the school was undertaken by the late Count Kentaro Kaneko and others in accordance with the wishes of the then Prime Minister Aritomo Yamagata and Minister of Justice, Akiyoshi Yamada who were anxious to have an educational organ for the instruction of the young men in Japanese laws as against other existing law schools where French or English laws were taught. The school was reorganized in April 1920 to make it a regular university in accordance with the new University Law. It consisted of the two departments of Law and Literature, and Commerce with the associated law, literature, commerce, higher normal, dental surgery and higher technical schools of college grade. The school buildings were reduced to ashes by the Great Earthquake and Fire of 1923. But the earnest efforts of President Dr. Mannosuke Yamaoka rebuilt the university proper and all associated schools in a greater scale. The progress and expansion of Nippon University in the following 20 years has been a wonder in the educational world in Japan. It comprises now university departments, preparatory courses, colleges and middle schools where more than 30,000 young men are well educated. The present departments and associated schools of Nippon University are as follows:

Faculty or Course:

Faculties of law and political economy
Faculties of literature, religion and arts
Faculties of Commerce and economy
Faculties of engineering, building, machine, electric industry and industry
For the graduates from the four departments
In the faculties of the four departments
For those who finished middle schools and intend to enter the university departments
Faculties of law, politics, social science and literature; religion, colonial science, commerce and economy, arts, dental surgery, medicine, technique, higher normal
Faculties of law and science
Schools for dentists, engineers, linguists;
School of Mikado's Way and Yamaoka Laboratory
The 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and Osaka middle schools
The 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th commercial schools

As the name itself indicates, Nippon University upholds the Nippon Spirit and Principles inherited from the glorious ancestors of the nation in training its students and pupils as well as instructing them in various branches of law, literature, arts, economy, commerce and science. The growth of the university owes much to the painstaking efforts and high personality of President Dr. Manno-suke Yamaoka who is known as a scholar of criminal law and policy and has held important positions in the Ministry of Justice or as the Governor of Kwantung Province. He has lead the professors and students in his genuine spirit of patriotism which is almost a religion to him. Among thousands of graduates there are many leaders in political, medical and business circles in Japan as well as many world-famous sportsmen who took part in the Olympic Games as swimmers and other champions, including Tetsuo Hamuro, Masanori Yusa, Tomikatsu Amano and others. The university has 237 Chinese and other foreign students, sending out 3,891 graduates who came from foreign lands and went back to take important positions in their respective countries.

Faculties of arts and religion are established in no other universities in Japan but this university. In the Faculty of Religion, in the Literature Department, Shintoism, Buddhism, Christianity and Muslim are scholarly studied, while in that of the Collegiate Department students are instructed in more practical application of these religious principles on social work and moral education. The Faculty of arts includes courses of pure literature, cinematology, theatrical arts, aesthetics and music, while the similar faculty in the Collegiate Department trains writers, artists, performers and workers.

Innumerable engineers and technicians who graduated from the technical department and schools of Nippon University are earnestly working in munitions factories as unarmed soldiers behind the guns. The influence and contribution of the university in Japan and East Asia are wider spread and greater than most of other similar educational institutions.

Annual fees of different schools of the university are as follows:

Graduate Course, ¥1,000; University Department, ¥130; Elective Course ditto., ¥77; Preparatory Course, ¥100; Collegiate Department, ¥100; and Elective Course ditto, ¥77.

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges

"College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School. The required length of the course of a college is three years or more. For admission to an art or music school, the completion of the third year of the middle school or the girls' high school or the possession of equal or higher scholastic attainments is required, while for admission to all other colleges the completion of the course of the said second grade schools or similar or higher scholastic attainments is required.

In June 1941, there were 211 colleges, 71 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 13 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature:

Pharmacy	14
" for women	4
Medical Science	7
" for women	4
Dentistry	5
" for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Languages	4
Literature	6
Painting and other fine arts	5
" for women	2
Music	2
Religion	10
Christian Theology	4
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	35
Commerce	33
Agriculture	17
Fisheries	1
Navigation	2
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Engineering	1
Athletics	3
Fencing and Judo	1
Meteorology	1
Photography	1
Literature, economy, law, domestic science and other (including for women)	44
Total	211

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1937-1938:

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medical Science	4,048	1,924	865	370	9,005	741	905	435	96	54
Pharmacy	3,129	2,977	912	604	5,019	1,265	1,023	914	94	154
Dentistry	3,621	473	850	89	2,726	180	947	180	102	48
Law	12,532	46	3,599	9	9,127	21	5,692	21	2,207	14
Economy	1,801	—	339	—	1,479	—	1,087	—	569	—
Commerce	11,781	6	3,188	—	10,500	3	5,351	3	1,962	4
Literature	3,473	2,189	906	646	3,453	1,112	1,376	843	520	219
Mathematics and Chemistry	911	—	69	—	2,296	—	669	—	356	—
Domestic science	—	4,641	—	1,547	—	3,150	—	2,440	—	643
Sewing	—	1,416	—	416	—	828	—	610	—	130
Handiwork	—	627	—	136	—	455	—	314	—	92
Religion	2,211	29	645	7	885	16	754	11	198	2
Fine arts	588	37	152	7	165	20	158	18	12	8
Music	77	233	21	58	38	118	34	106	9	18
Athletics	518	67	115	22	353	25	155	22	37	3
Agriculture	691	—	218	—	497	—	254	—	46	—
Colonization	372	—	51	—	334	—	260	—	55	—
Nursing	—	62	—	—	—	76	—	39	—	11
Meteorology	50	—	18	—	249	—	18	—	—	—
Industry	954	—	298	—	1,649	—	331	—	88	—
Normal	3,809	651	896	269	3,732	503	1,697	346	665	46
Shinto	175	—	54	—	113	—	67	—	8	—
Arts	378	—	54	—	269	—	212	—	112	—
Total, 1938	51,119	15,378	13,250	4,180	51,889	8,513	20,990	6,302	7,136	1,446
(Total, 1937)	51,002	13,339	13,009	3,639	45,330	6,439	19,470	4,813	7,423	1,208
Preparatory and Special Courses	3,419	2,172	1,043	1,420	3,147	2,537	2,774	1,937	1,802	507
Grand Total	54,538	17,550	14,293	5,600	55,036	11,050	23,764	8,239	8,938	1,953

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the 1937-38 school year.

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Technical	19	938	8,275	2,715	24,991	3,185	286
Agricultural	15	609	4,851	1,581	11,884	1,910	177
Commercial	24	791	13,063	4,219	25,543	4,921	562
Navigation	2	150	1,189	276	2,069	261	27
Fisheries	1	37	235	76	737	82	7
Total	61	2,525	27,613	8,867	65,224	10,359	1,059

Other Education

Besides the schools stated above, there are Kindergartens, schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, and miscellaneous schools.

Kindergartens Kindergartens may be found chiefly in larger towns. With general social progress, however, the necessity of their improvement and diffusion being greatly felt the Imperial Ordinance for Kindergartens has lately been issued to encourage their further development. Kindergartens receive children from 3 years of age to school age or full six years of age.

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1935-39:

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1935	1,862	143,469
1936	1,892	143,676
1937	1,946	152,627
1938	2,001	162,027
1939	2,060	174,934

Education for the Blind and the Dumb

It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illiterates in the country. There-

fore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1935-39.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1935	140	9,907	4,830	5,077
1936	140	10,284	4,950	5,334
1937	140	10,566	5,040	5,526
1938	140	11,030	5,160	5,870
1939	140	11,418	5,277	6,141

Miscellaneous Schools Under the heading of "Miscellaneous Schools," the Japanese Government includes for convenience sake all schools which do not fully come into any definite category of schools under the provisions in the laws and ordinances.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1935-39.

Year	Schools	Pupils
1936	1,913	241,112
1937	1,931	258,713
1938	1,926	272,140
1939	1,942	326,435

Of the total given above, 150 were maintained by public bodies and 1,776 by private persons or bodies. As to their category those which might be classified as elementary schools numbered 194, middle schools 115, girls' high schools 73, business schools 646, colleges 31, the blind and the dumb schools 9, and the professional 853. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which to be highly esteemed as educational institutions in their ideas and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no

efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of Young Men's School teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1935-1939:

Year	Schools ¹	Students
1935	156	34,583
1936	156	34,019
1937	157	34,663
1938	156	35,360
1939	158	38,137

Organs for Training Elementary School Teachers The principal organs for training elementary school teachers are the normal schools, while the training course B grade of the Tokyo Academy of Music trains music teachers for elementary schools.

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes in the graduates of high-

1 Note: There are 4 higher normal schools and their students included in this as well as in the number of the table on higher education.

er elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second sections runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1935-1939.

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1935	102	30,420	10,735
1936	102	29,825	10,431
1937	101	30,256	10,340
1938	101	30,783	10,499
1939	101	32,825	10,564

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal

school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses. The number of graduates from these schools is from 850 to 1,000 annually.

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 8,344 persons, 5,485 men and 2,859 women, who received such certificates in 1937-1938.

Organs for Training Business School Teachers For the purpose of training teachers of practical subjects in technical schools, institutes are attached to the Government universities and colleges. They are of a three year course, the scholastic standard corresponding to that of the colleges.

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		Graduates
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	
1934	1	111	2	150	1	101	4	362	120
1935	1	116	2	144	1	96	4	356	111
1936	1	120	2	142	1	98	4	360	114
1937	1	84	2	224	1	56	4	364	119
1938	—	—	2	139	1	93	3	232	71

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1937-1938 was 484.

Organs for Training Teachers of Young Men's Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these insti-

tutes and that of their students in 1934-1939:

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1934	43	1,014	529
1935	45	1,106	588
1936	45	1,117	619
1937	47	1,315	539
1938	49	1,596	761
1939	51	3,106	1,928

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to stu-

dents of the post-graduate course of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons at the end of March, each year:

Year	Students Abroad	Year	Students Abroad
1933	184	1936	126
1934	136	1937	168
1935	104	1938	112

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1937-1938 the number of persons who received Higher School Professor's licences was 801, of which 6 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teach-

Teachers of	Applicants	Passed examinations
Elementary School and Kindergarten	40,974	6,966
Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	5,908	584
Higher Department of Higher School	201	24
Business School	792	116

Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like:

There were 33,870 school physicians, 9,344 dentists, and 3,613 nurses for 33, 870 schools in 1938.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido

ers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal school, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1937-1938 the number of kindergarten nurses' certificates given was 1,083.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Ministry. The number of persons who passed such examination during 1937-1938 was 7,690. These may be classified as follows:

and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Ministry of Education has the Section of Physical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Education Ministry a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Ministry of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Ministry, and directors of the same in the local governments.

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no

chance to receive regular education, the Ministry has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are laborers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labor.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been under-

stood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Uéno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table:

Year	Public Libraries	Books	Readers	Daily Average of Readers of a Library
1934	4,634	10,762,000	24,949,000	21
1935	4,794	11,376,000	24,666,000	20
1936	4,759	12,319,000	24,191,000	20
1937	4,730	12,648,000	24,124,000	20
1938	4,752	12,985,000	24,551,000	20
1939	4,772	13,453,846	25,375,381	15

In November 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government, and is located in Uéno Park, Tokyo. At the end of 1937, it exhibited 2,079 technical and machine models and 198,910 specimens of natural science, and in 1937, 273,486 people visited it in 356 days.

Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Young Men's Schools, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Y.M.A. Members	Y.W.A. Members
1934	15,440	2,488,113
1935	15,469	2,456,505
1936	15,719	2,450,427
1937	15,806	2,442,924
1938	15,859	2,335,548

Organization of the Dai Nippon Sei-Shonen Dan The national association of young people was organized on January 16, 1941, by the amalgamation of the Japan Young Men's Association, the National Federation of Young Women's Associations, the National League of Boys' Associations and the Imperial Boy Scout. The new association assumes a name of the Dai Nippon Sei-Shonen Dan, or the Great Japan Young People's Association, and comprises all young men, boys and girls in Japan among its members, including young men in the Young Men's Schools, other young men of 14-20 years of age, young men as leaders of 21-25 years of age, unmarried young ladies of 14-25 years of age, and boys and girls in the third year or up in the National Schools. The total number of these young people is said to be over 5 million.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government. The expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local governments are required to pay additional salaries at certain rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenses, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in the National

Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war program of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditure in yen during the years 1934-1938:

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1934	152,105,765	100,103,429	102,318,577	202,816,370	87,274	557,434,115
1935	154,732,262	104,617,681	103,435,462	214,853,579	91,476	577,730,460
1936	151,099,914	109,120,439	119,144,631	224,908,617	102,928	604,376,529
1937	142,573,799	111,717,579	137,128,239	230,811,039	122,442	622,353,098
1938	145,642,185	118,091,381	138,575,155	230,306,977	95,969	632,711,667

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1937-1938 (In yen)

Administration	2,463,873	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	209,614
Elementary and Secondary education	90,364,469	Universities and libraries	32,518,406
Business education	719,472	Total including others	145,642,185
Social education	3,901,879		

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1937-1938 (In yen)

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	School Associations of Municipalities	Towns & Villages	Total
Elementary Schools	—	114,515,114	46,352	195,517,977	310,079,443
Normal Schools	10,098,714	—	—	—	10,098,714
Middle Schools	23,000,806	343,674	42,512	198,430	23,585,422
Girls' High Schools	16,542,021	3,103,163	—	2,101,683	21,746,867
Higher Schools	552,247	—	—	—	552,247
Universities	1,329,587	494,140	—	—	1,823,727
Colleges	337,246	148,478	—	—	485,724
Business Schools	22,133,551	8,187,126	—	2,530,572	32,851,249
Teachers' Training Schools	592,351	—	—	—	592,351
Young Men's Training Schools	89,930	5,113,614	3,828	24,310,438	29,517,810

OTHER SCHOOLS

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Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Pre- fectures	Cities	School Associa- tions of Municipalities	Towns & Villages	Total
Blind Schools	1,069,173	67,668	—	19	1,136,860
Deaf and Dumb Schools	457,692	105,040	—	—	562,732
Miscellaneous Schools	391,127	502,244	—	26,080	919,451
Kindergartens	—	1,294,591	—	556,441	1,851,032
Libraries	724,231	793,483	—	261,428	1,779,142
Miscellaneous	40,772,705	3,906,820	3,277	4,803,909	49,486,711
Total	118,091,381	138,575,155	95,969	230,306,977	487,069,482

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Education Ministry, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Ministry of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (women) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college.

Two Special Schools The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has two schools; one is the To-a Dobun Sho-in (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN

Kéijo (Seoul) Imperial University
Kéijo Imperial University Preparatory School
Kéijo Law College
Kéijo Medical College
Kéijo Technical College
Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
Kéijo Commercial College
Eight private colleges

TAIWAN

Taihoku Imperial University
Taihoku College
Four other colleges

KWANTUNG

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
Preparatory College for the same
Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March 1938, was as follows:

Schools	Teachers			Pupils & Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	4	3	7	286	178	464
Normal	—	—	—	5	—	5
Higher Normal	6	—	6	128	—	128
Woman's Higher Normal	—	—	—	—	25	25
Middle Schools	38	5	43	28	—	28
Girls' High Schools	3	65	68	—	2	2
Higher Schools	69	2	71	115	—	115
Universities	108	1	109	1,778	54	1,832
Colleges	106	73	179	918	226	1,144
Business Colleges	54	—	54	252	3	255
Business Schools	29	10	39	19	—	19
Young People's Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Blind Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	101	181	282	893	806	1,699
Total	518	342	860	4,422	1,294	5,716

EDUCATION

The comparison for the seven years,
1932-1938, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students	Year	Teachers	Students
1932	908	2,761	1934	883	2,765
1933	1,059	2,232	1935	912	4,681
			1936	906	6,942
			1937	915	8,026
			1938	860	5,716

CHAPTER XXIX
RELIGION

THE BEACON OF GREATER EAST ASIA

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CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Buddhism and Confucianism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil until but recently though its literature has been introduced to some extent.

Shintoism is the Japanese national religion which has its origin in the ancient traditions connected with ancestral gods. The peculiarity of Shintoism is that it has no doctrine or creed of any kind other than worship offered to the Imperial ancestors and the ancestral spirits. It is not an idolatry, as foreigners commonly understand, since there is no image enshrined in any of the Shinto shrines. A shrine is simply a place of worship dedicated to a guardian deity whose spirit is represented by a metal mirror placed on the altar. Shintoism has taught the people simplicity and purity of heart and fostered loyalty to the Imperial House and love for the country throughout the ages.

It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behavior, and its broad philanthropy has given rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egoism or individualism. Its philosophi-

cal literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. Buddhism is still the most powerful among the religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contribution towards the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert greater influence upon them.

Shinto Shrines

While the sectarian Shinto denominations are under the Education Ministry as other religious bodies, most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Ministry, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials.

The Isé Grand Shrine is the most honored of all as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-Goddess. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the 'Kingly Way,' giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Grand Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the august Imperial ancestors, both heavenly and earthly, are installed besides the principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujijima, Mie prefecture. The whole sac-

red area of the Grand Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 74 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Ministry, the number of shrines at the end of June 1941 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines	306
Prefectural and village shrines	49,579
Private shrines	60,532
Soldiers' shrines	129

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 60,532 in 1941, or a decrease of 76,251, less than in the previous year. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease indicates the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines in 1933 (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of June 1941 was 15,506.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study.

A list of important shrines other than the Isé Grand Shrine is given below:—

IMPORTANT SHRINES

Name	Location	Date of Festival
Asama-jinja	Shizuoka Pref.	Nov. 4
Aso-jinja	Kumamoto Pref.	July 28
Asuta-jingu	Minami Ward, Nagoya	June 21
Chosen-jingu	Keijo, Chosen	Oct. 17
Dazaifu-jinja	Fukuoka	Aug. 25
Futarayama-jinja	Tochigi Pref.	Apr. 17
Hakozaki-gu	Fukuoka	Aug. 15
Helan-jingu	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 15
Hie-jinja	Kojimachi Ward, Tokyo	June 15

Name	Location	Date of Festival
Hikawa-jinja	Saitama Pref.	Aug. 1
Hirano-jinja	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 2
Hiyoshi-jinja	Nishinomiya, Hyogo	Mar 16
Hirota-jinja	Shiga Pref.	Apr. 14
Ikutama-jinja	Tennoji Ward, Osaka	Sept. 9
Ikuta-jinja	Kobe	Aug. 15
Inari-jinja	Fushimi Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 9
Itsukushima-jinja	Hiroshima Pref.	June 17
Iwashimizu-hachimangu	Kyoto	Sept. 15
Izumo-taisha	Shimane Pref.	May 14
Kamakura-gu	Kamakura	Aug. 20
Kamo-jinja	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	May 15
Karafuto-jinja	Karafuto	Aug. 23
Kashi-gu	Fukuoka	Oct. 29
Kashima-jingu	Ibaragi Pref.	Sept. 1
Kashiwara-jingu	Nara Pref.	Feb. 11
Kasuga-jingu	Nara	Feb. 13
Katori-jingu	Chiba Pref.	Apr. 14
Kirishima-jingu	Kagoshima Pref.	Sept. 19
Kitano-jinja	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Aug. 4
Kumanohaya-tama-no-jinja	Shingu, Wakayama	Oct. 15
Matsuo-jinja	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 2
Meiji-jingu	Shibuya Ward, Tokyo	Nov. 3
Minatogawa-jinja	Koto Ward, Kobe	July 12
Mishima-jinja	Shizuoka Pref.	Aug. 16
Nogi-jinja	Akasaka Ward, Tokyo	Sept. 13
Sapporo-jinja	Hokkaido	June 15
Shiramine-gu	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Sept. 21
Sumiyoshi-jinja	Sumiyoshi Ward, Osaka	June 30
Suwa-jinja	Nagano Pref.	Apr. 15
Taiwan-jinja	Taihoku	Oct. 28
Togo-jinja	Shibuya Ward, Tokyo	June 1
Toshogu	Nikko, Tochigi	
Toyokuni-jinja	Higashiyama Ward, Kyoto	Sept. 18
Tsurugaoka-hachimangu	Kamakura	Sept. 15
Usa-jingu	Oita Pref.	Mar. 18
Yasaka-jinja	Higashiyama Ward, Kyoto	June 15
Yasukuni-jinja	Kudan, Tokyo	Apr. 30
Yoshino-jingu	Nara Pref.	Oct. 23
		Sept. 27

Secretarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult before its later branches had developed. The principal ideas of the sect are to follow the "Great Way of the Gods," and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780-1850), who was born at a small village in Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the

sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Other sects of Shinto are as follows—the teachings of all being much the same, except that some lay particular stress on the worship of one or another of the early gods:—

- Shinto-shusei** Founded by Kunimitsu Nitta (1829-1902) born in Chiba Prefecture.
- Taisha** Preached by Sompuku Sengé (1845-1918)
- Fuso** Founded by Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646) and preached by Han Shishino.
- Taisei** Founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815-1890)
- Jikko** Founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-1890)
- Shinshu** Founded by Masamochi Yoshimura (1839-1916) of Okayama prefecture.
- Ontaké** The chief center of this sect is Mount Ontaké, where the spirits of certain gods are enshrined.
- Misogi** The sect of Water Purification. Founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790-1849) of Mié prefecture.
- Shinri** Founded by Tsunehika Sano (1834-1906)
- Konko** Founded by a farmer, Bunjiro Kawaté (1814-1883)
- Tenri** Founded by a woman, Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) of Nara prefecture. Of all these sects the Tenri-kyo has perhaps the greatest number of believers; it lays emphasis on personal conduct and mental discipline, in addition to patriotism and obedience to the Emperor and Imperial ordinances. It particularizes the "eight forms of dust which must be swept away"; they are grudging, evil desires, impure attachments, hatred, enmity, anger, covetousness and arrogance.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmel (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. Prince Shotoku, Regent from 593 to 628 A.D. and a devout Buddhist, was largely responsible for its rapid spread throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Keron, were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others

then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history Buddhism became further divided, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Keron, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are subdivided into fifty-eight branches.

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied its teachings under Hsuan-tsang.

Kegon Sect Roben (688-776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokel who visited Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537-597) of the Sui Dynasty.

The Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 786-882) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yenryaku Era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country.

There are three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji in Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji in Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773-835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai.

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Daikakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of the Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094-1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect

was Genku, known as Yenku Daishi or Honen (1133-1212), and it was established in 1174. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176-1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Seizan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Selgwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173-1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibe, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239-1289).

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinza, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinza Sect of Zen was first taught by Yelsai (1140-1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199-1253) who studied Zen in China during the Sung Dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592-1673) in 1653.

There are fourteen branches in the Rinza Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukuji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yengenji, Shokokuji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji, Kyoto prefecture.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanaishi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommonji at Ikegami, Tokyo, and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokke-shu (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokke-shu, (Kochoji are its head-temples); (5) Hommyo-hokke-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (6) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daiseikiji in Shizuoka prefecture).

ture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Hon-

kakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture). (Teachings and doctrines of these Buddhist sects are mentioned in the Japan Year Book, 1939-40, pp. 656-659.)

IMPORTANT BUDDHIST TEMPLES

Sect and Branch	Head Temple	Location
Tendai Sect		
Tendai-shu	Enryakuji	Sakamoto, Shiga
Jimon-ha	Enjoji	Otsu
Shinsel-ha	Seikyoji	Sakamoto, Shiga
Kogishington Sect	Kongobuji	Koya, Wakayama
	Daikakuji	Sakyo, Kyoto
	Ninnaji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Shingon Sect		
Daigo-ha	Daigoji	Uji, Kyoto
Toji-ha	Toji	Kujo, Kyoto
Senyuj-ha	Senyuj	Imakumano, Kyoto
Yamashina-ha	Kanshuj	Uji, Kyoto
Zentsuji-ha	Zentsuji	Zentsuji, Kagawa
Shingishington Sect		
Chizan-ha	Chisekiin	Kyoto
Buzan-ha	Hasedera	Nara
Shingon-ritsu Sect	Seidaiji	Fushimi, Nara
Ritsu Sect	Toshodaiji	Nara
Jodo Sect		
Jodo-shu	Chion-in	Sakyo, Kyoto
	Zojoji	Shiba, Tokyo
Nishiyama-zenrinji-ha	Zenrinji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Nishiyama-komyoji-ha	Komyoji	Kyoto
Nishiyama-Fukakusa-ha	Seiganji	Nakakyo, Kyoto
Rinzai Sect		
Tenryuji-ha	Tenryuji	Saga, Kyoto
Sokokuji-ha	Sokokuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Kenninji-ha	Kenninji	Higashiyama, Kyoto
Nanzenji-ha	Nanzenji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Myoshinji-ha	Myoshinji	Ukyo, Kyoto
Kenchoji-ha	Kenchoji	Kamakura, Kanagawa
Tofukuji-ha	Tofukuji	Higashiyama, Kyoto
Daitokuji-ha	Daitokuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Enkakuj-ha	Enkakuj	Kamakura, Kanagawa
Eigenji-ha	Eigenji	Takano, Shiga
Hokoji-ha	Hokoji	Okuyama, Shizuoka
Buttsuji-ha	Buttsuji	Takasaka, Hiroshima
Kokutaiji-ha	Kokutaiji	Ota, Toyama
Kogakuji-ha	Kogakuji	Shioyama, Yamanashi
Soto Sect	Eiheiji	Shiobiya, Fukui
	Sojiji	Tsurumi, Kanagawa
Obaku Sect	Mampukuji	Uji, Kyoto
Shin Sect		
Honganji-ha	Honganji (Nishi)	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Otani-ha	Honganji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Takata-ha	Senshuj	Mie
Kosei-ha	Koseiji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Bukkoji-ha	Bukkoji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Kibe-ha	Kinshikiji	Nakazato, Shiga
Izumi-ha	Gosetsuji	Mimano, Fukui
Yamamoto-ha	Shosetji	Shin-Yokoe, Fukui
Selshoji-ha	Selshoji	Sabae, Fukui
Sammonto-ha	Keishoji	Toyo, Fukui

Sect and Branch	Head Temple	Location
Nichiren Sect		
Nichiren-shu	Kuonji	Minobu, Yamanashi
	Hommonji	Ikegami, Tokyo
Nichiren-sei-shu	Daisekiji	Ueno, Shizuoka
Kempon-hokke-shu	Myomanji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Hommon-shu	Hommonji	Kitayama, Shizuoka
Hommon-hokke-shu	Kochoji	Kanaoka, Shizuoka
	Honnoji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Hokke-shu	Honseiji	Sanjo, Niigata
Hommyohokke-shu	Honryuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Fujufuse-ha	Myokokuji	Kanagawa, Okayama
Fujufuse-komon-ha	Honkakuji	Kanagawa, Okayama
Ji Sect	Seijoji	Fujisawa, Kanagawa
Yuzunenbutsu Sect	Dainenbutsuji	Hirano, Osaka
Hosso Sect	Horyuji	Horyuji, Nara
	Kofukuji	Noborioji, Nara
Kegon Sect	Todaiji	Zoshi, Nara

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of prospering under the rigorous Government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch traders were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate Government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodate were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail

themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year came Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobé the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kldder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the Tokugawa feudal system collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn, in the sixth year of Meiji (1873), and missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, publish religious tracts, and preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young followers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo.

This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated under the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobe established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobe Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In the same year the Umemoto-cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, 35 students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by J. H. Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh conducted a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobe a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji Era, and the New Testament was completed in December 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y.M.C.A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobe Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobe by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 Sunday-schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also despatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith. On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. In that year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name to the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpel Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

Until 1901 the foreign missionaries had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities. In that year the Home Minister gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and man-

age lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission by the end of that year; in this they were later successful.

In 1907 representatives of the Methodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School Association, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing 25 nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. Missionaries from the Société des Missions Etrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodaté, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo, with a Bishop resident in Tokyo. In Shikoku there is a Spanish Dominican mission, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are the Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others. In the prefecture of Nagasaki, Catholics, who have been at work for the last 300 years, though secretly, are still in the ascendancy.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest, Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and after

settling in Hakodaté he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of the sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the World War made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

Islam

Among the world religions Islam has exercised the smallest influence over the Japanese people. The Koran was translated into Japanese early in the Meiji Era (1868-1912), but the faith could not obtain many adherents, because it was introduced to Japan without political or economic elements accompaniments. Islam is not yet officially recognized by the Japanese Government and the number of Islamites in Japan is unknown, although it is believed that there are several hundreds of them.

In August 1937, the Islam Cultural Association was organized in Tokyo. Its president is Ryusaku Endo, and it issues a magazine "Islam" for the promotion of Islamic culture in Japan. A mosque was built in Tokyo, early in 1938, by Japanese Islamites. The friendly attitude of the Islamites in China and Islam countries toward Japan since the occurrence of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937 has aroused the general sympathy and interests of the Japanese people in the religion and its believers.

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mim-busho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Ministry. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Ministry of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished

too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Ministry of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. In April 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i.e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto Shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Ministry in 1913 and is under its jurisdiction at present.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects were placed under the direct supervision of the Government, giving official recognition, it gave no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision did not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. But times have changed and a bill for Control of Religious Organizations (Shūkyō Dantai Hōan) was presented and approved by the 74th session of the Imperial Diet, and the new law was enforced as from April 1, 1940.

New Religious Law

The new law is comparatively simple in form and consists of 37 articles.

Essential Points 1. The new law is to be applied to both religious organizations and religious societies. A religious organization (Shūkyō Dantai) is understood to be an association of believers organized for the purpose of advocating a religious faith and of conducting rituals; its establishment is recognized by the Minister concerned or by the Prefectural Governor according to specific regulations provided in the law. A religious society (Shūkyō Keshu) is understood to be an organization of believers organized similarly for the purpose of advocating a faith and of conducting rituals, but which is not considered by the State as coming under the category of a religious organization. As a matter of fact, the religious society is a new name for bodies hitherto known as "groups of believers in a faith analogous to a religion" (Ruiji-Shūkyō Dantai).

2. The proposed law groups all religious bodies into five classifications: Shinto sects (Kyōha), Buddhist denomi-

nations (Shūha), Christian and other religious organizations (Kyodan), temples, and churches. Actually, the first three of these include the latter two.

In regard to Shinto sects and Buddhist denominations, there has existed a basic law, however incomplete it may have been, known as Ordinance No. 19 of the Daijōkwan (predecessor of the present Cabinet) issued in 1884. Christian churches and other religious organizations have been left untouched, placed outside the purview of the Ordinance. The proposed law, therefore, includes them as religious organizations similar to Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations.

In principle, Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity are to be treated equally in accordance with the terms of the law. They have, however, different historical and social backgrounds. Accordingly, the law gives separate names to these religious bodies (the above-listed Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations and religious organizations belonging to Christianity and other faiths) to place a certain demarcation between them. However, in contrast to the old regulations which spoke of the religion "other than Shintoism and Buddhism," the new law names Christianity as a religious organization.

3. Establishment of the religious organizations prescribed in the law must obtain official recognition of the competent Minister in the case of the first three groups mentioned in Paragraph 2, or that of the Prefectural Governor in the case of individual temples or churches. Official recognition shall be given only to those organizations that have good traditions and stand on sound foundations, spiritual and material, and make laudable contributions to the nation and to society. The State undertakes to give protection and award special privileges to the religious organizations thus recognized.

According to the proposed law, for example, (1) the privilege of exemption from the income tax, which was hitherto enjoyed only by Buddhist temples, shall be extended to all other religious organizations; (2) the land tax shall not be levied, in principle, on the precincts of temples and churches; (3) the local surtaxes shall not be levied on the income of religious organizations as well as similar taxes on the precincts or buildings of temples and churches which are

already exempted; (4) the privilege of being exempt from registration fees shall be extended to the registration of the precincts and buildings of temples and churches; and (5) attachments on the buildings or their lots which are used for public worship by the organizations and on the treasures of temples and churches are, in principle, prohibited.

4. As to protection, the special provisions included in the new law for the creation of a juridical person by the religious organizations provides for a new method of protection.

At present Buddhist temples only are allowed to create such legal persons, although the provisions pertaining to legal persons in the civil code have rarely been applied to them. No regulation exists for the creation of a juridical person by either Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations or Christian organizations.

The new law prescribes that Buddhist temples shall be juridical persons, and that Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations, Christian and other religious organizations and churches may be juridical persons. The law also contains many other provisions relative to this matter. With legal entity thus established, the organizations may be able to solve many of their financial problems and function in a less involved manner.

5. When they meet with bankruptcy, the religious legal bodies are to be dissolved just as secular corporations are, according to the law. But the dissolution of religious organizations merely on account of financial insolvency or acquirement of heavy debts, without taking into account their spiritual aims, origin, history, traditions and existing status, may appear unreasonable.

Accordingly, the proposed law, which may order dissolution of a religious organizations, makes a series of special provisions to ameliorate this situation. In case the organization becomes bankrupt, (1) the State may leave it as a recognized religious organization for the time being; (2) the competent Minister may cancel his recognition as such when he comes to the conclusion that the organization cannot be saved by any means; and (3) with the cancellation of recognition, dissolution may take effect.

These provisions may be described as legal grace granted to religious organizations in recognition of their spiritual nature. Application of legal measures

against a spiritual body only for secular reasons is contrary to the spirit of the new legislation.

6. The new law states that "the representatives (Sōdai) of the laymen shall assist the head monk or the superintendent of a temple or church in matters of administration." Formerly, the relations between spiritual leaders and the representatives of the believers were very harmonious and the latter were proud of being "great supporters" or "secular protectors" of the spiritual institutions and willingly lent their services to them. But the recent trend in and out of Buddhist temples demonstrates that this custom is on the wane. The insertion of this provision in the new law is aimed at the sound management of secular affairs indispensable to the existence of temples or churches. Harmony between a temple and its parishioners, in particular, is indispensable for the effective management of temple affairs and at the same time may give a spiritual basis to the dealings of members of communities among themselves.

7. The important protective measures and privileges given to religious organizations by the law, as outlined in foregoing paragraphs, are to be extended only to religious organizations and not to religious societies, as defined in Paragraph 1.

Application for establishment of a religious society must be made by a proper representative to the Prefectural Governor within two weeks of the founding. Neglect in this regard or the presentation of a false report is punishable by fine.

In regard to the formation of new religions or quasi-religious cults, this has hitherto been placed under the jurisdiction of the police. But in view of the present state of ideological affairs, the new law assumes partial jurisdiction and applies to such religions those regulations concerning application for recognition and other conditions specially prescribed for the supervision of the religious societies, with the purpose of halting the unworthy ones in the bud or fostering the worthy ones to healthy growth. According to the provisions of the proposed law, a way is opened to the religious societies to advance to the status of religious organizations.

The inclusion of these societies in the Law for Control of Religious Organizations may be criticized as incongruous.

But it is a matter of no little importance in encouraging the general growth of religions that the law gives them a place side by side the major religious organizations defined in Paragraph 2 and affords them the opportunity of raising their status.

8. The new law includes many regulations for supervision over religious organizations and societies, but reference here shall be limited only to those which have relation to Article 28 of the Constitution of the Japanese Empire.

Article 28 states; "Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief." Thus, although the Government has been empowered to resort to any means of restraining against the deeds of religious believers prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to their duties as subjects, no special regulations have been enforced to this effect.

The new law provides measures of restraint against religious preaching, rituals or conducts contrary to the prohibition clauses of Article 28 of the Constitution, giving the competent Minister power to cancel the official recognition of the establishment of religious organizations.

9. According to the provisions of the new law, religious groups may appeal to or sue the courts for redress against unreasonable decisions on the part of supervising authorities. This is a new feature in religious regulations in Japan. Where (1) the recognition of the establishment of the religious body is cancelled; where (2) preaching, rituals or other religious functions are restricted or prohibited as prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to the duties of the members as subjects of the Empire; and where (3) their conducts are ordered to cease or are prohibited as detrimental to

public welfare, the aggrieved group or individual in the group may appeal for redress. Religious organizations who feel that their rights have been injured by the alleged unlawful cancellation of recognition or establishment may appeal to the Court of Administrative Litigation.

10. After legal organization of the religious organizations is completed and their finances are stabilized according to the law, the greatest problem connected with their activities is the human problem of obtaining the fittest persons for preaching and execution of rituals so that their faiths may be spread among the people and their organizations gain spiritual influence in society. The ability of these ecclesiastical leaders (the new law designates them as "teachers") bears direct consequence on the success of the religious organizations.

The new law, however, includes no provision for fixing the qualifications of the religious teachers and leaves the matter to the private regulations of the different bodies themselves, not from any neglect of the importance of the problem but to avoid possible friction with the traditional usages of different bodies which have their own individual standards, differing from those of other groups in doctrines, creeds, history and traditions. Any unification of such qualifications throughout different religious bodies may be considered an interference with their free religious activities and might, in the end, "kill the bull to strengthen its horns," as a Chinese proverb relates.

Many other important matters exist which the new law leaves untouched solely because the State wishes to respect the self-government of each religious organization and refrain from bringing different religious bodies under a single sweeping standardization.

New Order of Buddhism and Renaissance of Shinto

Introduction Not since 551 A.D. when the seeds of Buddhism were sown in the soil of this country has Buddhism in Japan been hit so hard as it is today by the storm of nationalism, except at the beginning of the Meiji Restoration (1868).

It is true that the persecution in the first years of Meiji, sent all Buddhists in the land staggering into their hiding places as their temples were burnt by

mobs and the images of the Buddha and Bodhisattvas were destroyed by excited crowds fanned by a bunch of so-called super-patriots.

Yet the followers of Buddha somehow managed to weather the storm by maintaining that Buddhism, although alien in its origin, was in perfect harmony with the national polity. Abruptly, priests embarked upon various social and educational undertakings to divert

the attention of these champions of nationalism to whose eyes everything foreign was detrimental to the maintenance of the prestige and purity of the nation.

Dark clouds had been hanging low over the world of religion in Japan as if to warn the men of Buddhist faith, who had been leading a soft and easy-going life after the termination of the Buddhist persecution toward the end of the first decade of Meiji. The outbreak of the China Affair signalled the outbreak of the storm. The storm reached its climax in the latter part of 1940, and it is not likely to stop unless the world of Buddhism is completely cleansed of the dust piled upon for the past 60 years.

The Education Ministry openly announced its plan regarding the establishment of a new order in the country's religious world as in the fields of politics and economics in October 1940. The officials of the Bureau of Religious Education expressed hope that every denomination of Buddhism would take steps immediately to reform itself so as to meet the requirements of the times.

High priests of every sect hurriedly set to work and held conferences day and night in order to discuss first of all the amalgamation of the numerous branch-sects, in accordance with the principle laid down by the Education Ministry, "One Founder, One Sect."

However, the task of making large denominations absorb small ones was not so easy as generally expected, even with the authority of abbots and the power of the Education Ministry.

First of all, the relationship between a sect and its branch-sects is not like that between a business corporation and its subsidiaries. Although the main and branch sects worship the same founder in most cases, their cardinal doctrines vary based on the different interpretations placed on the founder's teachings.

From October 1940 to March 1941, the whole order of Buddhism in Japan was aflame with heated and endless debates over the advisability of merging branch-sects with main ones. By September 1941, the merger of 29 branch sects was completed, reducing the number of branch sects in Japan from 56 to 27. It was the most epoch-making event which took place in the annals of Japanese Buddhism since its

transmission from China via Korea in 552 A.D.

Commenting on the movement to set up a new order in Buddhism, Tokujī Sato, a noted scholar of Buddhist philosophy and admirer of Dogen, the founder of the Soto Zen Buddhism in Japan bluntly declared in his article published by the Asahi in March 1941: "To place the existing Buddhist order on a new set-up is like putting an aged man, wearing an armor on a high-spirited horse. It is all well for him to ride a horse to make a rush for a new goal, but before reaching the goal, the rider might succumb to the weight of his armor."

"One may know the outline of Buddhism by studying books, but the Buddhism that breathes the breath of Sakyamuni and beats with the heart of that Indian sage is not found in the sacred scriptures written in Sanskrit or Pali. As Buddha once said, a man who tries to see Buddha in color, in form, and in words, will never see him."

"The real Buddhism is in the practice of what Buddha taught. One important end of Buddhism is to discover the meaning of new life and find new values. The leaders of various Buddhist sects in Japan today seem to have no ambition to build an ideal country in the minds of themselves and their followers. The only thing they seem to do is to cling fast to their parishners for the support of their living and for the maintenance of their temples."

Ataru Ishimitsu, a noted commentator on religion said: "The merging of one branch sect with another or the elimination of a third, will not serve to pave the way for a new order in Buddhism. On the contrary, it may kill off the very life of Japanese Buddhism. The real end of the establishment of a new order in Japanese Buddhism, it is clear, lies not in the merger or the elimination of branch sects, but in the renovation of the life of Buddhist priests and monks."

New Order of Buddhism (1) Merger of Branch Sects of Buddhism. It was in October 1940, the third year of the start of the China Affair, that the Government openly announced its deliberated plan to introduce a new order in Buddhism in Japan. The officials of the Bureau of Religion of the Education Ministry declared that all branch sects of Buddhism should be merged together just as the financial, industrial, and commercial corporations

had done in order to meet the requirements of the times.

Responding to the call of the Government, the leaders of all Buddhist sects in Japan held a conference in Tokyo on the 27th of the month to study the concrete measures to be taken by them for the amalgamation of sub-sects.

In view of the important nature of the conference, Vice Minister of Education Toyosaburo Kikuchi, and the directors of the Bureau of Religion and the Religious Section of the same Ministry attended the conference to explain the intention of the Government with respect to the unification of branch sects to the delegates from 13 large denominations.

The Vice Minister of Education told the delegates that all Buddhist priests in Japan should awaken to the gravity of the situation in which Japan is finding itself today, and that as the time to register the constitution and covenants of each sect under the provisions of the Religious Bodies Law was fixed at the end of March 1941, every sect had to make preparations for it.

After listening to the speeches by these officials in which they emphasized the dire necessity to merge various sub-sects together to pave the way for a new order in Japanese Buddhism the representatives of the 13 sects including the famous scholar Rev. Daijo Tokiwa of the Ofani branch sect of Jodo Shin Sect, Rev. Ryochu Shiotori of Tendai Sect and Rev. Kozui Gasan of the Soto branch sect of Zen, agreed to take steps immediately in the direction marked by the Government.

They also declared that all Buddhist sects in Japan should take advantage of the enforcement of the Religious Bodies Law to create a new order in the Buddhist world, and carry on an intense drive for patriotism in the heart of its believers.

Soon 180,000 priests, monks, and nuns in 70,000 temples and monasteries of 13 sects started moving toward the goal designated by the Government.

The Nichiren Sect, the denomination which was born and reared in this land unlike most other sects, and which has strong nationalistic and even militant color, led the procession, followed by the Shingon Sect, one of the oldest sects in Japan, founded in the first years of the ninth century by Kukai, better known as "Kobo Daishi." Not falling far behind them, the Rinzaï Zen

Sect rose from the seat of meditation, and began to shake all sectarian elements off its body. Within a short period, 13 sub-sects of Rinzaï became one denomination.

At about the same time, three groups of the Seizan branch sects of the Jodo Sect were swiftly moving toward amalgamation, and the time finally ripened for the Tendai Sect to attempt a merger of its sub-sects.

While most denominations were steadily marching on in the same direction, the Soto Sect, one of the largest denominations in Japan failed to fall in line with them. The long standing conflict between the Eihei-ji and the Sojiji factions which originated from the scramble for the leadership of the sect flared up again with the Education Ministry officials expressing the opinion that those belonging to the Eihei-ji faction ought to occupy better seats in the sect, because the Eihei-ji Temple is the one built by Dogen, the founder of the sect whereas Sojiji is a temple founded by Dogen's disciple. For a time, the independence of these groups as the Eihei-ji Sect and the Sojiji Sect seemed unavoidable. But finally a compromise was made just in time to register at the Education Ministry on March 31.

As a result of this drive for amalgamation of sub-sects by the Education Ministry's order, the number of sub-sects of the 13 Buddhist sects in Japan was reduced to 27 from 56 by the beginning of April. However, the 13 main sects remained unchanged, which are in the chronological order as follows:

Name of Sect	Founder	Time of Establishment
1 Hosso	Doshō	574 A.D.
2 Kegon	Dosen	736
3 Ritsu	Kanjōn	754
4 Tendai	Saichō	788
5 Shingon	Kūkai	806
6 Yuzu-nenbutsu	Ryonin	1117
7 Jodo	Genku	1175
8 Rinzaï	Eisai	1191
9 Shin	Shinran	1224
10 Soto	Dogen	1227
11 Nichiren	Nichiren	1253
12 Ji	Chishin (Ippen)	1275
13 Obaku	Ryūki (Ingen)	1654

(2) Enforcement of the Religious Bodies Law. The Religious Bodies Bill passed the 74th session of the Diet in 1939 with some difficulty after being

shelved a few times in the preceding sessions of the Diet. The law was enforced in April 1940, requiring all religious bodies in Japan to send in the necessary documents for registration to the Bureau of Religion of the Education Ministry by the end of March 1941.

Although the enforcement of the law is not likely to cause radical changes in the traditional Japanese manner of worship of Buddha, it is evident that the law is aimed to put the various sects and sub-sects of Buddhism in order once and for all as well as to make them serve the ultimate end of the State by placing their activities under the control of the Government.

As a matter of fact, the activities of Buddhist denominations in Japan have been left almost unchecked by the Government for more than 60 years since the beginning of the Meiji Era. The Governments in the periods of Meiji and Taisho showed no particular enthusiasm for establishing definite policies for religious administration.

It was not until the spread with incredible speed of the treasonous, superstitious and immoral teachings of Omoto-kyo and Hitonomichi-kyo whose founders were convicted of Lese-majeste, and of attacking a daughter of one of his followers respectively among the credulous people of this country in the first years of the Showa Era that the Government was alarmed. It was not until the outbreak of the present China Affair that the Government began to take up seriously the matter concerning religion, and think of the utilization of the influence of Buddhism for the defense of the country from the spiritual point of view.

Another object of the enforcement of the law, therefore, is the elimination of all superstitious beliefs by preventing the association of people who might propagate unsound religious doctrines and do queer things in the name of Buddha or God which are detrimental to the maintenance of peace and order of society.

Concerning this, Article 16 of the law stipulates that if and when the propagation of doctrines by religious bodies or by the preachers appointed by the bodies, and the religious rituals and ceremonies to be conducted by the bodies and the preachers are found detrimental to the maintenance of peace and order, and contrary to the duties of Japanese subjects, the competent

Minister shall restrict or prohibit the propagation of such doctrines and the performance of such rituals, and ceremonies and revoke his approval once given for the formation of such bodies.

Before the enforcement of this law, the Government, as a matter of policy, avoided to interfere with the activities of sects, and the happenings within sects as much as possible, and entrusted to the head priests of sects the task of controlling all affairs concerning their denominations.

This rather indifferent attitude of the Government toward the Buddhist denominations, however, is to be abandoned according to the provisions of Articles 17, which stipulates that if and when religious bodies violate the laws of the State or the constitutions of sects and the regulations governing sects and temples, or act in a manner harmful to the public good, the competent Minister may, according to his discretion, prohibit or restrict the activities of such bodies.

(3) Activities of the International Buddhist Society in 1940-41. Amid the upheaval and twists and turns in the world of faith all through the period between the closing months of 1940 and the summer of 1941, the International Buddhist Society headed by Dr. Tetsujiro Inoue, one of the foremost authorities of Buddhism in Japan, kept its head cool, and carried out numerous undertakings, contributing greatly toward the better understanding of the teachings of Buddha by the Occidental minds.

Besides publishing books and magazines on Buddhism in English and other European languages and inviting the students of Buddhism in America and Europe to this country, the society made extra efforts during the period to bring together the Mahayana Buddhists in Japan with the Hinayana Buddhists in French Indo-China, Thailand, Burma and India, by introducing the particular faith and customs of these southern Buddhists to the people of this country, and demonstrating, in turn, the accumulated assets of the Mahayana Buddhism in Japan to the people of the Hinayana countries through movies, photographs and publications.

Apparently, the society's activities in this new field were accelerated as the national interest in the southern regions gradually deepened as a result of the developments of the China Affair.

and as the number of American and European students of Buddhism visiting the Orient gradually diminished due to the aggravation of international relations.

Under the auspices of the society, meetings were held from time to time in Tokyo in 1940, for the study of the history of Hinayana Buddhism in the southern regions as well as the current activities of Hinayana Buddhism.

The Pali Language School was established by the society on April 8, 1941, with Indian monks and Japanese scholars on Pali in its faculty staff.

Crowning the activities to bridge the space between the Mahayanists of Japan and the Hinayanists of French Indo-China, Thailand, Burma, and India, Vesak, a Hinayana festival to commemorate the birth and death of Buddha, and to celebrate his attainment of Buddhahood, was held at the Hibiya Public Hall, Tokyo on July 5, 1941, before an audience of 3,000 spectators.

The ceremony was officiated by the Indian monk Rashtrapal Shandilyayana, sutras were chanted in Pali, and lectures were given by Dr. Inoue, president of the society and Dr. Nobumi Ito, president of the Board of Information to the audience among which were the Turkish Ambassador, the Mexican, Greek, and Panamanian Ministers, and other distinguished members of the diplomatic corps in Tokyo.

It was the first time in the history of Japan that the Hinayana festival was celebrated with such grandeur in this land of Mahayana Buddhism.

No less important was the publication of various books on Buddhism by the society. The 3rd volume of Studies on Buddhism in Japan was published in the summer of 1941, a collection of essays in English, French, German, and Sanskrit, written by Dr. Hakuju U, professor of Tokyo Imperial University, and the foremost authority on Indian philosophy in the world today and other Buddhist scholars in Japan.

Other publications include the Awakening to the Truth in English, The Japanese Spirit and Buddhism in Siamese in 1941, and Master Honen, the Luther of Japan in English in 1940.

Renaissance of Shinto (1) The Rise of Nationalism and Shinto. The heyday for Shinto came in the wake of China Affair. The start of a war between Japan and China in 1937 was followed

by waves of nationalism which pushed all alien elements before them, and washed clean the whole structure of Shinto.

Patriots from all sections of national life have solemnly declared that if the Japanese could understand Shinto clearer the national polity would be clarified and the morale of the nation will be enhanced further.

The Government has borrowed the phrase "Hakko Ichiu" the literal meaning of which is "The eight corners of the universe under one roof" from an old Shinto book to explain the object of the Holy War, and commentators, columnists and newspaper editors have demanded all people to look back to Shinto upon which the Japanese Empire was founded some 2,600 years ago.

For several months before and after the creation of the Board of Shinto by the Government in December 1940, all newspapers and magazines lavished ink upon the printing of the articles explaining the origin and history of Shinto and the inseparable relations between it and the national life.

Despite its having been born in the soil of Japan, Shinto has not been able to hold a strong sway over the masses as Buddhism has for the most part of Japan's 2,600 years of history. Shinto, it seems, has been standing aloof from the life of the people. Except for the grand festivals in spring and autumn, Shinto priests did not come in close contact with common people while the followers of Buddha tried hard to win the hearts of the majority by giving food to the poor, providing the sick with medicine, and praying for the dead.

Shinto remained quiet and inactive until the last days of the Tokugawa Shogunate when an attempt to restore it was made by Hirata Atsutane, a disciple of Motoori Norinaga, the greatest scholar of classic national literature and Shinto philosophy of the day.

The movement to revive Shinto ran side by side with the persecution of Buddhists. It was at this time that a great number of priests, monks, and nuns were murdered, the images of Buddha burnt and temples destroyed.

With the arrival of the Meiji Renovation, the Government took a hand in restoring Shinto, and in the first year of Meiji, a Shinto office was established by the Government.

For a time, Shinto prospered, but for

some reason or other, its influence over the people of this country began to decline between 1874 and 1876 and held but a rather obscure position in the spiritual world of this country until the start of the present China Affair.

Buddhism's mishap has always Shinto's opportunity. While Buddhists were plunged into great confusion in 1940 by the Government's order to weed out insignificant sub-sects, various Shinto sects recovered their lost territories. Riding high on the waves of nationalism, learned Shinto priests knocked the door of journalism to advocate the practice of Misogi, a time-honored Shinto rite, for the purification of the nation's mind and body so that they can clearly see the original figure of the Japanese people.

(2) The Misogi Movement. With the beginning of 1941, the impact of the war in China and Europe was felt heavier by the public. The Government felt more keenly the importance of the national unity. It, then, took up the antique Shinto practice of Misogi, examined it closely, and discovered that it could serve the immediate purpose of the Government to awaken the public to the gravity of the situation at home and abroad.

In the early months of the year, Misogi became the most absorbing topic at dinner tables; newspapers and magazines devoted much of their space for the discussion of that Shinto rite of ablution; heated verbal war was waged between those for and those against it, rivetting the eyes of the whole nation on the subject.

The people at large hardly reached a general conclusion on the problem when retired generals and admirals, nationally known politicians and businessmen, high Government officials, and even college and university professors and a few writers jumped into the cold water in early spring to realize the "Way of the gods preserved from time immemorial."

The literal meaning of the word "Misogi" is "Purification of one's body by water." According to some Shinto scholar, Misogi has its origin in the pre-historic days. Tradition says that Izanagi-no-mikoto took a bath in the streams of a river in the Tsukushi Province, Kyushu, to cleanse his body of impurities after returning from the world of death where he had met his dead consort Izanami-no-mikoto.

There is a definite method of practicing Misogi. The rite begins with Amano-torifune, a sort of warming-up exercise — a series of bodily movements closely resembling the motions of rowing a boat. This the modern Shintoists interpret as representing the coming of Yamato ancestors across the sea to this land thousands of years ago regarded as the forefathers of the present-day Japanese. Next comes the most essential part of the rite, Misogi, in which one stands or sits in a stream, river or in the sea with the water coming up to one's neck. For about five minutes one stays submerged in this fashion, calling loudly the holy names of ancient gods.

The ablutions over, the physical jerks are conducted again on the banks of the river or on the shores of the sea before entering a Shinto house to perform "Furi-dama," literally the shaking of soul. The eyes are closed, and the hands lightly clasped in front of the chest are shaken down violently while each one is reciting the holy names of gods. Following the recitation of gods' names, they chant the words of Sun-goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the Imperial rescript on education granted by Emperor Meiji and the poems by the same Emperor—the epilogue of the rite.

During the seclusion period of Misogi, the participants get up at dawn and go into the water twice a day in the morning and in the afternoon before they retire at about nine o'clock at night.

They are not permitted to eat more than a bowl of rice porridge with salt sprinkled over it, and a piece of salted plum a day and are not allowed to drink intoxicants and smoke cigarettes during the whole period of training.

It would be no exaggeration to say that the Misogi movement swept throughout the country from the beginning of May to the end of August.

The first Misogi training on a large scale was held at Kugenuma, Fujisawa city, Kanagawa Prefecture for five days from May 24, 1941 under the auspices of the Central Spiritual Training Office of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association.

Sixty representatives of all prefectures in Japan except Okinawa Prefecture participated in it, dressed in white robes, and tried hard to grasp the spirit of Japan in its purest form through this antique ritual of Shinto.

INDIGENIZING TRENDS IN JAPANESE CHRISTIANITY

Introductory The creation of an independent, self-supporting and self-propagating church in Japan was, from the beginning of Christian Missions, an axiomatic objective of all true missionaries and their converts. This objective had gradually been achieved more or less by individual Christian churches, notably by those of the larger Protestant denominations in the country. But with the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident of 1931 when Japan had to withdraw from the League of Nations to follow her independent course and with the increasing aggravation of the Sino-Japanese Conflict which had to be conducted against the French-Anglo-American policies in China, the entire Christian churches in Japan, influenced by these national and international movements, became manifestly conscious that they must be firmly planted in the soil of the country as a constituent part of its life and culture. This process of indigenization in Japanese Christendom, accelerated by the further world-wide political and economic tensions, the consequent exodus from the country of Anglo-American Protestant missionaries within the past few years, and by the enactment of the Religious Organizations Law which went into effect April 1940, was briefly traced, for the year July 1940 to June 1941, in the last issue of the Japan Year Book. What follows is an outline statement of the increasing indigenization process, during the year under review, July 1941 to June 1942, concurrent with the extension of the China Affair into the colossal War of Greater East Asia, within the principal Christian bodies in Japan, particularly those of Protestant affiliation.

The Greek Orthodox Church This Church commenced its work in Northern Japan by the famous Bishop Nicolai in 1859, who at his death in 1912 was succeeded in the work by Bishop Selgie. In 1917 at the time of the Communist Revolution, the church was forced to become financially independent of Russian support and had since been carrying on its work quite successfully under the able leadership of the new Bishop Selgie. He in 1940, to be in line with the New National Structure under the growing emergency, resigned his position to be filled by a Japanese bishop. Over the question of having a Japanese Father as its bishop, the church was

divided into a conservative and a reform parties. After many months of disagreement between the two parties, the question was finally settled by the intervention of the Educational Ministry of the Japanese Government and Father Kiiichi Ono of the conservative party, who had been ordained to the bishopric April 1941 in Harbin, was formally recognized as Bishop of the church at its special General Assembly July 1941 with the understanding that Shintaro Fujihira of the reform party also be ordained a bishop of the Orthodox Communion. Owing, however, to the entangled feeling between the two parties, he has not yet been ordained to its bishopric. Because of the unhealed schism in this church, it has not been able, to date, to obtain an official recognition of the Government under the Religious Organizations Law. Consequently the Greek Catholic Communion has decided to have its churches to secure their individual recognitions by the prefectural governments for the time being, hoping on the other hand to obtain a legal recognition from the Central Government in a near future. In the meanwhile this Catholic body, with 184 churches having a total membership of 41,251 communicants, headed practically by Bishop Ono and his immediate associates and the local priests under him, is conducting its ordinary work and is endeavoring to make itself naturalized to the soil of Japan. This church since the beginning of the work in 1859 had for its principal leaders the only two missionaries, Bishops Nicolai and Selgie, the rest of its workers being Japanese nationals, and so it has been largely Japanese controlled and propagative, especially so with the resignation of Bishop Selgie at which its official relation with the Central Russian Church came to an end. As the financial support of the church from foreign sources was discontinued in 1917, it was one of the first Christian communions in Japan to become self-supporting in its work. This does not, of course, mean that the church is financially strong; on the contrary it has to struggle hard to hold its own, burdened with the unhealed schism and the economic pressure of the times, while working earnestly in cooperation with the other Christian bodies to further the accomplishment of the purposes of the Japanese Government in the China Affair and the Greater East Asia War. Notwithstanding

the church has not secured its official recognition of the Government to date, its main efforts are being directed toward becoming fully autonomous and self-propagating in conformity with the requirements of the Government under war, thus to be a real part and parcel of the life of the Japanese nation.

The Roman Catholic Church The Church of Rome has the honor of first introducing Christianity into Japan through the great Jesuit missionary, Francis Xavier in the middle of the 16th century. Phenomenal success was achieved by him and his fellow missionaries in converting many local princes and their subjects, especially in Southwest Japan. However, under the Shogunate government, Christianity became a forbidden religion and severe persecutions followed, practically exterminating it from the country. With the opening of the nation in 1858, Catholic missionaries returned and the resurrection of the church was effected. Since then it has been making steady progress in a very quiet way, reaching various classes of the people through its religious, educational, social, and publicational work, mainly under the direction of foreign missionaries and by liberal contributions from foreign sources; and it has today 231 parishes with a membership of 117,760 believers, 16 bishops, 311 foreign and 147 Japanese priests, 126 foreign and 152 Japanese brothers, and 507 foreign 772 Japanese nuns, showing a considerable power of foreign control in the work of the church (with the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, the Roman Catholic missionaries, about 160, from the Anti-Axis countries are not allowed to do their religious services, being interned at their homes or in special places). Up to the summer of 1941, all of the 15 dioceses of the church in Japan except those of Tokyo and Nagasaki had foreign bishops; the parishes, schools and other institutions were under the control of foreign priests and workers. In response to the requirements of the New National Structure and with the recognition of the church under the Religious Organizations Law in 1941, a revolutionary change was made in its organization and management. Archbishop Tatsuo Doi, who had been elevated to this high position by the Holy See Dec. 3, 1937, was recognized by the Government as Official Head, "Tōrisha," of the church. All the heads

of the dioceses are Japanese Bishops, being appointed to the positions not by the Vatican as hitherto but by Archbishop Doi. He and the diocesan Bishops form a kind of a synod which controls the entire work of the church. In this way the Catholic church in Japan has no organizational relation with Rome except "a spiritual relation." There is a considerable number of foreign priests and workers but they are now under the control of Archbishop Doi and his Japanese associates. Moreover, at the General Assembly held in summer 1941, the church declared itself independent of foreign support. Up till then the church was receiving large sums of foreign aid; since then all the work was to be carried on by the contributions of its communicants who had not given previously as liberally as they might because of the foreign support. The financial independence of the church is held to be not difficult of achievement. (It is said that the foreign workers connected with the church are supported by some special funds held by the Catholic Church in the Orient). Further, the Catholic church in Japan has been in complete agreement with the spirit and ideals of the New National Structure as well as with the purposes of the China Affair and the War of Greater East Asia as held by the Japanese Government. The Roman Church, being catholic, has quite a power of adaptatoin to the needs and aspirations of the countries in which it works. In the matter of creeds it is said to be uncompromising but with respect to their propagation the church adapts itself to local and national conditions. In the constitution of the Catholic church in Japan as recognized under the Religious Organizations Law, we read the following statement of its creed and on the method of propagating it to the people:

Art. VI. The Creed

1. We believe in God the creator.
2. We believe in the unity and trinity of God.
3. We believe in Jesus Christ, born savior of the world, as the second person of the trinity.
4. We believe in the resurrection of the body and in eternal life.

Art. X. Propagation of the Articles of Faith

The propagation of faith shall be done in conformity with the Way of the Imperial Nation so as to give to

its people sound faith and to have them practise their duties as loyal subjects to the Imperial Throne.

In accordance with the Article X, the Catholic church in Japan distinctly avows to order its believers to be faithful subjects of the Japanese Empire; and to put this aim into effect, this church, on September 4, 1941, organized "The Board of War-time Service," which was later enlarged with the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, ordering all its members to serve the nation in every possible way. In this and in the other respects already indicated, the Roman Catholic church in Japan is becoming quite indigenous to the land and it is becoming so by converting families and even larger groups (some villages and towns, for example, in Nagasaki Prefecture are Catholic) into its faith and urging them to be true citizens of the nation, thus erasing the odium once put upon the church as being alien and inimical to the country.

The United Church of Christ in Japan Its Organizational Development. The historic meeting of founding a union Protestant church in Japan was held in Tokyo, June 24-25, 1941, attended by 300 delegates, representing the 11 blocs comprising 34 denominations with a membership of 260,000 believers and 3,500 ministers and evangelists; and the church became a fact in the history of Christianity in this country. The organization of the united Protestant church as founded embraces three divisions, the central, regional, and local church divisions. The central division consists of a council and an executive committee representing the 11 blocs, headed by the Torisha, the official head of the church. It has 8 boards, that is, on General Affairs, Evangelism, Sunday School, Education, Finance, Woman's Work, Social Welfare, and Publication, each organized with respective committees. Japan proper and Chosen and Taiwan are divided into 11 Kyoku, regional sections, with necessary committees headed by their respective chairmen. The local churches are headed by their respective pastors. All the officers and committees for the united church have been appointed and every division is fully organized. The church thus founded and organized is not a completely united church; it is a kind of federal union consisting of the 11 blocs, each retaining more or less its former denominational characteristics.

Because of the existence of such blocs and of other minor considerations, the new church was unable to obtain official recognition under the Religious Organizations Law soon after its organization in June 1941, as it was hoped. The government authorities urged for a complete amalgamation of the blocs at once, while the church leaders felt that they would have to continue several years for the adjustment of their respective organizational, financial and other important matters before they could be completely merged into a real union. After four months of constant negotiations with the government authorities, the final agreements between them and the church leaders on certain changes in the constitution of the church, especially on the existence of the bloc system for the time being, were reached with the understanding that the system of blocs should not exist indefinitely for years, but the phrase "time being" was to mean not more than three years from the time of recognition; and formal recognition of the new Church of Christ in Japan was granted on November 24, 1941, by the Educational Ministry of the Government under the Religious Organizations Law and Rev. Mitsuru Tomita, of the former Japan Presbyterian Church, was legally recognized as official head of the new church on the same day. All who had been following with keen interest the developments for church union greatly rejoiced over the official recognition under the new law. Freedom of religious belief is guaranteed by the Constitution of the Japanese Empire and Christianity is recognized as one of the three religions of the country in the Religious Organizations Law; but the newly organized Japan Christian church, so far as the Christian Religion is concerned, is the second body to receive legal recognition under the law. Such recognition means, no doubt, a great privilege for the church but it also signifies its serious duty. It has to become a really united church, discarding all denominational differences which are unnecessary foreign importations; it has to be a part of the very life of the people in order to function as a vital element in the nation. In the manner of its growth and in the matter of its outward organization, the church is quite native to the soil of Japan; and there is every reason to believe that it will be completely united in a very near future even before the expiration of the three

years of grace because the pressure not only from the outside but from within the blocs require it. This was voiced by M. Tomita at his inauguration as Head of the new church, held on February 7, 1942, in Tokyo when he urged in his address that the church must first of all be one in organization and in faith at an earliest possible date to meet the pressing needs of the time. When a complete union of the blocs is effected, the new church would have realized the great desideratum in its organizational development, thereby responding to the call of the nation under the growing emergency.

Activities of the United Church Among the activities of this church the following may be mentioned:

The Holding of a Retreat at Kutsukake. To unify and to mobilize the forces of the newly united church, it was felt very imperative that they should get together for mutual fellowship and spiritual communion in an unhurried conference. To this end, soon after the founding of the United Church, an important retreat was held under the auspices of its Board of Evangelism at Kutsukake, near the famous summer resort, Karuzawa, on August 26 to 29, attended by about 50 of the outstanding leaders of the new church, including many of the newly appointed chairmen of the regional conferences. They considered the various problems of nationwide evangelism and sought for spiritual insight in guiding and directing the new church in this field of its work. A vital sense of responsibility and reconsecration in view of the great tasks confronting the church characterized the discussions and addresses of the four-day conference. The prominent speakers at the conference were Rev. Tameichi Kanai, Chairman of the Board of Evangelism, Dr. Toyohiko Kagawa, and Mr. Jiro Fukui, a famous Japanese missionary to Chinese in North China under the East Asia Evangelistic Society founded in 1933 by the late General Hibiki of Japan. The spirit and aim of the conference was reflected in Dr. Kagawa's words at the meeting: "Now that the Church of Christ in Japan has been realized, the thing which concerns me most deeply is what kind of a message we have for the masses of the people throughout the country. What is our task? . . . The task facing the church as it launches out on its great mission

is to introduce to the Japanese people the Savior of the Cross. This is the only means whereby this or any other nation in this suffering world can regain its life. Without this there is no hope." The character of the conference was also portrayed in the following message it sent to all the churches in Japan: "We are profoundly convinced that the Church of Christ in Japan was established under God's special providence at this time of national emergency in order to Christianize the Fatherland. Let us therefore prayerfully avail ourselves of this opportunity, aggressively strengthen the evangelistic front and strive to realize an epoch-making advance on the part of our churches." Those present at the retreat left it all inspired, reconsecrated and resolved to undertake the great tasks of the new church. A similar retreat was held again early August 1942.

Nation-wide Evangelistic Campaign. Among the various activities of the United Church, none is more important than evangelism. The population of Japan proper is approximately 75,000,000 of which Christians of all communions number less than 400,000. Christian churches and institutions are found in many places of the country; but there are scores of regions untouched by the Gospel. These untouched areas must be reached by Christianity, not to speak of the need of strengthening the existing churches and organizations. The new church was keenly aware of this fact from its very beginning and shortly after its organization adopted, under its Board of Missions, a comprehensive plan for nation-wide evangelism, embracing such matters as the appointment of special evangelistic speakers, organization of evangelistic teams, use of religious films by the evangelistic teams, organization of prayer groups of all sorts, holding of training conferences for Christians in each prefecture, holding of conferences for the promotion of self-support, organization of city and rural evangelistic campaigns, literature evangelism and the promotion of medical evangelism. Many of these matters have been put into effect. Able speakers of wide fame as Dr. Kagawa, Rev. Kanai and others have been secured. They have been conducting evangelistic campaigns, since the fall of 1941, throughout the length and breadth of the country, under the direction of the Central Board of Missions in close co-

peration with the regional sections (Kyoku), reaching thousands of people and winning many to Christ (according to reports for the first six months of 1942, they have spoken to 53,000 people and won 300 converts, which is an encouraging result under the existing emergency).

The church is also fully awakened to its great responsibility of Gospel service on the Asiatic Continent with the growing China Affair; and with the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, it feels its mission to the South Sea Islands and peoples. Several steps have already been taken in this direction. It is quite probable that the work of the East Asia Evangelistic Society in China and that of the South Seas Evangelistic Society will be transferred to the foreign section of the new church's Board of Missions.

The Merging of Protestant Magazines

The question of merging magazines and papers published by the blocs constituting the new church was taken up with its organization. A first merger of the three papers belonging to the blocs, 2, 3, 4, former Methodist, Congregational and Baptist bodies respectively, was effected at the end of 1941 and the first number of the merged weekly paper under the name, *The Christian World*, was published in the first week in January 1942. Simultaneously with the merging of the above papers, there was brought about a merger of several Sunday School magazines into one monthly magazine, "*The S. S. Teacher's Friend*" and its first number appeared also in January 1942. A further merging of other Protestant papers and magazines has been urgently discussed under the auspices of the Board of Publication of the new church by those concerned; and a tentative plan arrived at by the Board with them embraces the following 8 kinds of papers and magazines: one monthly organ for the United Church which is now being published under the title "*The Church Bulletin*"; two weeklies, one for the blocs 1 to 5 (former Presbyterian, Methodist, Congregational, Baptist and Lutheran bodies) and the other for the blocs 6 to 11 (former Sei Kyokwai—a Holiness branch,—Japan Evangelistic Christian Church, Japan Holy Church, Kiyome Kyokwai—a Holiness branch,—Federated Independent Church, and Salvation Corps); the fourth is a bi-monthly paper for evangelistic purposes; the fifth is the present

"*The S. S. Teacher's Friend*"; the sixth is a Christian home journal; the seventh is a magazine for children; and the eighth is a journal of theological study combining several similar magazines now being published by different organizations. This plan is expected to be adopted and put into effect in a near future. These publications will then be all put under the management and control of the Publication Board of the new church, which can thereby unify the thoughts of its constituent bodies while presenting a united front along several lines of literary work to those outside the church.

New Church S. S. Board Incorporates Japan S. S. Ass'n. The Japan S. S. Association, which had rendered great service in the religious education of the youth in the Protestant churches during more than 35 years of its history, voted, at the 23rd convention held in Tokyo on December 1, 1941, to dissolve itself and to turn over its entire property and work to the S. S. Board of the United Church of Christ in Japan. The property of the Ass'n thus transferred to the new church consists, in part, of 227 tsubo of land in the central part of Tokyo, 353 tsubo of a re-enforced concrete building on it with necessary equipment, furnishings, and other accessories which will all be owned and used by the church as its headquarters. The work of the Ass'n will be carried on by the S. S. Board of the new church. The Board will have heavy responsibility in directing nearly 3,000 Protestant Sunday Schools with about 150,000 pupils. Fortunately it is well organized with able officers and secretaries and is already vigorously engaged in the work of religious education in close relation with local S. S. associations.

Efforts Toward United Theological Education The matter of theological education had been discussed intermittently for decades among all Protestant denominations because of the existence of too many ill-equipped inadequate seminaries with sectarian tendencies; but it had been very difficult to arrive at a unanimity of opinion on this subject. However, with the birth of the new united church, the question of theological education came to be taken up from a new angle. The church felt that it should maintain a theological seminary or seminaries of its own to train men for the work of the church. A special committee on theological

education was appointed simultaneously with the organization of the new church; it has since been constantly at work in consultation with the authorities of the Government; and it has reached a plan at its session in Tokyo on June 2, 1942. The plan reached calls for two men's theological seminaries, one for the Tokyo-Yokohama region and the other for the Kobe-Osaka-Kyoto region, of 6 year grade above the middle school, each with a 4-year special Biblical course, with a full Government recognition; and a similar theological institution in the Tokyo district for the training of women workers in the church. These theological institutions will be placed under the Educational Board of the new church. The plan will be submitted at the General Assembly of the church to be held in fall 1942 for its approval. When it is adopted and actually carried out, a great benefit will thereby be derived in the simplification and unification of theological education on a standard basis, fully competent to meet the requirements of the age and the work of the church.

Laymen's Financial Move for the Church Efficiently and properly to execute the varied work of the church, a staff of fully competent and highly trained men, needless to say, is required above all things. Next to this fundamental need, is the means to finance them and their work. With a distinct purpose of financing the newly organized united church, there was organized in Tokyo on September 17, 1941, "The Japan Christian Laymen's Association," which adopted three main objectives as follows:

1. To strive for the realization of perfect fusion and for the spirit of union within the newly united church.
2. To seek cooperation with the Christian churches of Manchoukuo, China and other lands.
3. To provide the necessary financial resources for the activities of the new church.

The purpose of the Association is clearly set forth in the following statement: "We are deeply moved by the fact that the Christian Churches of Japan have united and organized The Japan Christian Church. At this time when a new East Asian order is being established, this United Church becomes an organized force, re-enforcing the

nation spiritually in her mighty task. The future of the church is therefore pregnant with great possibilities.

"With indomitable determination the flag of evangelism has already been unfurled. A staff of trained and tried leaders has been secured. The organization of the new church has been perfected. A campaign of aggressive evangelism has been launched. It is our duty to see that those who are out on this evangelistic front are not burdened by unnecessary cares. We lay Christians have unexpectedly received a divine command to organize the Christian Laymen's Association in order to serve the united church through providing financial help, striving to realize a spirit of real union and cooperating with the Christian churches throughout the world."

The Association was fully organized with prominent laymen as its officers such as: for President, Dr. S. Uzawa, member of the House of Peers and President of Meiji University in Tokyo; for Vice-presidents, Mr. T. Matsuyama, member of the House of Representatives, Dr. T. Yamamoto, Dean Technical Department of Waseda University, and Mr. M. Toyama, another leading layman; and for Chairman of the Board of Trustees, Mr. T. Takahashi, General Secretary of the Japan Trade Association. The annual membership fee is 100 yen. The first general meeting of the Association, since its organization, was held in Tokyo on May 2, 1942, at which time it was reported that it had secured 75 members and received 12,000 yen for the church. Its initial aim is to enlist 500 members. Hitherto it has been working largely in Eastern Japan, but now it is extending its activities to other parts of the country, establishing branches in large cities. Indeed this organization of laymen is meeting an imperative need of the church. Many of the laymen already members of the Association are those who were in great favor for a united church and now this church is realized, and they are rallying to its support.

Protestant Organizations outside the United Church. Most of the Protestant denominations and some organizations have become included in the united church; but still there is quite a number especially of the latter category that are maintaining their separate existence and doing the work in their respective fields. Here we may mention a few of them.

The Japan Episcopal Church This church, having declined to be a part of the united Protestant church at its inaugural meeting, has since prepared its constitution and presented it to the Government for recognition but so far failed to secure it. Hence it has practically decided to have its churches to make preparations for securing individual recognitions from their respective prefectural governments. One of its churches in Arakawa Ward in Tokyo, named Shinai (Faith-Love) Church obtained its recognition from the Tokyo prefectural government on March 14, 1942; and the other churches of the communion are advised to follow the example of this church until the Episcopal denomination as such obtained Government recognition—which of course is quite doubtful. The Japanese Government is urging it to join the united church and many in the Episcopal communion want to follow the Government advice. But the communion still continues to remain outside the united church. In this the Episcopal church is taking a course contrary to the requirements of the New National Structure under emergency. In all other respects, however, the church is completely in agreement with all the policies of the Government. Since the fall of 1941, it became financially independent of foreign support and its positions of authority have all been filled by Japanese nationals including those of its Rikkyo University, St. Luke's Hospital (both in Tokyo) and other important institutions. Its bishops (now all Japanese) are constantly urging the believers to take their full material and spiritual share of the heavy national burden under the existing situation. Nevertheless it is greatly hoped that this denomination, which has 260 churches with 30,000 communicants and which is Protestant in origin and in essential character, shall soon be within the fold of the united church to perform the common tasks and duties in the nation.

The Japan 7th Day Adventist Church This church first came to Japan in 1896 and has since been carrying on evangelistic, educational, social work and has now 22 churches and 13 preaching places with a membership of 1,300 believers. It became completely independent of foreign support in March 1941 when its last missionary left Japan for America who was succeeded by a Japanese as head of the church. Because of its small

size, it cannot apply for Government recognition; its churches can apply only for their individual prefectural recognitions; and owing to its peculiar beliefs, it has to remain outside the united church. And yet it is endeavoring, as all other Christian communions, to make its contributions towards the needs of the nation.

The Japan Christian Educational Association This Association, organized some 30 years ago, has been a potent educational force in moulding the mind, the body and also the spiritual nature of thousands of youth in Japan. It represents approximately 100 institutions between university and middle-school grades with about 55,000 students. For special reasons, not, however, inimical to the new church, it has not as yet joined with it to become incorporated with its Board of Education. It has no property or other assets as such, but the schools, it represents, have resources of men and means. These educational institutions, being under direct control of the Government, are completely in harmony with its policies far more than other Christian bodies and institutions and are rendering great services to the nation. Unnecessary to say, they are Japanese controlled, managed, and maintained in every respect, particularly since the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia.

The Japan Bible Society and the Proposed Old Testament Revision The Society, the history of which goes back to more than 50 years, had been doing great work in spreading the knowledge of the Bible in close relation with the British and American Bible Societies, receiving considerable aid from them in matters financial and otherwise. The society had two branches, one in Tokyo and the other in Kobe, connected respectively with the American and British Bible societies. On account of the international tension, particularly of the freezing of Japanese assets by the United States and Great Britain in 1941, the society felt it wise to unify the organization and this become independent of foreign aid and control. So as a result of the action of its Board of Trustees on July 29, 1941, the society was reorganized to have a General Secretary for the Tokyo office and an ordinary secretary for the Kobe branch and to increase the number of maintenance members from 5 to 9, and so forth; and also to become

wholly independent of the foreign Bible societies. This step was taken by the society to be in line with autonomy policy of the new united church, though it did not vote at that time to be a part of the new church (The society has been publishing and distributing whole Bibles and its portions in large numbers. During the year 1939, it sold 827,417 copies of Bibles and portions and during the first half of 1940, 511,499 Bibles and portions). As a work commemorating the reorganization of the Society, it voted at the above trustees meeting to undertake a revision of the Japanese Old Testament. The present O. T. in Japanese was translated in 1887, based largely on the Chinese Bible, lacking in unity of style and in the use of words and the like; and so a need for its revisions had long been felt by O. T. scholars and others. The trustees appointed a committee of five to attend to the matter of revising the O. T. to meet the need. In Feb. 1942, the Society entrusted the revision to a central committee of six actually to undertake it. This committee has since been meeting every week and actual work of revising the O. T. is started and Japanese O. T. scholars are engaged in the work. It is to be completed within five years at a budget of about 65,000 yen.

The National Y.M.C.A. Council of Japan This Council, organized in 1903, having now under it 25 city and 160 student Y.M.C.As. in Japan proper and in Chosen and Taiwan, has been an important factor in the Christianization of the young people of the country. It was in full sympathy with the movement for a united church and intended to become a part of the church when it was realized, as indicated in the action taken by the Council on Sept. 9, 1940, namely: "The National Y.M.C.A. Council of Japan desires the establishment of a united church and when it becomes a fact, it will endeavor, by becoming a wing of the church, to be a spiritual propulsive power of it, in accordance with its traditional advocacy for cooperation among churches." But it has not, for some reasons, taken this action into effect in joining the united church. The council, however, is following the same policy of autonomy and independency as that of the united church. As a matter of fact, it achieved its autonomy even before some of the important Protestant bodies. Until recently it had an honorary foreign secretary; but now no such

personnel is connected with it. Moreover, it is intensely conscious of its responsibility to the nation under war and is attempting in every way to be one of its vital elements. Among its principles of action, we have the following: 1. We revere the Imperial Household, esteem the National Structure, and render loyalty to the Empire; 2. We follow the spirit of national foundation, and with mutual faith, love and cooperation, endeavor to exalt the Imperial Honor and establish world peace; and 3. We are determined, in the spirit of Christ, to cultivate faith, train the body and mind, and perform sincere services as good and loyal citizens of the Empire." As a practical demonstration of these principles, in addition to its services in the country, the Council has established and is maintaining four Y.M.C.A. organizations in Peking, Shanghai, Nanking and Canton, thereby contributing towards understanding between Japan and China from the Christian standpoint. For this work it has spent no less than 140,000 yen. Up to the end of 1941, in view of its cosmopolitan characteristics, the Japan Council was a member of the International Y.M.C.A. Council at Geneva. With the outbreak of the Second World War, the Y.M.C.A. Councils of Germany and Italy severed their relations with the Geneva Council. Now the War of Greater East Asia having been declared against America and England, the Y.M.C.A. Councils of which are the leading members of the International Council, the Council in Japan sees no reason for remaining in the Council at Geneva. As the result of its vote at the 42nd conference held on Dec. 13, 1941, the Japan Council withdrew from the Geneva Council and has since been devoting its entire energy as a distinctly Japanese council to the interests of the Empire. The Japan Y.W.C.A. Council is following a similar course.

The National Christian Council of Japan The Japan Christian Council was organized in November 1927, succeeding the Japan Federation of Protestant Churches. After its organization, the Council had been a very important agency in relating Christian forces in Japan with those of other nations, presenting a united Christian front to the nation, cultivating moral and spiritual ideals in the country, promoting nationwide evangelistic campaigns, fostering the spirit of cooperation among Christian bodies and in hastening the estab-

lishment of a united Protestant church in Japan. With the realization of one of its objectives, namely, the founding of the United Church of Christ June 1941, there immediately arose a question as to the continued existence of the Council and as to its character if continued. After much study and discussion, in view of a considerable number of Protestant organizations remaining outside the united church, as shown above, and of the Christian communions other than Protestant, the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches, all of which requiring close relation with each other properly to function in promoting the entire Christian movement and in furthering friendly relations with the other religious bodies and movements in the country as well as unitedly to serve the nation under the existing emergency, it was decided in the fall of 1941 to continue the Council under the new name in Japanese, the Nippon Kirisutokyo Rengokwai, Japan Christian Federation, though retaining the old name, the National Council of Japan in English, with certain changes in the organization. The Council as it is reorganized has a president, vice-presidents, an executive committee of 20 members, a general secretary and other officers. The Council is composed of the various Christian communions and national Christian organizations of the Empire as the United Church of Christ, the Japan Episcopal Church, the National Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. Councils, Japan Christian Educational Association, the Japan Bible Society, Women's Christian Temperance Union, Japan Christian News Agency etc. Leaders of the Roman and Greek Catholic Churches have been approached in regard to their cooperation with the council. They have expressed their favorable attitude toward the proposal. It is early to predict what form of cooperation they will agree to take. At any rate a need is felt by all the Christian communions and organizations that they should unite their forces under the common Christian name to take their full share of the national responsibility in the Orient. The Council can meet this need. It will promote intimate relations and cooperation between various Christian communions and organizations; cultivate relations with other evangelistic agencies working in Japan; and to further relations with Christian movements in other lands especially on the Asiatic Continent. In these and other

ways the Council can still function much until all the churches in Japan shall be completely united into one church and all the other Christian organizations shall be incorporated into this church as its constituent elements. The coming of that time is keenly awaited by all concerned including those of the Council itself who will welcome its developmental dissolution into a completely united church of Christ truly native to the soil of Japan.

Christian Movement and the Greater East Asia War Christianity is a religion of peace and universal brotherhood and Christianity in Japan forms no exception to these fundamental principles. So when the China Affair was started July 1937, the Christian Church in Japan was alarm-struck, as it had been constantly praying and working for friendly Sino-Japanese relations. But once the Affair had commenced, the church rallied to the support of the Government for the accomplishment of its objectives, while earnestly hoping a speedy and amicable settlement of the Affair. The same attitude is shown towards the War of Greater East Asia. The fact that the Christian church in Japan was intensely interested in the maintenance of the traditional and cordial relations which had been existing between the country and England and, particularly, America, was amply manifested in sending a Japanese Christian delegation to the United States early 1941 when the political and economic tension between the Japanese and the Anglo-American nations was becoming increasingly acute, as messenger of peace to prevent any unhappy clash. When, however, the Emperor, on Dec. 8, 1941, declared war on the United States of America and the British Empire, the Christians of all descriptions in Japan fully realized the inevitability of the war and its importance to the national existence and to the accomplishment of the Government policies in East Asia, and therefore have been completely in agreement with the national objectives in this war possibly more than in the case of the Sino-Japanese Conflict. They see in the war aims which are the protection of the national self-existence, the deliverance of the peoples in East Asia and the South-seas in the establishment of a sphere of Greater East Asian co-prosperity, the hand of God in using Japan, as he did of old with the Persian Empire, for the execution of his will in the creation of a new

order in Greater East Asia as well as in the world at large. Hence they are offering everything at the disposal of the nation at war and acting thoroughly in accordance with the orders of the Government, while praying for an early establishment of peace on equitable and permanent bases. All this can be read in the statements issued both by the Roman Catholic and Protestant branches of Christianity following the declaration of the war by the Emperor, which we may here give. Dr. Mitsuru Tomita, official head of the United Church of Christ in Japan, on the day just after the war was declared, sent, to its constituent churches and organizations, an urgent message as follows:

"The Imperial Rescript having been granted on Dec. 8, 1941, our nation, which had been long enduring, has taken up arms against the United States of America and the British Empire, to settle the unprecedented issue. This, for the self-defense of our country and the establishment of lasting peace in the Orient, is absolutely unavoidable course for us to take. We Christians, as loyal citizens of the Japanese Empire, should, with clear understanding of the meaning of the war, offer ourselves to the nation, put forth our utmost efforts for the protection of the Fatherland with no hesitation, and must fully perform our services on the home front. We Christians, under the emergency, particularly should be conscious of our great spiritual responsibility to the nation and should rise up to our given mission and by engendering unconquerable belief among the people and by fostering in them the spirit of perseverance, steadfastness, resoluteness, indomitableness, we should perform our distinctly Christian duty to the Fatherland." He further urged that Christians should unitedly pray for the Fatherland, show forth the spirit of their sincere patriotism in unison, in their several walks of life, perform the services out of their hearts to be examples to the fellow nationals, and should, under any circumstances, not lose their calmness and self-possession but exhibit all the more the virtues of faith, love and hope. And Archbishop Doi, of the Roman Catholic Church in Japan, on Dec. 25, 1941, issued his statement in the following words:

"The Imperial Rescript declaring war on the United States of America and

the British Empire was graciously granted on Dec. 8, 1941, clearly showing the way to be followed by the entire people of the country. We were struck with awe at the profound wisdom and thought of H.M. the Emperor. Now is the time when one hundred million Japanese people in one mind should reverently accept the Will of H.M. the Emperor and concentrate our whole resources to avert the grave danger to the national existence and to accomplish the aims of the war as set forth in the Rescript. We the believers of the Roman Catholic Church in Japan and all as children of H.M. the Emperor must perform our duties as loyal subjects, especially as teachers and believers in the Christian religion, must practice the virtues, inculcated in us by the religion, of perseverance, sacrifice, and consecration and, further, with firm conviction in the final victory, be exemplary in responding to the urgent call of the Empire under the emergency." And he later ordered a nation-wide prayer service to be held in all the Roman Catholic Churches throughout the country at the second monthly observance of the granting of the Imperial War Rescript held on February 8, 1942.

Creating Japan Christianity Occidentalism in form and thought had been a marked characteristic of Christianity in Japan. Christianity introduced in modern times to this country was not the Christianity of the New Testament; it was rather a Christianity which had taken to itself many of the elements in the Greco-Roman, Germanic and Anglo-Saxon civilizations of the West. So when the Christian movement was started in Japan, it was patterned after Western forms and ideas. But with the marked growth of national consciousness during the decade beginning with the Manchurian Incident and especially under the present emergency, the study and insistence on things Japanese have become very prevalent among the people and the Christians in Japan do not remain immuned to this tendency but they fully share in it. They are awakened to the fact that the time has come for them to discard all unnecessary foreign features and elements and create a Christianity wholly congenial to the soil of Japan. Buddhism and Confucianism in coming to Japan have completely been embedded into the very life and structure of the nation. They see no reason

why Christianity cannot become such in the country. As there are Greek, Latin, Teutonic, and Anglo-American types of Christianity, so they feel there should be a Japan type of Christianity, built on the cultural background of the country, conformed to its national structure and spirit and ideals. Such a Christianity is greatly desired both within and outside the Christian circles in Japan. This desire had been expressed from the very beginnings of Christian missions in modern times but it is distinctly a very noticeable aspect in the Christian movement today. Books and magazine articles on the subject of producing a Japan type of Christianity are appearing in any number. Among the books on the subject the most representative is a treatise by Prof. T. Ueki of the Divinity School, Doshisha University, on "The Spiritual Tradition of Japan Christianity," in which he shows the possibility and need of a Japan type of Christianity in close relation with the Buddhist, Confucian, and native cultures of Japan. The Christian religion is to be cast into, and, be born of, the mould of Japanese spiritual heritage. On the same subject of giving birth to a Christianity in Japan, Mr. Kenzo Ahara, head Religions Bureau, Education Ministry of the Government, in an address at a Protestant Ministers Institute June 1942 in Tokyo, said more or less to the following effect: "During the 80 years of Christianity in Japan in modern times, its leaders have made much contribution to the development of national prosperity. But the Christianity they spread has had many Western elements—they were transplanted in the country whole-sale hardly with any modification. Now we have entered into the Greater East Asia War, striving to build up a new order and a sphere of co-prosperity in this part of the world based on the Japanese traditional principle of making 'One Family under Heaven.' Hence it behooves Japanese Christians to reshape the religion fully consonant with our national ideals and objectives. They have hitherto depended too much on foreign models and ideals of Christianity. It is time that they make a thoroughgoing cut with Western influences and establish truly a Japan type of Christianity, both in name and in fact. The building up of a united Christian church in Japan is not merely a matter of organizational business but of establishing its genuine Christianity. It does not

mean simply to explain Christianity according to Japanese points of view, etc., but really to produce a Christianity based on the Japanese consciousness and understanding of the significance of the national structure, which will truly contribute towards the development of the nation's prosperity—a Christianity built firmly on the basis of Japanese world-view, that will perform its mission to the nation and to the ever-growing sphere of the world over which Japanese influence is extending."

In the above remarks, Mr. Ahara touches the crucial point, a clarification of which is essential to the production of Japan Christianity. In the matter of attaining organizational consolidation, native autonomy, independency and aggressive evangelism, and of necessary adaptability to the spirit and ideals of the nation at war, that are, as shown in the preceding pages, quite manifest, especially, during the year under review, Christianity has decidedly become Japanese in character. But so far it has not clarified its distinct attitude with respect to the national structure and a political philosophy based on it. Here is a vital problem for Christianity and many are at work to solve the problem. So before long there will be a Christianity cast not only in the mould of Japanese spiritual tradition but also in that of the national structure and its political philosophy. Furthermore we might note in closing that the ideas and thought-forms of Christianity in Japan have not yet, on the whole, passed beyond the stage of foreign importation; they are largely borrowed from the West. They should be born of the matrix of Japanese life. Happily much thought and attention, for instance, is being given to the drafting of a creed for the United Church of Christ that will truly be Japanese in its nature. There are many other instances showing the efforts of Japanese Christians to produce theological ideas and systems native to the soil of Japan. Such efforts will, no doubt, be crowned with success, particularly, in these days when the nation, because of the war, is on the whole severed intellectually from the West on one hand, and, on the other, is strongly conscious of its distinctive characteristics and also its great mission, especially, to Greater East Asia. In proportion to the progress of these intellectual efforts and of the other efforts in the Christian movement, Christianity will increasingly be indigenized

RELIGION

in the soil of Japan; and what some Japanese Christians, as reported by Lafcadio Hearn, a famous writer on Japan, in one of his books in 1893, desired, i.e., "to create a new and peculiar Christianity, to be essentially Japanese and

essentially national in spirit," and what many Christians strongly advocate respecting their religion in the country will see their fruition in this day of national awakening and enterprise unprecedented in the history of the Japanese Empire.

STATISTICS

The following are the statistics of preachers and believers in major religious faiths in Japan reported by the

Education Ministry as outstanding at the end of 1940:

Secretarian Shinto in Japan Proper

Denomination	Preaching Halls (in 1938)	Priests and Preachers (in 1938)	Believers (in 1940)
Shinto-Daikyo	624	5,002	1,259,572
Kurozumi	452	3,893	478,890
Shinto-Shusei	213	2,171	78,190
Taisha	201	3,076	3,383,184
Fuso	520	4,127	502,052
Jikko	249	2,166	294,857
Taisei	175	2,630	546,170
Shinshu	306	2,575	876,011
Ontake	861	10,949	2,085,556
Sinri	374	2,046	1,513,182
Misogi	37	1,476	343,256
Konko	1,332	3,454	1,196,529
Tenri	16,666	85,052	4,336,568
Total	22,010	128,617	16,994,017

Buddhism

(End of 1940)

Denomination	Temples	Priests	Temple Members	Adherents
Tendai	4,422	2,953	937,086	1,213,270
Shingon	11,915	8,298	3,641,596	4,716,324
Ritsu	23	11	10,561	51,431
Jodo	8,244	6,746	3,030,034	647,815
Rinzai	5,976	4,655	1,863,723	643,816
Soto	14,272	12,062	6,536,387	328,993
Obaku	501	374	44,430	87,519
Shin	19,848	16,235	13,206,900	453,141
Nichiren	5,037	4,503	2,121,362	1,358,730
Ji	495	360	242,577	111,101
Yuzunenbutsu	355	237	165,674	4,658
Hosso	41	23	4,555	42,833
Kegon	36	26	850	33,080
Total including others	71,282	56,482	31,832,218	10,451,790

Christianity

(End of 1940)

Denomination	Believers	Denomination	Believers
Roman Catholic	113,116	Japan Seventh Day Adventist	1,046
Greek Church	11,127	Fukuin Dendo	1,042
United Church of Christ	183,730	Others	15,202
Japan Episcopal	32,153	Total	357,466

CHAPTER XXX
SOCIAL WORK

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CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL WORK

The recorded history of social work in Japan begins with 593 A.D. as was mentioned on p. 669, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40. Social work before the Meiji era, however, was rather spasmodic and local. National social movement and systematized work began in early years of the 20th century as mentioned below.

Meiji Era The Nagoya earthquake in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and the famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work, and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up but mostly by philanthropic individuals so they hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at that time and after the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work.

From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has passed many laws on social work, the most important of them being:—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Ministry of Welfare In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, and these were tucked away in one corner of the Ministry of Home

Affairs. But in August 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1910 this section was called the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became the new Bureau of Social Affairs and a central organization for social work; in 1922, the Independent Social Bureau came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. In January 1938, the Bureau was merged into the Ministry of Welfare.

Social Work Law The Social Work Law was promulgated on April 1, 1938 and put into force on July 1 the same year, with the purpose of strengthening control and promotion of social work in Japan. The social services which come within the purview of the law include asylums for the aged, poor relief work, orphanages, day-nurseries and other services for children, medical relief work, institutions for economic relief and such services as are specially designated by Ordinance, excluding social work carried on under other laws or Imperial Ordinances, protective work connected with justice and police, military relief, temporary social work, work carried on by industrial associations and any social work which cares for less than 5 persons. (In regard to the national budget for the promotion of social services see the items of expenditure of the Ministry of Welfare and other ministries).

On May 23, 1941, the seventh general meeting of the National League of Social Workers was held at Tokyo. In the meeting the representatives of 3,266 social work organizations made decisions pertaining to the present national conditions which are undergoing radical changes along with the progress of the China Affair and the second World War. They promised to make every effort for cooperating with the village community and city district councils and the neighborhood groups to promote the welfare of the people, to enlarge facilities for aiding those who are compelled to change occupation in the emergency by

increasing the number of institutions established for this purpose which is 60 at present, to extend helping hands to the bereaved homes of soldiers which fall outside of the Military Relief Law by increasing the number of hospitals and nurseries which is about 1,000, to help wounded or sick laborers in co-operation with factory owners, to protect ex-convicts and juvenile offenders in a more thoroughgoing way, to educate social workers to make them more efficient works in handling new social problems and to foster young men and ladies who wish to take up this important work as their life work.

Block Committee

Legalization of Homen In (Block Committee) System The Homen In or Block Committee system consists in the appointing, by prefectural governors or other responsible bodies, of honorary committees of those private persons who are interested in social work and are able to get in easy touch with the people who need relief, so that proper relief is given the poor and the maximum results obtained. The system originated with the establishment of an advisory committee to the Saiseikai association in Okayama prefecture in 1917. Since then, partly because of the recent trend in social affairs and partly by the re-

cognition of the good results brought about by the activities of the Committees, the system has spread not only to all prefectures in Japan proper, but also to Taiwan and Chosen. The promulgation of the revised Relief Law in 1931 called for greater activity on the part of the committees.

At the end of February 1942 the number of Block Committees reached 83,000 for 10,000 blocks in Japan proper. The managing bodies of this system are the prefectural authorities, though there are a certain number of city, town or other private organizations.

The number of cases handled by the Block Committees increases every year, the figure for 1936-37 being 4,970,756.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK OF THE BLOCK COMMITTEE

(March 1937)

Number of Committees

Prefectural	45
City	6
Town and village	26
Private bodies	3
Total	80

Number of Blocks

Municipalities	9,098
Blocks	9,427
Committeemen	46,264

Number of Poor Families and Their Members Which Are Registered

Kinds	Serious Cases	Registered Ordinary Cases	Total
Families:			
Cities			
Towns and villages	134,361	141,695	276,056
House members:	69,300	213,329	282,629
Cities			
Towns and villages	507,804	594,170	1,101,974
	221,705	877,696	1,099,401

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes:—

(1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement, (2) care for infants, (3) for weakly children, (4) for children of the very poor, (5) for the education of children, (6) for child-workers, (7) for maltreated children, (8) for children to be reformed, (9) for abnormal children and (10) for mother and child.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement

The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western coun-

tries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918. Though there has been a decrease since then, in 1938 the rate was still as high as 114. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency towards decrease, it was 4.9 for every 100 births in 1938, the total number of still-births reaching 99,528. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at

present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. In March 1936 there were 52 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives' organizations numbered 493. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that owners of industrial and mining plants shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent of each day's wage throughout the non-productive period for 28 days before and 42 days after child-birth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the following four kinds:—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) **Infant Hospitals.** There were 29 infant hospitals in the country in March 1936. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) **Day-nurseries.** The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Shobi Akazawa in the city of Niigata, June 1890. In March 1937 there were 874 in the country, of which 163 were public establishments.

(c) **Institutions for Providing Nutritious Food.** The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 6 such organizations.

(d) **Infant Health Clinics.** The first independent organization for this kind of work was the Osaka Children's Clinic established in 1919. In March 1936 there were 152 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey made by the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1926, the number of widows and their children and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) **Orphan Asylums.** As was the case in Western countries, the orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March 1936, there were 131 orphan asylums in the country of which only 5 were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1935-36 were ¥1,087,208 for 7,813 children, chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations.

(b) **Protection of Weakly Children.** Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a number of weakly children to the seashore of Chiba prefecture in 1900. Later, in June 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results. In March 1937, there were 212 institutions for the purpose with 8,838 weakly children protected.

(c) **Protection of Children of School Age.** The elementary school attendance in Japan surpasses most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regula-

tions for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March 1937, the number of such children was 47,468. Encouragement of school attendance of these children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Ministry gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.59 in the school year 1936-37.

The number of schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 40 with 6,165 pupils in 1935-36, the expenses for them amounting to ¥119,722. Besides these schools there were 15 nurse-maids' schools with 351 pupils, at the end of March 1936.

The heavy depression in farm and fishing villages deprived many elementary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for providing lunches beginning with the year 1932, the amount granted to local governments in 1936-37 reaching ¥660,000. The number of children benefited was 622,584 in 12,264 schools during 1936-37, with an expenditure of ¥1,473,476, including ¥1,168,548 borne by public bodies and ¥304,928 borne by private bodies.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. The International Labor Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference, in 1919, adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and to child night work; at the second Conference, in 1920, an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea, was reached; and at the third Conference, in 1921, an agreement relating to child workers in agriculture was arrived at. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labor Conference, and recent labor conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the

Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923, and the Store Law of 1938. In the Revised Factory Law Article III provides that children under 10 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupations.) Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day, and Articles XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed, and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. In 1935, there were 241,202 boys and girls under 16 years of age employed in factories, comprising about 10 per cent of the total number of workers. The national conference of social workers held in Tokyo on July 26, 1937, presented a petition to the Government for enforcing these protective measures more effectively.

(e) Reformatory Work. In March 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, the law was revised and Prefectural authorities were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years of the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded in

a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, passed by the Diet in April 1921, as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law were revised and promulgated in May 1933, as the Juvenile Protection Law, effective from October 10, 1934.

In March 1939, there were 51 reformatories, with 2,914 children. The expenses amounted to ¥952,591 for 1938-39. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. In March 1937 blind and deaf-mute children were taken care of in 78 schools for the blind and 62 schools for the deaf-mute, pupils numbering 5,041 and 5,525 respectively. The number of organizations for protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children was 113 in all, and the aggregate number of inmates was 1,281, in March 1937.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April 1933, lays down the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning against maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them, makes provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when neces-

sary; and prohibits having such children engage in such performances as acrobatics and circuses or in infamous houses. It was put in force on October 1, 1933 and in the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of children protected by the Law was 593; of the total 179 were those subjected to maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

In 1938 the number of juveniles protected under the Law was 504.

Mother and Child Protection With the institution of this new law the State has taken the responsibility of assisting unsupported mothers, who are unable to educate their children on account of poverty. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau in August 1937, there were 41,789 such mothers and 91,119 children in Japan proper.

In order to make the relief of these mothers and children more complete the new Mother and Child Protection Law was passed at the 70th session of the Diet. Article 1 of the Mother and Child Protection Law states that those mothers or grandmothers who have children under 13 years of age and have to earn a living by their own effort and cannot live or bring up children because of poverty are protected in accordance with the provisions of the law.

RELIEF OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

(Amount in yen)

Fiscal Year	Children under 13 Years of Age		Nursing Mothers		Total	
	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money
1932-33	63,140	1,301,395	1,352	35,571	64,492	1,337,096
1933-34	84,566	1,984,723	1,758	58,098	86,324	2,042,821
1934-35	91,946	2,052,264	999	19,445	92,945	2,071,709
1935-36	97,375	2,222,915	1,089	23,726	98,464	2,246,641
1936-37	100,080	2,232,412	1,206	24,342	101,286	2,256,754

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses
(a) Building and Management of Houses by Public Bodies. In the year 1918, to meet the pressing need for economic and sanitary housing a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of

the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Ministry. This loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation

of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes.

The Government issued the Housing Association Law in April 1921, and it was put into force the same year. Associations are to be legal persons possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., working funds being loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Ministry through the prefectural offices. The Dojun-kai, a building corporation, established immediately after the great earthquake of 1923 with a fund of ¥10,000,000, a part of the contributions for the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama, has supplied many dwellings and apartments for the people in these two cities, independent of the government measure.

The sum of low interest-rate money advanced by the Government since 1921 amounts to more than ¥135,000,000. Demands for dwelling-houses gradually decreased after 1929, and the sum advanced for the purpose has decreased accordingly. The number of dwelling-houses built under the law up to November 1938 reached 83,000 (of which 6,000 were built through the Wooden Stores Construction Fund.) The number of building societies was 3,060 with a membership of 32,902, and total sum defrayed for buildings reached ¥72,190,000.

In 1941 the National Housing Association was created under the auspices of the Government with the purpose of building 300,000 dwelling houses under a 5 year plan beginning 1941. In 1942 or the second year of the plan 60,000 houses will be constructed in larger city districts, and the association will also provide factories and mines with lumber and other materials for housing their workers, the number of houses to be built by them reaching 31,445.

(b) Enforcement of the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June 1925, showed that there

were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,900 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their program, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobe and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March 1927, the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law which was enforced in the same year. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,200,000 in 1927-1935. The work is to be continued till 1943 with a subsidy amounting to ¥1,707,685.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep in imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of laborers and the like. The number of such lodgings in March 1937, was 155, with 3,599,897 one-night lodgers in 1936-37. Of the total number of lodgings 66 were free, the rest charging from 5 to 55 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessities. According to the investigation made in November 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. In August 1913 a rice riot, which was started by poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture, spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000,

and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made loans available at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March 1939, there were 260 such markets and sales for the fiscal year 1938-39 amounted to ¥54,364,781.

Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide laborers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March 1939, there were 42 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 7,574,400 meals taken in 1938-39. Each meal costs from 7 to 25 sen, and the total amount paid by customers reached ¥1,054,573.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can afford private baths. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not low enough. Herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March 1939, was 146, patronized by 20,571,215 bathers in a year, and total charges reached ¥253,575.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and

the money-lender are utilized by people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law, promulgated in 1927, regulated managing bodies subsidies of 50 per cent of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. The financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts had caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salaried men, laborers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops has become more acute.

The number of public pawnshops which was only 71 at the time of the enactment of the Public Pawnshop Law, has increased every year since and reached 1,134, at the end of March 1938. Since the economic crisis of 1932, money has become tight in the rural districts, so that the Government has been making special efforts to establish pawnshops in those districts.

However, when the above mentioned number of public pawnshops is compared with that of private pawnshops which numbered 12,585 at the end of 1935, the former is still lagging far behind. In view of this the Government is determined to make further efforts for their establishment.

In examining the number of people who are benefiting from the use of pawnshops, classified according to occupation, it is found that laborers are greatest, followed by small retailers, small-scale manufacturers, farmers, salaried men and fishermen in the order named. It will be specially noted that the member of fishermen and farmers has increased conspicuously since 1932.

PAWNERS AT THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawn-shops	Labor-ers	Pawners				Farm-ers	Fisher-men	Others	Total
			Salaried men	Small Industrialists	Small Merchants					
1932-33	510	465,012	139,498	151,957	293,249	96,091	48,486	237,707	1,432,000	
1933-34	765	567,355	154,810	200,600	394,526	142,487	86,964	311,070	1,857,812	
1934-35	999	709,782	182,742	258,423	500,101	207,571	118,473	404,270	2,381,362	
1935-36	1,079	876,966	209,984	294,519	608,453	254,466	146,809	487,403	2,878,600	
1936-37	1,118	965,741	234,561	299,361	627,886	262,422	140,466	509,456	3,039,883	
1937-38	1,134	972,930	255,907	302,095	630,052	271,032	141,427	495,022	3,068,465	

STANDING LOANS OF THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

Pawnshops	Number of Loans	Amount of Loans (In yen)	Average Standing Amount per Loan (In yen)	Amount of Loans at the End of the Fiscal Year (In yen)
1932-33	510	1,731,476	4.89	4,031,242
1933-34	765	2,254,220	5.23	5,248,027
1934-35	999	2,900,872	5.41	8,213,794
1935-36	1,079	3,497,487	5.49	8,800,083
1936-37	1,118	3,726,077	5.78	10,166,188
1937-38	1,134	3,802,078	5.74	11,526,335

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Keian" or "Kuchireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the city of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class laborers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1906. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo in 1911. At the close of the Great War the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low interest loan for the establishment of employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyochokai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for their establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand them. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning, and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux

have been founded for the employment exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labor Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, in 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improvement of public employment exchanges they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

In 1936 an improvement was made in the administrative organization concerning employment exchange and a subsidy was granted, as a piece of relief work, for the establishment of facilities for training the unemployed.

In view of the results obtained so far since the enactment of the laws in

connection with employment exchanges the Revised Employment Exchange Law was passed at the 69th Session of the Diet in 1936, and put in force as from September of the same year.

Important points of the revision are as follows: (1) According to the old system coordination, control and supervision of the work was in the hands of the central and local employment exchange bureaux, seven in all, but this has now been transferred to the Home Minister and prefectural governors.

(2) In the past, the principal managing bodies have been, as a rule, cities, towns and villages. But the new Act has made it possible for prefectures to act in that capacity, thus doing away with any financial difficulty and making the selection of suitable locations for the employment exchange offices easier.

(3) The revised Act makes those who intend to employ laborers en masse notify prefectural governors as to the terms necessary for employment. This has been an entirely new addition, and is intended to enable prefectural governors to have ready knowledge as to the demands on labor.

In February 1941 the 378 State-operated exchange bureaux in the country were reorganized under new regulations. These were renamed the Kokumin Shokugyo Sisdōsho (Bureaus for the People's Vocational Guidance) on that date, which had been known for a long time as the Shokugyō Shōkaijo (Em-

ployment Bureaus).

Accordingly the employment bureaux, in addition to the old functions connected with employment exchange, national registration, prevention of unnecessary shiftings of labor, restrictions in the employment of young men and boys, now assume to encourage, advise and guide those desiring to change occupations.

The staff of the employment bureaux in many cities, therefore, have recently been reinforced by full-time officials newly chosen from among the public to take charge of such guidance. Besides these, it has been arranged that vocational directors be commissioned for the city areas and also for such towns and villages as may require them, for the purpose of giving advices and guidance individually to employers and employees who desire to change occupations. Like the members of the district social welfare commission these directors are to be chosen from among those who are well versed and keenly interested in industrial and economic trends and the actual conditions in industrial circles. In giving advices to those desiring to make a fresh start in life, the vocational directors are required constantly to keep in touch with the employment bureaux in their respective districts.

The readers are referred to Chapter XXVI on Labor for further information of labor conditions and Governmental measures.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

	1933	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
General						
Situations vacant	1,451,998	1,917,983	2,297,211	2,804,162	2,930,714	3,690,400
Situations sought	1,528,291	1,679,568	1,778,145	2,092,348	2,048,192	1,928,400
Situations filled	663,315	741,642	812,327	966,141	971,083	1,113,000
Day-laborers						
Men wanted	16,897,143	12,988,711	12,561,136	10,595,992	9,177,964	8,754,628
Jobs wanted	20,124,272	14,463,730	13,666,837	11,102,930	8,921,099	7,739,225
Day's work secured	16,779,159	12,867,295	12,270,660	10,196,061	8,391,599	7,436,994

Note: The table does not include private profit employment exchanges the number of which was 1,520, the number of men wanted was 670,900, jobs wanted 403,900 and work secured through them 267,100 in 1939.

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January

1, 1933. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbors and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarity and public responsibility of relieving impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are old poor people above 65, help-

less juveniles under 13, pregnant poor women, helpless invalids and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wounds or mental disorders, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under one year of age.

The period of relief should generally be for as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two

kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

The results of the operation of this Act since 1933 are given in the following table:

RESULTS OF RELIEF WORK

(Units 1,000 people and ¥1,000)

Kinds of relief	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Living cost:					
(1) Number of the relieved	176.8	185.9	166.7	190.0	199.1
(2) Expenses defrayed	4,543.1	5,055.9	4,577.3	5,414.2	5,625.1
Medical treatment:					
(1) Number of persons	33.1	34.7	49.6	32.9	35.7
(2) Expenses defrayed	608.4	738.6	1,288.3	757.2	788.7
Maternity cases:					
(1) Number of women	3.2	2.4	2.3	1.5	1.2
(2) Expenses defrayed	14.8	11.1	12.9	7.0	5.7
Help for working:					
(1) Number of persons	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.4	0.4
(2) Expenses defrayed	5.0	4.7	15.8	4.6	5.8
Total					
(1) Persons	213.5	223.5	219.7	225.0	236.5
(2) Expenses defrayed	5,176.2	5,810.3	5,894.5	6,183.1	6,423.4

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes: Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, and relief of sufferers from natural calamities.

Regulations now in force, issued in 1899, aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, the disposal of dead bodies, and care of the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help. There is no limit of time fixed for their relief. In 1935-36, there were 8,030 persons found sick and the money expended for their care amounted to ¥667,194, and 4,515

deaths cared for with an expenditure of ¥58,765.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities owing to its climate and volcanic activities. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law were issued in 1899.

In April 1939, the total of the Natural Calamities Relief Fund amounted to ¥90,260,822, and, if Okinawa prefecture and Hokkaido were excepted, the average fund for each prefecture reached ¥1,980,000. Though particular items for which the fund is expended differ and change according to the nature of the calamities, the largest amount of the fund is expended on food, shelters, and for business funds. The money expended for the relief amounted to ¥3,716,071 in 1934, ¥753,211 in 1935, ¥246,865 in 1936, ¥515,618 in 1937 and ¥1,975,818 in 1938.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over

1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

Military Relief The Military Relief Act has been in force since January of 1918, a part of it being revised in March 1931. It aims to give relief at State expense to those non-commissioned officers and men who are injured or suffer illness in war or during their term of service, and are, on that account, dismissed from the services, or to their families or the bereaved; to the families of soldiers and sailors who are called up for service; and to the bereaved of those soldiers and sailors who die of injuries or during their service if they find it difficult to get a living.

The relief, given under this Act, has greatly increased in recent years owing to the economic depression, the effects of the Manchurian Campaign and the China Affair. In April 1938, the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers was established, then, in July the same year, the Military Protection Board was created by the amalgamation of the Temporary Military Relief Section of the Home Ministry and the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers. The budgetary estimate of the Military Protection Board amounts to ¥108,000,000 for the fiscal year, April 1941-March 1942, of which ¥13,000,000 is earmarked for new works of relief, which include 20 per cent increase of the amount of grants to soldiers' homes which come under the Military Relief Law, extension of similar relief to Japanese soldiers' homes in Manchoukuo, increase of the number of tuberculosis sanatoriums from present 25 with 12,500 beds to 29 with 15,000 beds, establishment of 50 factories for giving the weak or deformed ex-soldiers suitable jobs, etc.

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Sho-

toku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are many organizations which give free medical treatment, hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. There were 191 public hospitals and 570 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1936-37. The cases treated numbered 1,163,863.

In 1941 there were 3,650 villages in Japan proper where no medical practitioners were found, and the Government commenced the work of hiring graduates of medical colleges who are to stay at these villages compulsorily for a fixed number of years.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals There is to be found a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure had risen to 50,891, and in March 1939 it stood at 89,358, a decrease of 181 as compared with the preceding year, the ratio being 12.37 in every 10,000 of the population, a decrease of 0.2 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) **Laws and regulations concerning insane persons.** The Law for the Custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at their hands. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to take an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons or by responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the State subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. At the end of 1939 there were 7 public hospitals for the insane and 72 private asylums. There were 5,800 inpatients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of cases of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year. In 1937, 104,982 died from pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 14.7 in every 10,000 deaths. The Government issued regulations in 1914 for the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulated the State subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919. At the end of October 1939, there were 52 sanatoria with 12,850 patients. In 1939, H. I. M. the Empress donated a large sum of money for the relief of the patients.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the

use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions. Besides 9 public leper-asylums, there are 8 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Ihai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. In 1930, H. I. M. the Empress Dowager donated a large sum of money for the work. At the end of November 1939, there were 19 leper-asylums, 6 of which established by the Government and 5 by public bodies, with 8,370 patients. (See Chapter XXXI on these subjects.)

Other Social Work

There are other social work not mentioned in this chapter such as social cultural work, social reform work (abolition of the licensed prostitution system, prohibition of smoking among young people, temperance movement), the National Spiritual Mobilization movement, naturalization of Koreans, various protective work for discharged prisoners and juvenile offenders (mentioned in Chapter XXVII) and social works in overseas territories (mentioned in chapters on those territories).

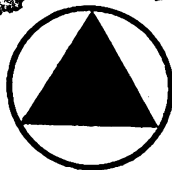
Social reform is carried on by the National Temperance League of Japan, the Japan Woman's Christian Temperance Union and other temperance associations.

CHAPTER XXXI

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Pure and
Industrial
Chemicals,
Pharmaceutical
Specialities

"UROKO"



BRAND

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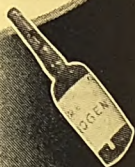
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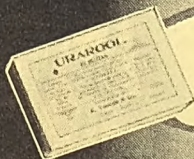
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CHAPTER XXXI

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Sanitary affairs of the country were placed under the supervision of the Sanitary Bureau, Home Ministry, until 1938 when the Bureau was transferred to the new Welfare Ministry, and the business which had been carried on by the former Sanitary Bureau are divided into 3 Bureaus in the Welfare Ministry, i.e. the Physical Power Bureau, the Sanitary Bureau and the Disease Prevention Bureau.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods and Beverages
Milk In the following table are given

the quantities of milk produced during 1938:—

MILK

Milk plants	6,377
	*43
Number of milk-cows	117,207
	*796
Quantity of milk produced	288,835,131 (Liters)
	*2,379,564
Quantity of milk handled	178,948,530
	*2,105,262

Note:—* Refers to special milk.

GOAT MILK

	1938	Compared with 1937 (Liters)
Number of goat-milk dairies	634	20 (incr.)
Number of milk-goats	6,272	210 (decr.)
Quantity of goat's milk produced	3,338,651	1,762,885 (incr.)

MILK-PRODUCTS

	1938 (kg.)	Compared with the preceding year (kg.)
Condensed milk	17,216,073	6,517,385 (decr.)
Unsweetened condensed milk	5,942,153	33,070 (incr.)
Condensed skimmed milk	4,580,576	1,922,696 (incr.)
Powdered milk	1,254,061	359,415 (incr.)
Unsweetened powdered milk	885,185	628,922 (incr.)
Powdered skimmed milk	159,832	122,913 (incr.)
Butter	5,088,299	1,495,625 (incr.)

Snow and Ice The number of traders in snow and ice (those who gather and sell natural ice, and those who manufacture ice artificially and sell it for the purpose of consumption) at the

end of 1938 and the quantity of snow and ice gathered and manufactured during the year compared with the figures for the preceding year are given in the following table:—

	1938	Compared with 1937
Traders in snow and ice	1,648 persons	12 (incr.)
Artificial ice	2,520,620,982 kg.	178,418,137 (decr.)
Natural ice	146,070,872 "	86,779,907 (incr.)
Snow	234,768 "	80,016 (incr.)

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Non-alcoholic Drinks The number of manufacturers of non-alcoholic drinks | at the end of 1938 was 3,431 showing an increase of 84 over the preceding year.

	1938	Compared with 1937
Mineral water and plain soda water	697	29 (incr.)
Ramuné	1,754	81 (decr.)
Cider	1,502	40 (decr.)
Lemonade (including fruit water, peppermint water and cinnamon bark juice)	2,002	44 (incr.)
Fruit juice, syrup and others	1,602	29 (decr.)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	234	4 (incr.)

The following table gives the quantity of non-alcoholic drinks manufactured in 1938:

	1938 (Liters)	Compared with the preceding year
Mineral water and plain soda water	14,726,408	6,838,436 (incr.)
Ramuné	45,510,858	1,766,011 (")
Cider	102,287,296	50,109,923 (")
Lemonade (including fruit water, peppermint and cinnamon bark juice)	19,174,621	688,326 (")
Fruit juice, syrup and others	18,890,332	1,216,811 (")
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	31,442,179	28,489,198 (")
Total	232,031,694	88,904,705 (")

Waterworks During the year from April 1938 to March 1939, sanction was given for the construction of waterworks in 9 localities.

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks to be constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Public bodies	529	489
Associations	8	7
Private parties	115	108
Total	652	604

On April 1, 1938, there were 657 waterworks in operation.
(See Chapter XX, Public Utilities.)

Sewerage During the year 1937, permission to construct sewers was given to three places, namely; Seto city, Aichi prefecture, Himeji city and Sumiyoshi village, Hyogo prefecture.

On April 1, 1938, the places which had already obtained permission to construct sewers were 49 places, consisting of 41 cities, 6 towns and 2 villages.

Slaughter-houses The total number of

slaughter-houses at the end of 1938 was 721, of which 105 were established by cities, 331 by towns and villages, 51 by livestock raisers or industrial associations, 184 by private individuals.

Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1938 for food purpose and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given here (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included):

Kind of Animals	No. of head slaughtered in 1938	Compared with 1937
Cattle	366,692 head	21,307 (incr.)
Calves	35,182 "	8,479 (decr.)
Sheep	2,860 "	326 (incr.)
Goats	6,840 "	2,633 (")
Pigs	1,175,673 "	46,576 (decr.)
Horses	39,587 "	31,840 (")

The following table gives the weight of meat yielded in 1938 by the slaughtered animals and a comparison of the yield with that of the preceding year:

	Total Weight		Average Weight Per Head	
	1938 kg.	Compared with 1937 kg.	1938 kg.	Compared with 1937 kg.
Cattle	69,416,192	4,893,070 (incr.)	189.30	2.48 (incr.)
Calves	1,649,141	998,488 (decr.)	46.87	13.77 (decr.)
Sheep	52,633	5,708 (incr.)	18.40	0.12 (decr.)
Goats	79,382	35,728 (incr.)	11.61	1.23 (incr.)
Pigs	59,262,653	780,096 (decr.)	50.41	1.29 (incr.)
Horses	5,675,371	4,821,760 (decr.)	143.36	3.60 (decr.)

Inspection of Imported Meat The total amount of meat imported in 1938 at the ports of Yokohama, Tsuruga, Osaka, Kobe, Ujina, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki and Izuhara was 8,081,360 kilogram, of which 160 kilograms were condemned. Compared with the preceding year, the amount of meat inspected decreased by 5,005,124 kilograms, and condemned meat by 3,359 kilograms. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows:

	Weight of meat inspected (in kg.)	Weight of meat condemned (in kg.)	Ratio of condemned meat (%)
Fresh beef	148,756	—	—
Chilled beef	3,558,531	—	—
Frozen beef	4,044,588	110	0.02
Mutton	15,813	—	—
Pork	313,512	50	0.01
Total	8,081,360	160	0.01

Poisoning The total number of persons poisoned in 1938 was 10,380 (a decrease of 2,284 on the preceding year), of which 5,060 (48.67 per cent) were poisoned intentionally, 5,298 (51.04 per cent) by accident and 22 (0.21 per cent) through other's injuries; and of these persons poisoned 2,476 died, of which 2,134 were those poisoned intentionally, 329 those poisoned by accident, and 13 those poisoned by others, so that 87.81 per cent of those intentionally poisoned died, 13.28 per cent of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 0.50 per cent of those poisoned through

other's injuries also succumbed. Of poisonous substance the most frequently used in intentional poisoning and poisoning through other's injuries are chemicals, especially a preparation containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning is mostly due to eating poisonous animals, plants or putrefied food.

Burials and Cremations The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1938 was 973,342 and their total area was 24,194 hectares, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectare, and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,487, in which 736,829 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 21.37 bodies. In the same year 633,486 bodies were buried uncremated so that those cremated came to 53.77 per cent and those buried uncremated to 46.23 per cent of the total number of burials, which, when compared with the percentage for the preceding year showed an increase of 0.01 per cent in those cremated.

Insane Persons The total number of insane persons at the end of 1938 was 90,610, showing a decrease of 385 from the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country in that year was 12.55 per 10,000, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 0.22.

Tuberculosis The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1938 by the prefectural governments, in accordance with the provision of Art. IV, Clause I of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis:

	1938	Compared with the preceding year
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,759,210	163,200 (incr.)
Number of persons examined	1,322,977	70,863 (")
Number of persons diagnosed as tuber-	*85,517	*12,164 (")

	1938	Compared with the preceding year
culosis patients	516	85 (decr.)
Ratio of the patients per 1,000 of the examined	0.37	0.08 (,,)
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	61	29 (,,)

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

In 1940 the Ministry of Welfare made a health examination of 2,300,000 young men, 17-19 years of age, under the National Physical Strength Law enacted in 1940, and found 115,000 tuberculosis patients (5 per cent of the total).

Trachoma The following table shows the results of examinations conducted by the prefectural governments during 1938, in accordance with provision of Art. IV, Clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Trachoma:

	1938	Compared with Preceding Year
Number of persons examined	5,790,199	732,355 (decr.)
Number of trachoma cases:	*368,222	*335,560 (,,)
Severe cases	33,203	6,250 (,,)
Mild cases	340,977	68,518 (,,)
Suspected cases	114,125	9,424 (,,)
Total	488,305	84,192 (,,)
Ratio of cases per 100 persons examined	7.93	0.01 (incr.)
Number of patients ordered to refrain from work	64	143 (decr.)

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Health Examination of Prostitutes

The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1938 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience's sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 377, being a decrease of 15 from the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 42,624, showing a decrease of 2,284 from the preceding year.

The number of health-examination stations for these prostitutes was 348, showing a decrease of 20 from the preceding year, and the total number of examinations made in these stations was 2,648,680, showing a decrease of 121,747 from the preceding year, and in 74,220 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of diseases to the total number examined was 2.80 per cent, i.e. 0.65 per cent higher than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals for admitting these diseased prostitutes (including places for treatment lacking hospital accommodations) was 135, and the average num-

ber of times a prostitute was admitted into hospital during the year was 1.74, showing an increase of 0.42 over the preceding year.

Cholera The total number of cases of cholera in 1938 was 18 with 11 deaths, showing a decrease of 39 cases and 9 deaths as compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.00 cases and deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing a decrease of 0.01 both in the number of cases and deaths as compared with the preceding year. Below are given prefectures where cases of cholera broke out:

Prefecture	Cases	Deaths	No. of cases per 10,000 inhabitants
Okayama	9	6	0.07
Hiroshima	6	3	0.03
Fukuoka	2	1	0.01
Nagoya	1	1	0.01

Of the above total number 9 cases broke out in urban districts, and it represents 50.00% of the total number for the whole country. There were 5 deaths therefrom. The rate of above cases and deaths to the urban popula-

tion was 0.00 in both cases and deaths to 10,000 inhabitants.

Dysentery, Including Ekiri The total number of cases of dysentery in 1938 was 80,221 and there were 20,218 deaths therefrom which, when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 1,937 cases and 1,791 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 11.11 cases and 2.80 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.12 cases and 0.21 deaths.

Typhoid Fever The total number of cases of typhoid fever in 1938 was 42,132 with 7,076 deaths, showing an increase of 3,590 cases and 459 deaths compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.83 cases and 0.42 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.42 cases and 0.05 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid fever reported for urban districts only, during the year was 19,403 which corresponds to 46.05 per cent of the cases for the whole country. Of the above number, there were 3,542 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 7.48 and 1.37 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.05 for cases and an increase of 0.03 for deaths.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1938 was 6,117, of which 303 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 1,637 cases and 11 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 8.05 cases and 0.04 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, which shows, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.22 cases while the death-rate remained unchanged.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1938 was 2,808 which corresponds to 45.90 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 141.

The ratios of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 1.08 and

0.05 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.26 cases, but with no change in death-rate.

Smallpox In 1938 the total number of cases was 30 with 6 deaths. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 30 cases but no change for death. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the total population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Saga prefecture, it being 28 cases with 2 deaths; in the other prefectures the number of cases was less than 8. (In 1937 there were 90 cases with 6 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 25 (3 deaths), corresponding to 41.67 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths.

Typhus No cases of typhus occurred in 1938.

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1938 was 19,002 with 402 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures an increase of 1,399 cases and a decrease of 78 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 2.63 cases and 0.06 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. When compared with the preceding year an increase of 0.16 case but a decrease of 0.01 death.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1938 was 28,420 with 3,853 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 309 cases but a decrease of 206 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 3.94 cases and 0.54 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.01 cases and 0.03 deaths.

Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis. The total number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in 1938 was 996, of which 528 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 157 cases and 47 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 0.14 cases and 0.07-

deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing an increase of 0.02 cases over the preceding year, but with no change in death-rate.

Plague No cases of plague occurred in 1938.

Vaccination The total number of the 1st period vaccinations performed in 1938 was 2,079,919, of which 1,951,483 proved positive and 68,847 negative while 59,589 were not examined for the result of vaccinations. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was an increase of 48,687 in the total number of positive vaccinations, of 2,475 in negative vaccinations, and of 2,966 whose result was not examined.

The total number of the 2nd period vaccinations was 2,011,751, of which 1,194,173 proved positive, 785,497 negative while 32,081 were not examined of their result, showing, compared with the figures of the preceding year, an increase of 377 in the total number vaccinated, and a decrease of 20,976 in the positive takes, and an increase of 20,008 in the negative, and of 1,345 in the number of unexamined cases.

The special vaccinations were carried out in 1938 in 40 prefectures, including Tokyo, Kyoto, and Miyagi, and the total number of persons vaccinated thereby was 3,693,216.

Port Quarantine The total number of vessels inspected in 1938 by harbor offices of the Custom Houses and by temporary port quarantine stations was 19,852 Japanese vessels (with a total tonnage of 73,778,168) and 4,917 foreign vessels (with a total tonnage of 31,805,608), making a total of 24,769 vessels (with a total tonnage of 105,583,776). The total number of persons inspected was 2,144,765, of which ships' crews numbered 1,377,771 and passengers 766,994. Compared with the corresponding figures of the preceding year, the number of vessels decreased by 5,490 and that of crew and passengers 73,821. By these inspections were found 12 persons suffering from small-pox, 1 person from typhus and 51 from other notifiable infectious diseases, making a total of 64 cases. Compared with the preceding year, this shows a decrease of 29 cases.

Of the above mentioned vessels inspected, 375 vessels and 2,329 persons thereon were subjected to disinfection. When compared with the preceding year, there was an increase of 111 ves-

sels but a decrease of 3,448 persons. The vessels subjected to detention numbered 14, being a decrease of 79 when compared with the preceding year. The destruction of rats and insects was carried out on 1,269 vessels and 8,889 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 162 in the number of vessels but an increase of 1,480 in that of rats.

Rabies In 1938, there was no case of rabies in men. The number of rabid dogs in 1938 was 4 reported in Tokyo and 2 in Hyogo prefecture showing an increase of 1 compared with the preceding year. (In 1938 there was no rabid animal other than dogs). The number of persons bitten by rabid dogs in 1938 was 5 in Tokyo and 11 in Hyogo prefecture, showing an increase of 13 over the preceding year. The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1938 was 1,770, showing a decrease of 1,978, as compared with the preceding year. Of the above number, 16 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 1,754 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1938 was 194, consisting of 145 established by prefectural governments, 24 by cities, 1 by towns and villages and 24 by private individuals, showing a decrease of 1 in the total number on the preceding year.

If we examine the number of these laboratories according to locality, we find that Shizuoka prefecture had the largest number with 13, followed by Hyogo prefecture with 12, Osaka and Nagasaki prefectures with 8 each, Hokkaido, Miyagi, and Hiroshima prefectures with 7 each, Ibaraki, Yamaguchi, Fukuoka and Kumamoto with 6 each, while the rest of prefectures all had less than five.

The number of bacteriological examinations made by these laboratories in 1938 were 4,902,460, of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 4,246,248 and those not connected therewith 656,212, showing an increase of 456,067 in the total number of examinations on the figures of the preceding year.

Medical Affairs

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1938

was 3,368 (besides, 3 to foreigners), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year, of 9 licences (the number issued to foreigners decreased by 14).

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1938 was 1,164, being an increase of 32 when compared with the preceding year.

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1938 was 22,735, showing an increase over the preceding year of 663 (number of foreigners decreased 3).

Of the above number those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 20,152 which corresponds to 88.64 per cent of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2.79 per 10,000 of the population, and if we examine the ratio of the dental surgeons in prefectures, we find that the highest ratio was that of Tokyo prefecture with 6.14 per 10,000 inhabitants, followed by Osaka with 3.56, Kanagawa with 3.50, Hyogo with 3.23, Aichi with 3.19 and the lowest ratio was that of Okinawa which was 0.66, followed by Iwate with 1.20, Yamagata with 1.33 and Miyagi with 1.54.

As to the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country the ratio was 4.74 for cities and 1.70 for districts per 10,000 inhabitants.

At the end of 1938, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 79 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacists' licences issued in 1938 was 1,970, showing an increase when compared with the preceding year, of 117 licences.

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1938 was 28,766, showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 610 (the number of foreigners decreased 1).

Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacy, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 19,190 (2) the number of those who being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispensing

of medicines was 3,270 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,682. Those coming under (1) correspond to 66.71 per cent of the total number of pharmacists while (2) and (3) represented 11.37 and 5.85 per cent respectively.

Pharmacies and Traders in Medicines. Pharmacies. The number of pharmacies at the end of 1938 was 13,189, of which 12,821 were run by pharmacists and 368 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 62 pharmacies run by the pharmacist and 61 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Traders in Medicines. The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1938 was 30,894, showing a decrease of 28 persons compared with the preceding year; among them, the qualified pharmacists who were engaged in the sale of medicines without opening pharmacies numbered 734 and druggists 30,160. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in designated medicines numbered 4,211, of which those employing pharmacists were 2,399, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 77 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 1,735.

Medicine-Manufacturers. The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1938 was 3,959, being a decrease of 115 from the preceding year. Of these manufacturers, 1,042 were pharmacists, 1,321 those who employ pharmacists, and 1,596 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives The total number of midwives at the end of 1938 was 62,209 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 477 (no change in the number of foreigners) over the preceding year; they may be classified into 5,753 persons who completed the course in designated schools or training institutes, 53,796 who passed the examination, and 2,290 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 369 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution of Midwives The total number of midwives was at the ratio of 8.61 per 10,000 inhabitants, being a decrease of 0.05 from the preceding

year; as to the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country, the ratio was 10.77 in the urban districts and 7.40 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.24 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.01 in the rural districts.

Nurses The total number at the end of 1938 of nurses who had obtained licence from the prefectural offices was 120,010 (of which 5,332 were under-nurses) showing a decrease of 4,392 from the preceding year (the number of under-nurses increased by 779). The

ratio of the above total number to 10,000 of population was 16.62, showing a decrease of 0.84 from the corresponding figures of the preceding year.

The number of male nurses at the end of 1938 to whom licences had been issued by the prefectural offices was 364 showing an increase of 69 over the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicautey, and Shampooing The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicautey, and shampooing whose licences had been issued by the prefectural offices at the end of 1938.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,628	602	3,230	1,395	313	1,708
Moxicautey	*16,930	*3,089	*20,019	*10,104	*2,229	*12,333
Shampooing	3,256	892	4,148	697	197	894
Acupuncture and moxicautey	*17,019	*3,259	*20,278	*7,488	*1,624	*9,112
Acupuncture and shampooing	6,771	3,984	10,755	14,743	9,341	24,084
Moxicautey and shampooing	*13,688	*5,164	*18,852	*22,617	*11,111	*33,728
Acupuncture, moxicautey and shampooing	7,966	1,412	9,378	1,321	271	1,592
Total	1,120	225	1,345	2,404	614	3,018
	581	105	686	486	125	611
	5,216	850	6,066	4,984	1,031	6,015
	27,538	8,070	35,608	26,030	11,892	37,922

Judo treatment for contusion 2,220 (for the whole country) including 8 women.

Note:—Figures marked with * include those persons who carry out additional calling than that given in the heading.

Public Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums, Leprosaria, Infectious Diseases Hospitals, and Hospitals for Prostitutes excluded). At the end of 1938 there were 127 public hospitals, showing an increase of 2 hospitals over the preceding year.

Accommodation	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
for patients				
More than 10	13	17	6	36
" 30	7	12	2	21
" 50	17	13	—	30
" 100	36	4	—	40
Total	73	46	8	127

In the following table are given the capacity for admitting patients and the number of patients admitted in 1938 to these hospitals:

Patient admitting capacity	10,954
Of the above capacity:	
For infectious diseases	811
For tuberculosis	313

Number of patients:

Remaining from the preceding year	5,681
Admitted this year	130,264
Discharged	118,691
Died in hospital	10,560
At the end of the year	6,694
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	3,045,754
Average capacity per hospital	86.25
Average number of in-patients per hospital	1,070.43
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	22.40

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded). The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1938 was 2,981 (of which 97 had been established by the public juridical persons and 8 by foreigners), which when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 74 hospitals.

The following table gives the number of these hospitals in urban and rural districts according to their capacity of admitting patients:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
With capacity for more than 10	1,407	597	208	2,212
" " " " " 30	261	127	37	425
" " " " " 50	154	51	25	230
" " " " " 100	95	16	3	114
" Total " " " " "	1,917	791	273	2,981

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified according to the diseases they treat:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
Medicine	1,006	584	201	1,791
Surgery	368	97	28	493
Paediatrics	60	7	2	69
Ophthalmology	116	39	23	178
Obstetrics and gynaecology	213	42	17	272
Dermatology and venereal and genito-urinary diseases	54	4	—	58
Otorhinolaryngology	97	18	2	117
Dental surgery	—	—	—	—
Others	3	—	—	3
Total	1,917	791	273	2,981

In the following table are given the figures in connection with capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients etc. in the private hospitals:

Capacity	87,595
Of the above:	
Infectious diseases	4,566
Tuberculosis	2,807
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	31,010
Admitted in 1938	715,572
Left the hospital	671,357
Died in hospital	41,817
At the end of 1938	33,408
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	13,033,135
Average capacity per hospital	29.38
Average number of in-patients per hospital	250.45
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	17.46

Charity Hospitals (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded). The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1938 was 55, of which 13 were public and 42 private hospitals, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 2 public hospitals and 7 private hospitals.

The following table gives the capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	4,141
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,925
Admitted in 1938	*196
Left the hospital	26,423
Died in hospital	*6,442
At the end of 1938	22,296
At the end of 1938	*5,982
At the end of 1938	4,087
At the end of 1938	*416
At the end of 1938	2,965
At the end of 1938	*240
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	1,174,281
Average capacity per hospital	*103,487
Average number of in-patients per hospital	75.29
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	654.29
Percentage of paying patients	35.51
Percentage of paying patients	18.45%

Note:—*indicates the number of paying patients.

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums at the end of 1938 was 158, consisting of 12 public and 146 private asylums, show-

ing an increase over the preceding year of 7 private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	21,883
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	17,599
Admitted in 1938	*7,687
Left the asylum	23,467
Died in asylum	*17,756
At the end of 1938	18,079
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	*14,794
Average capacity per asylum	4,413
Average number of in-patients per asylum	*2,149
Average number of days in asylum of a patient	18,574
Percentage of paying patients	*8,500
	3,392,785
	*3,390,573
	138.50
	259.91
	165.18
	61.96%

*Indicates the number of paying patients.

Tuberculosis Hospitals The number of government, public and private tuberculosis hospitals at the end of 1938 were one Governmental, 37 public and 115 private hospitals, (four of which had been established by foreigners), showing an increase of 7 public and 30 private hospitals as compared with preceding year.

The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	14,138
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	9,091
Admitted in 1938	*4,131
Left the hospital	24,044
Died in hospital	*14,769
At the end of 1938	14,325
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	*10,246
	7,796
	*3,636
	11,015
	*5,018
	2,083,111
	*1,593,263

Average capacity per hospital	92.41
Average number of in-patients per hospital	216.57
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	110.95
Percentage of paying patients	57.04%

*Indicate the number of paying patients.

Leprosaria The total number of the Government, public and private leprosaria at the end of 1938 was 17 (one of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of 5 Government, 5 public and 7 private leprosaria. If we examine those leprosaria according to locality, we find that three were in Kumamoto, two each in Guma, Tokyo, Okayama and Okinawa prefectures and one each in Aomori, Yamashiro, Shizuoka, Kagawa, Fukuoka and Kagoshima prefectures. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	8,108
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,871
Admitted in 1938	*13
Left the leprosarium	2,493
Died in leprosarium	*9
At the end of 1938	1,204
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	*5
	521
	*1
	7,639
	*16
	2,549,645
	*5,370
	476.94
	552.12
	272.22
	0.23%

*Indicates the number of patients who bear the whole or a part of their expenses.

The following are the figures concerning the national leprosaria of "Nagashima Aiselen," "Kuryu Rakusen," "Hoshizuka Keialen," "Miyako-en," "Ryoyojo" and "Kunikami Airakuen":

	Nagashima Aiseien	Kuryu Rakusen	Hoshi- zuka Kelaen	Miyako Ryoyojo	Kuni- kami Airaku- en
Capacity of admitting patients	1,200	700	720	200	250
Number of in-patients:					
Remaining from the preceding year	1,338	433	444	217	—
Admitted in 1938	323	247	448	49	333
Discharged	199	59	117	36	20
Died	71	35	67	10	2
At the end of 1938	1,391	586	708	220	311
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	506,350	185,035	164,880	79,199	39,299
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	304.85	272.11	184.84	297.74	119.09

(Note: See Chapter XXX, Social Work.)

In 1941, 5 public leprosaria were transferred to Governmental management, and there are now 11 national leprosaria in the country. The total number of lepers is estimated at 15,000, only 8,839 of which were protected by these 11 national leprosaria and other private leprosaria in 1941.

Infectious Diseases Hospitals, Isolation Wards, and Isolation Houses (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of infectious diseases hospitals at the end of 1938 was 1,008, (a decrease of 2 hospitals from the preceding year), consisting of 122 established by cities, 719 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations, and 167 established by town or village associations or other similar associations. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 24,160 in total (an increase of 905 over the preceding year), making an average of 23.97 per hospital (an increase of 0.95).

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 6,970, (a decrease of 74 from the preceding year) consisting of 60 established by cities, 6,493 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 417 by the town or village associations or similar association; and the admitting capacity in these isolation wards was 68,488 in total, (a decrease of 758 on the preceding year), the average per ward coming to 9.38 (there was no change).

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1938 was 66, (there was no change as compared with the preceding year) of which 8 were those established by cities, 54 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, 4

by the town or village associations or similar associations. The estimated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,672 (a decrease of 27 from the preceding year) the average capacity per house coming to 25.33 persons (a decrease of 0.41).

At the end of 1938, there were 46 disinfecting stations (established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases), showing a decrease of 1 in their number from that of the preceding year.

Medicines The total number of persons who have reported in 1938 to the respective prefectural offices of the manufacture, importation and sale of medicines and preparations not to be found in any pharmacopoeia was 853 and the number of medicines reported 2,926, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 126 persons and an increase of 292 medicines.

Patent Medicines The total number of patent medicine traders at the end of 1938 was 43,699, showing an increase of 272 as compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of this total number, 12,663 were pharmacists, 3,578 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, 3,150 those persons who employ pharmacists, 16,344 those persons who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations and 7,892 those who come under Art. XXV of the same law, while there were 72 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

At the end of 1938 the total number of patent medicines for which permission for manufacture or importation was given was 395,186 (of which 163 were imported), showing an increase of 7,676 when compared with the figures of the

preceding year, (permissions for importation decreased by 8).

Japan's pharmaceutical industry has made considerable progress since the termination of World War I in 1918, and the country at present is nearly self-sufficient as far as the manufacture of chemicals for war products is concerned, as the process for utilization of by-products from dry distillation of coal has realized remarkable advancement. This country is now able to produce chemicals of the best quality in accordance with the pharmacopoeia requirements of various countries.

The outstanding products are phenol, salicylic acid, antifebrin, phenacetin, antipyrin, aspirin, aminopyrin, guajacol, tannic acid, gallic acid, morphine salts,

quinine salts and others.

Japan has now reached a stage of self-sufficiency in these chemicals, the industry having made considerable progress of late. Before the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, Japan's chemical industry, as far as these products are concerned, had already attained the world level in both quality and quantity. Products were exported not only to various Oriental countries, but even to Germany and the United States, both of which are centers of European and American chemical industry.

Medical Education and Research Organizations for medical education and research in Japan total 735 in 1942, according to Dr. Takenouchi, and are as follows:

Institutions	Aver. Number of Chairs	Total
8 Medical Faculties of the Imperial Universities	22	178
8 Government Medical Universities	20	160
4 Private Medical Universities	23	93
14 Medical Colleges, both for men and for women	20	280
11 Dental Colleges	(*)	11
18 Pharmaceutical Colleges	(*)	18
		735

Note: (*) Each college mentioned as one chair.

Medical organizations other than educational totaling 810 in 1942, include 20 independent institutes for medical research; 14 municipal hygienic laboratories; 102 hygienic sections of prefectural and municipal offices; 125 hospitals for policemen and prisoners; 105 medical colleges and hospitals of the Imperial Army, Navy and of Army Divisions, etc.; 25 hospitals of the Imperial Railway Department; 88 prefectural hospitals and laboratories; 165 municipal hospitals; 80 hospitals in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung Leased Territory and South Sea Mandated Islands; 32 Japanese Red Cross hospitals; 37 Saisei Kai (Charity) hospitals; and 17 hospitals of private foundations, including those of private universities.

The National Eugenic Law was promulgated in May 1940 and enforced as from July 1, 1941. The number of persons coming under the application of the law is estimated at 300,000 in the country. The hereditary diseases designated by the provisions of the law as diseases the patients of which shall be compulsorily treated comprise 3 nervous diseases, 3 kinds of nervous weakness, 3 kinds of weak constitution, 33 physical diseases and 8 kinds of deformity.

Japan Medical Corporation The Cabinet meeting held on January 7, 1942, adopted a bill for new medical measures and it was passed by the 79th session of the Imperial Diet. The purpose of the new medical law is to ensure proper medical treatment for all persons throughout the country to keep up the national physical strength in the time of war, creating a medical juridical person composed of all medical practitioners and dentists in Japan. The Japan Medical Corporation was created under the new Medical Law on July 1, 1942, with a capital of 100 million yen. The first president of the new corporation is Dr. Ryukichi Inada, honorary professor of Tokyo and Kyushu Imperial Universities and member of the Imperial Academy. All medical practitioners and dentists and their work are controlled by the State through the Japan Medical Corporation to make them render full service to the nation, accepting any call which may come from any place or at any time assigned by the Corporation under the supervision of the Minister of Welfare.

(In regard to deaths by causes and ages during 1937 and 1938 see pp. 717-720, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

CHAPTER XXXII
PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

Anti Tuberculosis Vaccine

Therapeutic, Prophylactic
& Diagnostic Use

Capitulation of the 1,128 answers obtained during 1928-1931 from physicians and hospitals using A-O regarding its therapeutic efficiency.

Afflictions	Patients	Com- pletely cured	Partially cured	Total of completely and partially cured
Pulmonary tuberculosis:				
Light	12,249	8,466 (69%)	3,127 (25%)	94%
Middle	6,983	3,009 (43.9%)	2,912 (41.6%)	85.5%
Severe	2,845	392 (14%)	923 (32.4%)	46%
Glandular tuberculosis ...	2,181	1,301 (59.6%)	693 (31.3%)	90.9%
Tuberculosis of bones and joints	713	297 (41.6%)	296 (41.5%)	83%
Ophthalmological tuberculosis ...	829	510 (61.5%)	256 (30.8%)	92.3%
Dermal tuberculosis	255	125 (49%)	110 (43%)	92%
Urogenital tuberculosis	405	161 (39.8%)	156 (38.5%)	78%
Pleurisy and Peritonitis	3,883	2,559 (68.5%)	942 (26.8%)	95.3%
Bronchial asthma	841	307 (36.6%)	209 (35.6%)	70.2%
Fistula and others	251	117 (46.7%)	83 (33%)	79.7%

Literatures & Clinical reports to be
supplied upon request



Discovered by
Prof. DR. R. ARIMA,
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TUBERCULOSIS IMMUNOGEN

CHARACTERS

1. It is sterile and so absolutely non-pathogenic.
2. It is easily absorbed in an organism.
3. It is composed of tubercle bacilli whose protoplasm retains its native functionary powers.
4. It is prepared from tubercle bacilli cultivated from such stems as possess strong immunological power.
5. It is a pure immunogen with no stimulating allergen and so causes no unpleasant secondary reaction.
6. Its antigen unit, or immunological value, is exactly measured out and so its aptitudinal doses can be mathematically ascertained.

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CHAPTER XXXII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

From some region of the Asiatic continent where the center of the ancient world culture is believed to have existed, premedieval sort of scientific knowledge flowed to the West, such as Persia, Arabia and Greece, and to the East. The eastward movement directly and through China and Korea influenced Japan. Such native knowledge of technical arts as had existed in Japan blended with the imported civilization. After hundreds of years of slow development, activity was about to rise and then in the 16th century western scientific knowledge was introduced by the Portuguese. In this section, a brief sketch is given about the contribution of the Japanese toward the march of science in Japan from the olden days until the opening of the country to the world during the 19th century, followed by a record of the noteworthy accomplishments of recent years, some of which have received world-wide recognition.

Astronomy For the years between 15 B.C. and 1600 A.D. a total of 6,053 records embracing 2,688 cases of astronomical observations exist in Japan, including 576 solar eclipses. All appearances of the Halley comet since 684 have been recorded except the one in 760. The observations include the approach of the same comet on July 16, 912, for which occurrence documentary evidences are lacking in other parts of the world. The magnitude of the comet which made its appearance some 700 years ago was measured only in Japan and in no other country.

Medicine In 808 A.D. during Daido era a medical work called Daido Ruijuho was compiled in Japan. Another, also based on clinical experience gained in the country, came out in 859 or thereabouts. But both these books have been lost. However, there has been preserved a 50-volume work titled Ishinho, written by Tamba-Yasuyori in 982. It includes chapters on respiratory diseases, diseases of internal organs, skin, eye, ear, teeth and limbs, discourse on tumors, eruptions, wounds, children's and women's

ailments, hygiene and pharmacology. Those were times when Chinese medical knowledge came to Japan through Korea.

According to Hakuon Saegusa, one of the famous research scholars, the study of drugs in a scientific manner began with the first great contribution "Yakukyo Taiso," by Wakeno-Hiroyo of early Heian period.

The first anaesthetic ever discovered in this country was that extracted from a poisonous plant called, "Kusa-no-o"—*Chelidonium majus* L.—which a physician used successfully in an operation of mammary cancer in 1805, giving no pain whatever to the patient. This antedates the discoveries of ether and chloroform abroad by some 30 or 40 years.

Natural History One of the early works published on the subject was out during the reign of Emperor Godaigo, 1318-1339. Dr. Yoshito Shinoto, of Tokyo Imperial University, points out. Ono-Ranzan, 1729-1810, together with an associate illustrated 100 herbs and 100 other plants.

Their book entitled *Kwai* was translated into French by Savatier, medical officer at Yokosuka, in 1873. Ono lectured on "Yamato Honzo," by Kaibara-Ekken, 1630-1714. At the age of 71, Ono was appointed by the Tokugawa government to direct various research activities. Under him studied Inuma-Yokusai, 1783-1865, who modelled his work after the method of Linné and illustrated Japanese plants.

His work contributed greatly toward breaking away from the old Japanese method of study. In 1874 two Japanese associated with Savatier revised volumes of "Somoku Zusetsu," work of Inuma. Hiraga-Gennai in 1759 became the president of the Natural Products Association which a few years later investigated over 1,300 varieties of natural history specimens gathered from all over the country. Contacting Dutch and Chinese scholars at Nagasaki, he wrote two books entitled "Notes on Animals with Illustrations by the Aid of Hollanders," and

"Annotations on European Plants by the Aid of Hollanders."

Physical Study Another invention of Hiraga's, in 1770, was a demonstrative device to generate electricity through friction of sheet metal with a sawed-off glass bottle which was rotated. He surprised many feudal lords by demonstrating this experiment in their presence. The electricity thus generated is then conducted to a glass bottle stuffed with iron scraps for storage. He used this set for electro-therapeutic purpose. There exist two such sets today made by Gennai himself. Some of the notable inventions made by this versatile inventor beside the foregoing are: asbestos cloth, woolen cloth, porcelain ware, magnetic compass, level, thermometer, mosquito trapper, etc.

Lord Tokugawa-Nariaki, 1800-60, possessed chemicals and batteries with which electrolysis was studied. Those relics still exist today. Sakuma-Shozan, an erudite scientist and patriot, developed a permanent magnet, by the use of which he perfected a mechanism which could predict earthquakes, the occurrence of an earthquake being indicated by a piece of iron sticking to the magnet, and by means of a bell attached to the iron piece an alarm was automatically sounded apprising the people of an impending earthquake. He also invented an electro-therapeutic instrument for curing cholera, a silk covered copper wire, an electric cell, etc.

Stories are told of unsuccessful attempts at aerial flights in old days such as the story of a person of Yoshino county who during 720-48 attempted to launch himself into the air on a paper hanger resembling a kite from a hillside, but failed in his attempt. An experiment in flying is credited to a native of Loochoo Islands who lived some 270 years ago. His invention seems to have been a sort of glider, something like a kite in shape, in which the rider sat and flew up in the sky by pedalling the ropes and by utilizing the elasticity of the latter, thus causing the wings to flap up and down; in other words a muscular flight by means of leg-driven propellers was supposed to have been devised. While no detailed description of the plane is available, the inventor is said to have actually flown some distance with this device.

Down in the era of Kansen (1789-1801) a similar attempt was made by a man named Kokichi who built a kind

of airplane by computing the relative ratio of the weight of a bird and its wings. By flying down from a high precipice, he is reported to have been successful, which was instantly reported to the local magistrate, and Kokichi was deported from the district on the charge of having unduly disturbed the peace of the locality. This antedated the glider invented by Otto Lillenthal (1848-1896) by approximately one century.

Firearms and Explosives Bohiya (fire-arrow) corresponds to a shell or an incendiary bomb of today, developed by Miki-Shigedayu during the era of Genna (1615-1624). At the muzzle of this primitive rifle is charged an arrow shaped shot containing powder, which chiefly consists of incendiary powder. It sparks and draws a trail of fire when fired, and hits, explodes and burns the objective. Its shooting range is said to have attained 220-330 meters.

A gun-carriage for a cannon was invented in this country in 1778. This was capable of permitting its revolution up to 180 degrees and elevation up to 80 degrees, which is in every way comparable with the carriage of an anti-aircraft gun of today. An improved invention of the same kind was also made in 1809.

In 1813 a kind of flint-lock gun was invented by Kume Michikata, which was of a better type than the so called Napoleon gun, which was popular in Europe in those days. The same inventor also developed a water pump.

In 1843 a physician by the name of Yoshio-Tsunezo invented an explosive—fulminate of mercury, by the action of mercuric nitrate on alcohol. This was found to be too quick in ignition and while in the course of experiment, a bottle containing the mercury fulminate exploded and a fragment of glass tore the artery of the inventor's arm, and he died of loss of blood. A year earlier a detonator was invented in Holland, but Tsunezo's invention was in no way an imitation of the Dutch device.

Getting an idea from a Dutch gun, an unknown inventor in 1819 invented an airgun equipped with a magazine capable of holding 20 shots in the barrel. This is being on display at the Yushukan Hall, Kudan, Tokyo.

The fact that a breech-loading rifle capable of firing ten shots in a minute was invented in Japan in 1856 is indeed remarkable. All the rifles imported

until that time were exclusively of muzzle-loading type, and the first breech-loading rifle ever imported into this country was a Snider rifle imported ten years later in 1866.

The invention of a gun-carriage has been mentioned already, but the casting of a barrel having a caliber larger than 182 centimeters had been considered a total impossibility. On the other hand, lack of copper or bronze, of which gun-barrels had been made until then, impressed those responsible with the acute necessity of producing a barrel made of cast iron. This led to the construction of a reverberatory furnace, and some half a dozen furnaces were constructed in this country in an eight year period from 1852 to 1860.

Engineering In 745 A.D. the Great Image of Buddha 53½ feet high was cast from 600 tons of copper and 398 pounds of gold was used for gilding, also 1,954 pounds of mercury. The wooden building, 156 feet in height, soars, with a couple of pagodas, 320 feet high. This remarkable engineering feat is a proof of the advancement made in technical arts in those days. Tracing a little further back in the history of this country, the Shosoin of Nara was built in the same compound of the Todaiji temple, where the cast Buddha is stored, where rare objects owned by the Imperial Household are treasured. The building is constructed in the style of log-house using not a single nail or metal fitting and can be counted as one of the outstanding achievements in the architectural development of the country.

The soaring donjons of the castles at Nagoya and Himeji are unique examples of the highly advanced architectural engineering in which the Japanese excelled so early in history. Hisahide Matsunaga is credited with the initiation of the art in the era of Eiroku (1558-1570). It is the symbol of composite harmony of mathematics, physics and chemistry.

The thick cloud of mystery which for long shrouded the reasons for undisputed merits of the Japanese sword remained undissolved even with the highly advanced metallurgical engineering in Europe and America. Among that galaxy of noted swordsmiths, all exceptionally adept in the development of swords, and whose names are recorded in the annals of the famed swords, perhaps the most outstanding

was Okazaki Goro Masamune, who in the reign of Emperor Fushimi (1287-1298) invented the use of molybdenum and chestnut charcoal and specially studied temperature of hot water and succeeded in developing an excellent sword which had never been produced prior to his time.

That the Japanese as a race are amply endowed with the talent of invention is well exemplified by that of "Torinoko Paper"—a stout smooth paper, which was used for the historic document of the Peace Treaty at the termination of the First European War. "Torinoko" paper is said to have been invented, as far back as 1,300 years ago by the illustrious prince, Shotoku Taishi (573-621).

It is beyond all conjecture how the arts of brewery, salt-production, dyeing, metallurgy, and ceramics had been developed early in the age of gods (prior to 600 B.C.). Glass beads are one in point, which although considered as having been imported, can be proved to have been of native origin. Together with glass beads, Shippo zaiku—cloisonné ware—had been used from ancient times.

Other items of interest are the water-clock invented in 660 A.D., the water-mill in the era of Tencho (824-833), the oil press and the tackle block in the era of Jogwan (859-876), and toilet powder in the reign of Empress Jito (686-696).

Other dates of some significance in the realm of engineering are cited by Dr. Sakuro Tanabe as follows: 668 A.D., coal and oil discovered in Yechigo Province; 607, Horyu temple built; 1614, a cannon was made by means of paper; 1510, a Chinese resident at Sakai imported firearms; 1589, Yedo castle, that was later transformed into the present Imperial Palace in Tokyo, was constructed; 1810, Ino-Tadataka began surveying the whole coastline of Japan and 1849, Satsuma turned out a telegraph machine.

Mathematics In a very crude form mathematics existed in Japan since the far distant days of ancient times according to Dr. Kinnosuke Ogura, noted student of Japanese mathematics. Then, in the Tokugawa period old scholars took up abacus-algebra derived from China and despite its being fraught with peculiar difficulties they soon mastered this version of algebra completely. In fact the Tokugawa mathematicians went

further by entirely transforming this abacus method to a written system chiefly as a result of the efforts of Seki-Kowa (1708) and his associates. It is noteworthy that it took only 50 years during the feudal age, for this new knowledge to be assimilated and a new system to be developed by the Japanese savants. Tatebe-Kenko (1664-1739) and others of Seki's pupils initiated a method, resembling calculus, for obtaining the circumference and area of a circle. Improved in 1781 it became almost exactly like integration as it is known today. Further improved by Wada-Yasushi (1787-1840) it was so developed as to match the present integration method. To mention only one instance, Seki preceded Leibnitz by more than a decade in unfolding the theory of determinant. Yet, during the turbulent period of the downfall of the Tokugawa rule, it began to be realized that the Japanese form of symbols and signs were unfit for navigational computation and inferior to Western mathematics. Hence the Japanese system of mathematics had to give way to the Western version then imported. For a time early in the Meiji era the Japanese were too busy learning Occidental mathematics. At present wave geometricians of Hiroshima group, as they are known, draw world attention.

Theoretical Effort Ito-Jinsai, 1629-1705, Confucian scholar of Kyoto and notably Miura-Balen, 1723-89, a country doctor in Bungo Province, expounded a monism of matter as against the dualism of principle and matter, that was the kernel of Chu Tze's interpretation of Chinese philosophy preceding him. Chu Tze's version was then regarded highly in Japan. But Miura expounded his own natural philosophy.

Saegusa points out that no parallel to Miura's conception can be found in the whole vista of Oriental philosophy. Minakawa-Kien also made valuable contributions toward the definition of matter and has earned a place for himself in the Japanese history of scientific thought.

After the Meiji Restoration

Scientific progress during the Meiji era (1868-1912) was mainly in the education of all branches of modern science in schools and introduction of Western learning by foreign professors engaged by governmental universities and Japan-

ese scholars who had made studies in Europe and America.

Medical science, however, was most advanced in Japan because of its early introduction into the country from China and later through Dutch scholars, and Japan made valuable contributions toward the progress of medical science of the world through the achievements by such bacteriologists as Dr. Shibasaburo Kitasato (1852-1931) and Dr. Hideyo Noguchi (1876-1928).

Dr. Ryokichi Yatabe (1851-1899), a disciple of Prof. Asa Gray of America, was the first professor of botany in Tokyo Imperial University and botany was taught in Japan as pure science for the first time. He made translations of Gray's "An Outline of Plants" and Morse's book on zoology, and wrote himself a book "Illustrations and Explanation of Japanese Plants." Dr. Jinzo Matsumura (1856-1928), his assistant, later became professor of Tokyo Imperial University, and published many books on botany. His works are considered an authority on botany.

Another well known botanist in Japan is Dr. Tomitaro Makino (1862-). He is better known as a civilian scientist than a lecturer in the university, and has contributed greatly to the botanical education of the masses of the people. He wrote many papers and books, among which may be named the serial work "Illustrations of the Flora of Japan," beginning with 1888.

Invention of the airplane is universally credited to Wright brothers of the United States of America in 1903, but it is seldom known that some 13 years earlier, the same was accomplished in this country by Chuachi Ninomiya, a medical officer in the army. It was on the night of April 29, 1891, at the Marugame parade ground that model airplane soared up to the sky and flew some 30 meters. It had canvas propellers back of the seat which could hardly be called a cockpit. The propellers were set in motion in the manner of a cyclist pedalling his bicycle. It is regrettable that in spite of the subsequent outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war (1894-1895) this was not commercialized.

In the line of arms, Murata's rifle in 1885 and Arisaka's quick-firing field-gun in 1898 are conspicuous and both served a great deal towards the cause of national defense.

In the field of electricity, the inven-

tion of the T.Y.K. wireless telephone perfected by Dr. Uichi Torigata in 1912 is perhaps most noteworthy. How the wireless telegraph invented and developed by Shunkichi Kimura and Matsunosuke Matsushiro in 1902 rendered the most vital service to the nation in the naval battle on the Japan Sea (May 27-8, 1905) hardly needs any comment. Another significant contribution was by Dr. Hidetaro Otori who perfected the static oscillograph in 1911.

The machine for steaming raw tea leaves developed by Kenzo Takabayashi in 1885 revolutionized the tea producing industry of Japan and served in no small measure toward increasing the output of green tea in this country. Other items of interest are the noodle and vermicelli manufacturing machine by Terusato Masaki in 1888; salt making pans by Kasuke Takata in 1896; sugar solution evaporator by Tozaburo Suzuki in 1903; paste for resist-dyeing by Issaku Nishimuro in 1904; method of distinguishing male and female among silkworms by Dr. Shigetane Ishiwata in 1904; hygienic tin making material, commonly called lacquered tin by Kenichi Miyazaki in 1907; method of preservation of nets from rotting by Eisaburo Hidaka in 1908.

The hand filature by Naosaburo Minorikawa in 1892 and silk spinning by Seichi Sakane in 1907 served a great deal in bringing the respective industries to what they are today. Mention should not fail to be made of the name of Sakichi Toyoda who invented an automatic power loom in 1895 which is so powerful and efficient that it literally revolutionized the textile industry both in Japan and abroad. Other inventions of interest in this line are the net weaving machine by Senichi Hiroi in 1909, the fancy mat weaving machine by Suiki Isozaki in 1885 and the mat weaving machine by Noboru Terajima in 1902.

The mimeograph of Shinjiro Horii in 1894 is an interesting invention and some 850 patents are held of this printing machine and large quantities are being exported abroad. Some other machines invented which deserve special mention are: the water tube boiler by Baron Dr. Jiro Miyahara in 1897 magnet core for generators and motors by Dr. Keiji Kishi in 1901; the axial and parallel flow waterwheel by Masataka Tazawa in 1909; and the improved rice pounding machine by Heizo

Ishikawa in 1911.

In the chemical field the refining process of zinc white by Jyujiro Mogi in 1897, "Aji-no-moto" by Dr. Kikunae Ikeda in 1908, "Adrenalin" and "Takadiastase" by Dr. Jokichi Takamine in 1901 and 1909 respectively, "Oltzanin" or Vitamin B by Dr. Umetero Suzuki in 1911, "Tetradotoxin" by Dr. Yoshizumi Tawara in 1911, and lime nitrogen by Dr. Tsuneichi Fujiyama in 1911 are some of the most outstanding.

The foregoing inventions are some of the outstanding ones made after the Patent Law came in force in 1885. Some notable ones prior to that time being: Rikishaw by Yosuke Izumi, cotton flannel by Jyusuke Seto, and the dyeing process of the so called "printed" muslin.

The Eras of Taisho and Showa

The seeds that had been sown during the Meiji era began to sprout in all splendor after the advent of the Taisho era. Brilliant achievements marked the development of the scientific world of this country since the beginning of the Taisho era (1912-1925), some of which are mentioned below:

Process of producing lead monoxide powder by Genzo Shimadzu is perhaps the most outstanding achievement. Patented in Japan, England, U.S.A., Germany and France, the patent right was purchased by the U.S.L. Company of the United States of America in 1932. The celebrated high magnet steel known as M.K. magnet steel throughout the world, invented by Dr. Tokushichi Mishima, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University hardly needs any introduction. While it was considered theoretically impossible to produce a high magnetic steel of more than 250 oersteds, Dr. Mishima succeeded in producing a high magnetic steel of 900 oersteds to the astonishment of the whole world.

Indeed the appearance of famed scientists and inventors like Dr. Kotaro Honda, Dr. Masatoshi Okochi and Dr. Toragoro Tanahashi in close succession is highly felicitous. It is, however, well nigh impossible to make mention of each and every one of the numerous inventions made since the Taisho era. It would perhaps be pertinent here to introduce those scholars and inventors who had the privilege and honor of having been invited to the Imperial luncheon on two occasions, the first

taking place on December 11, 1930, and the second on May 23, 1939, as these gentlemen outshine all others in view of their glorious works accomplished.

The Imperial luncheon was granted on December 11, 1930, to a group of ten inventors consisting of the following: Umetaro Suzuki, inventor of the patent No. 20785, process of extracting abery acid out of rice-bran, and patent No. 39501, substitute of Sake which dispenses with the use of rice; Kyota Sugimoto, patent No. 27878, typewriter for Japanese, and patent No. 34521, type founding equipment; Kokichi Mikimoto, patent Nos. 29409, 33640 and 34138, pearl layer covering process; Tadaoki Yamamoto, patent No. 39641, synchronous motor, patent No. 30045, a special inductor alternator; Ryotaro Mitsuda, patent No. 32640, mercury lightning arrester; Chiharu Kakizaki, process of producing a prophylactic vaccine against cattle plague; Genzo Shimadzu, patent No. 41728, process of producing lead monoxide powder; Kotaro Honda, patent Nos. 32234 and 32422, special alloys; Tsunekichi Takuma, patent Nos. 23759 and 28173, steam generator and boiler water circulation accelerator respectively; Yasujiro Niwa, patent Nos. 84247, 84722, 85028, 85029 and 86775, transmission system, modulation system of photograph transmission, photograph transmission system, and commutation system and four others

At the second Imperial luncheon held on May 23, 1939, another ten inventors had the privilege of being invited: Tokushichi Mishima, inventor of patent No. 96371, magnet steel containing nickel and aluminium; Masatoshi Okochi, patent Nos. 103718, 103995 and 104871, equipment for the production of electrolyte of hydrated magnesium chloride, magnesium electrolytic equipment, drying process of hydrated magnesium electrolyte respectively, and again patent No. 70144 covering the production of piston rings; Kinzo Okamura, patent No. 69920, oil shale carbonisation process; Tsunesaburo Umene, patent No. 42972, dressing process of hematite and limonite ores; Toragoro Tanahashi, patent Nos. 101579 and 112035, production process of chromate, and patent No. 28944 covering the production process of chlorate; Hiroshi Ando, patent Nos. 80948 and 78309, multi-electrode vacuum tube and its connecting device, also patent No. 78713, synchroscope; Solchiro Asao, patent No.

89965, 93174 and 110633 all covering photocells; Issaku Koga, patent Nos. 95637, 117015 and 120478 covering piezo-electric oscillators, and improvement on quartz crystal; Kinjiro Okabe, patent Nos. 124419 and 124749, vacuum tubes for ultra short waves and micro waves; and Yasuhiko Asahina, patent Nos. 88562, 93222, 107423 and 110695, production process of paraoxycamphor, and its isomer, production process of 7 π apocamphor carboxylic acid out of camphor oil and again production process of trans π oxocamphor out of isoketopinic acid chloride.

Day-light Movie Screen The Riken, the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research, placed on the market a novel screen, which enables movie films to be shown in broad day light or under a brilliant chandelier.

Patented in England, France, Belgium, Switzerland, the United States and Canada, and with patents pending in other countries, this Riken De-Light Movie Screen, otherwise called "Tokyo Screen," was developed by Dr. Takeo Shimidzu of the Institute through years of hard and untiring research work. Although a casual inspection does not reveal any particular peculiarity, this screen is the fruit of an extremely complicated theory of optics.

Briefly, the Tokyo Screen consists of a mass of thousands of fine celluloid pieces in the form of lens, the back of which is painted in black, leaving the convex parts of the lenses unpainted. This makes the screen appear colorless in front and black on its reverse. When a beam is flashed through the screen from behind, for this screen is so arranged, each of the miniature lenses absorbs the beam, and the screen projects complete and clear vision of the picture on its front just as an ordinary film is projected by darkening the room.

The World's Largest 100,000 KVA Water Turbo Generator The Shibaura Division of the Tokyo-Shibaura Electric Company, which is technically affiliated with the General Electric Company of America, completed, at its Tsurumi plant in June 1940, a 100,000 KVA water turbo generator, creating an epoch-making engineering achievement ever accomplished in Japan.

This new water wheel generator is to be installed at the Suifu hydro-electric power plant on the Yalu River by which

this river which borders Chosen and Manchoukuo will be harnessed.

Upon completion, the proposed power plant will excel the famed power plant of the Hoover Dam, also known as the Boulder Dam, in the Black Canyon of the Colorado River in the United States. This plant is intended to furnish enough power to meet the requirements of principal cities both in Manchoukuo and Chosen lying in districts along the said river.

With vertical, revolving field and enclosed ventilation, this world's largest generator is capable of developing 100,000KVA at 125/150 r.p.m. 16,500 volts, three phase, 50/60 cycles, and 48 poles, with a power factor of 1-0.9. Having a total weight of 1,110 metric tons, with its rotor weighing 700 tons and main shaft 65 tons, this generator can manage a thrust load of 1,190 tons.

Natural Color Photography The century-old puzzle of natural color photography has now been answered by the Konishi-Roku, Ltd., otherwise known as the Rokuo-sha, Tokyo, one of the largest makers of cameras and photo supplies in Japan, who announced the attainment of natural color positive photographs through their own unique process, and incidentally tri-color films and chromogenic developing paper to be used in conjunction for the development of a still picture in natural colors.

The "Sakura" natural color film, as it is known consists of five layers of different thicknesses placed on a base of noninflammable celluloid. The first layer consists of emulsion which is sensitive to blue-purple light and absorbs yellow; the first intermediate layer which acts as filter at the time of photographing consists of yellow colloidal silver; the second emulsion layer which is sensitive to green light takes care of red; the second intermediate layer consists of red colloidal silver and works as a filter; the third and the last emulsion layer is sensitive to scarlet and takes care of blue.

In other words, the new natural color film which was developed by the enterprising makers consists of three layers having two intermediate layers with a total thickness of 3/100 mm.

The "Sakura" tri-color film and "Sakura" chromogenic developing paper were developed following the invention of the above film and are the first of their kind in the whole world. The instantaneous and simultaneous shoot-

ing of tri-color negatives and that by the use of an ordinary camera were perfected at the laboratory of the Rokuo-sha in the form of the tri-color film and this in conjunction with the patented chromogenic developing paper and the special developing process evolved constitute a most valuable contribution made by the concern to the photographic industry last year, when the nation was celebrating the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire.

The tri-color film consists, as the name suggests, of a combination of three different films, the first layer or the film is of an ordinary emulsion of low light sensitivity without any color sensitivity, its back being covered by yellow gelatin; the second film is an orthochromatic emulsion film of medium light sensitivity with crimson layer at its back, and the third and the last film is of a panchromatic emulsion film of high light sensitivity with green layer at its back. These films are placed one upon the other in the order given and held in between two sheer glass plates.

Cosmic Rays Research Being Conducted by Nishina Research Institute The distribution of cosmic rays according to differences in altitude, at the time of the total eclipse of the sun, and according to differences in latitude on the sea, has been the subject of elaborate researches by Dr. Yoshio Nishina and his assistants of Nishina Research of the Riken, the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research. On the other hand a further study as to the infiltrating strength of the cosmic rays through the earth was conducted by the scientists deep in the Shimizu tunnel, Shizuoka prefecture, dropping to a depth of 3,600 feet in some places. Here installing measuring instruments and apparatus within a man-hole of the tunnel, the scientists labored and confirmed the theory that the said strength at points from 1,500 to 3,600 feet below the surface of the earth is in inverse ratio to the cube of the depth.

Further researches are being conducted at the same spot as to what constitute the cosmic rays, whether they consist of electrons alone or some other particles as well, which remains a perpetual enigma to the scientists.

Dr. Nishina in collaboration with Dr. Daigoro Moriawaki of Tokyo Higher School, is further working on the solution of another puzzle, namely, whether

cosmic rays would affect the heredity of all living things thereby giving rise to spasmodic anomalies (metamorphosis) through the use of fruit flies at the same spot where cosmic rays so rarely penetrate.

Accomplishment in 1940 Prof. Hideki Yukawa, of Kyoto Imperial University, for a theoretical study on the interaction of particles, forecasting the existence of mesotron in the cosmic rays; Prof. Toshiro Horiuchi, of Hokkaido Imperial University, for theoretical and experimental studies on the speed of chemical reaction.

For his successful experiments in changing hens into roosters, Prof. Kiyoshi Masui of Tokyo Imperial University was granted a prize by the Japan Agriculturists Association.

Engineer Yoshio Ishida of the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research was successful in developing a wool substitute by effecting a physico-chemical treatment of collagen obtained from whales after whale oil was extracted. The new wool substitute is reported to excel staple fibers in strength, elasticity, and thermal quality and is decidedly lower in its cost of production.

A synthetic fiber, which is claimed to be better in all respects than the much talked of nylon, vinyon or the P.C. fiber, and to have a strength four times that of natural wool, has been developed. It is known as "Synthetic Fiber No. 1" and is the invention of Dr. Ri Sho-ki, a research chemist and professor at the Chemical Laboratory of Kyoto Imperial University.

The albuminous substance, contained in the refuse of fish but wasted so far was discovered to constitute a fine material for making artificial wool at a plant of an artificial silk manufacturing company, Gifu city, Gifu prefecture.

Another addition to the host of fibrous materials was introduced in the form of *Typhala ifolia*, a perennial plant, commonly called bulrush or cattail, growing luxuriantly in swampy places along rivers and lakes throughout this country. Unlike other lines of fibrous materials the prospect of industrializing this novel grass, which is called gama among the Japanese, is highly encouraging. Prof. Takeshi Ninomiya of Otsuma Gigei Gakuin—Otsuma Polytechnic College—is the inventor. What requires further information regarding this grass is that its cars when treated by a special method offer

an ideal material for mixture with woolen yarn or cotton. A concern is already working on a commercial basis for the latter purpose.

The alluvial gold deposits of the Takkiri Canyon in Taiwan, which caused a nation-wide sensation is expected to be exploited in earnest commencing with 1942 and preparations to that end, such as road construction, etc. are now being pushed.

An effective anti-infantile paralysis vaccine was completed by the medical department of Osaka Imperial University after five years of research.

A wireless teletype was invented by a Japanese wireless operator in Hsin-king, Manchoukuo. According to the test made between Dairen and Hsin-king, there were only five mistakes out of 10,000 words transmitted and its speed ranged from 200 to 1,000 words per minute.

Japan's first power plant utilizing heat from hot spring waters will be established in the course of this year in Izu Peninsula, popular hot spring district in Shizuoka Prefecture.

A device for generating power on the strength of subterranean heat has been tested in Izu Peninsula, Shizuoka Prefecture and has proved successful by Dr. Fumio Oda, Professor of Kyushu Imperial University and his colleagues.

A synthetic sake, which can rank with the best brands on the market in quality, can be produced in only 24 hours from any cereal, even from potatoes, announced F. Nakajima, an industrial chemist at Osaka Imperial University. In spite of the short time taken for the manufacture of this synthetic sake it is claimed that it can remain fresh for three years.

The Utilization Bureau of the Commerce and Industry Ministry announced that they are contemplating the manufacture of fuel such as artificial petroleum, methane gas and briquettes on an industrial basis from sewage and garbage which accumulate in great quantities in urban districts.

Lubricant oil, indispensable for airplane motors, and hitherto produced from mineral matter, can now be produced in large quantities from animal matter as a result of the invention by Dr. Yusaburo Nagai of the Aeronautic Research Laboratory of Tokyo Imperial University, after nine years of indefatigable study.

The stereo statue, or the stereo-photographic statue, is produced

through the application of the principles of the stereoscopic camera. A solid statue with considerable artistic effect is thus produced through mechanical means. This optical invention was accomplished by Tsunehito Yamada, technician of the Japan Optical Company, Tokyo.

Two ferro-concrete treasure-houses in which to preserve the many art treasures of the 1,300-year-old Horyuji Temple at Nara have been completed within its compound after 27 months of labor. Built on the architectural style of 1,300 years ago, the two structures were designed by Dr. Chuta Ito, noted authority on Buddhist architecture, and other leading experts.

A super high-speed movie camera for use in various experiments at laboratories and in measuring phenomena in the course of high-speed operation of machines for many industrial purposes was consummated by Prof. Tatsuzo Fukuhara of Hamamatsu Higher Technical School. While the camera has a photographing speed of from 2,000 to 9,000 frames per second for the present, the professor is striving to increase the speed up to 10,000 frames per second.

Liquefaction of coal which had been under intense study since 1928 by the Imperial Navy and the South Manchuria Railway Company was at last consummated, and on July 22, 1939, on the occasion of the completion of the Fushun Coal Liquefaction Plant of the S.M.R., all the experts concerned who had substantially contributed to the research were given recognition for their

meritorious services. The industry has since been attempted at several other places, notably in Kyushu, Saghalien, Chosen, and North China, where the different processes of liquefaction of coal are employed.

An event of historical importance was the completion of the underwater tunnel connecting Shimonoseki and Moji. The junction was made on July 10, 1941, when the last screen of rock was pierced, opening direct land connection between Kyushu, and the main island of Japan. The tunnel is now enlarged, surfaced and will be served by transportation facilities, enabling the passengers to travel between Kyushu and the mainland dryshod.

The wired wireless telephony is now considered in this country. This is of carrier current system and is to utilize either telephone or electric wires. All that is required in the way of reformation is to install a tuning unit. The tests so far made at the anti-air raid drills are reported to have been successful and entirely satisfactory.

By means of non-loaded carrier cable, telephone service connecting Tokyo and Mukden, a distance of 3,000 kilometers, was made possible and opened to the public. The Communications Ministry authorities were subsequently successful in their test communications over a distance of 10,000 kilometers by utilizing its multiplex circuit with a degree of clarity equal to that of ordinary telephone conversation within the city limits. When extended this could be a conversation between Tokyo and Chicago, U.S.A.

DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICINE IN JAPAN

Before the infiltration of Western science into Japan, medicine as practised or studied in this country was mainly "Kampo", or Chinese medicine, with such additional clinical lore as was gleaned by native experience and therapeutic methods fashioned by native genius.

Towards the end of the Tokugawa Era, different schools of medicine criss-crossed each other and a complicated situation developed. The Dutch, Chinese and Dutch combined, and pure Western schools vied with each other. The advocates of the scientific medicine of the West, however, had the hardest lot, hampered at every turn by the closed-door policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the times changed and the seclu-

sion policy of the Yedo Government could not stem the tide of civilization and with the opening of Japan's ports to the West in 1848, the merits of the scientific medicine of the West came to be recognized by the intellectual class of this country.

Meiji Restoration The Meiji Restoration (1868) swept away the evils of feudalistic tradition and with them the obstacles to the adoption of the scientific medicine as developed in Europe. The Government proclamation of March 7, 1862, may be considered a landmark in the history of Japanese medicine ushering in a new era of experimental medicine, for the proclamation gave official sanction to the adoption of Western medicine in this country. From this

time on physicians and surgeons were engaged from abroad and Government medical colleges were established.

Medical Science During the Meiji Era (1868-1912) and After

Some 80 years have passed since the Meiji Restoration and now there are throughout Japan proper 27 Government, public and private medical colleges including the renowned medical department of Tokyo Imperial University. Each year these institutions are turning out 2,300 or more graduates. The number of registered practising physicians and surgeons in 1938 was 51,837. The number of medical scientists holding the doctor's degree was 11,894 in 1939, including men of the caliber of late Dr. Hideyo Noguchi, engaged in instructing and training rising scientists. Besides the regular medical colleges, there are innumerable specialist institutes.

A brief survey of the development of medical science after the advent of Meiji era reveals that during this period medical knowledge was imported chiefly from Germany, but it was only after the outbreak of the First European War that the medical men in this country got an opportunity of manifesting their full abilities. Instead of going abroad, they had then to study by themselves and develop upon what had been transplanted by the earlier scholars.

The present highly advanced state of the science owes entirely to the painstaking researches and laborious efforts of the pioneer scientists in those early days. It would hardly be an exaggeration to say that Japan today occupies a place in the first rank among medically advanced countries of the world, for this country has completely mastered the best that Western science has to offer and has developed techniques all her own and best suited to the physical and mental peculiarities of the Japanese people.

Medical science has made phenomenal advancement in the past 20 years, led chiefly by the development of bacteriology, the discovery of innumerable viruses, which in turn have been instrumental in the advancement of immunology, serology, chemotherapy, etc.

Endocrinology Advance in this field has served to accelerate the progress in anatomy, physiology, pathology and

pharmacology, proving highly effective in clinics and therapeutics. Further in cooperation with organic chemistry, extraction and synthetic production of pure hormones have now been made possible.

Dietetics Here too in conjunction with organic chemistry properties of hormones have been clarified and the success in synthetic production has led to the exploration of the still unenlightened field of physiology, pathology and pharmacology, the result of which has been employed in clinics in numerous instances.

X-ray Generator and Discovery of Radioactive Elements Progress and improvement made in X-ray generators, discovery of radium and other radioactive elements, discovery of neutron, electron and proton in the atomic physics, and the artificial production of radioactive elements have served to hasten the progress in the science of radioactivity, leading to its application in manifold directions such as diagnosis, therapeutics, etc. Its effect in the curbing of heredity is also studied in recent years.

Electron Microscope Invention of the electron microscope now enables scientists to survey the so called invisible viruses, while the X-ray spectrum has clarified the molecular arrangement which in conjunction with colloid chemistry has opened up new fields in biochemistry.

Physics The scientific process of harnessing the ultra-short wave and the super-short sonic wave is already finding useful application in clinics, and its value is destined to grow.

Electro-physics Medical applications in the field of electro-physics have been manifold. The electric cardiometer has opened up a new vista in physiology, pathology and pharmacology of the heart, while chronaxy has done much to clarify the physiology, pathology and pharmacology of muscular action. On the other hand by measuring the operating current of the brain a new light is being thrown on physiology, pathology and pharmacology.

Colloid Chemistry Extensive contribution to biochemistry including immunology has been made by the progress in colloid chemistry.

Precision Machines and Instruments Stupendous contribution has been

made to the medical science by the development in precision machines of all kinds, notable among them being the super high speed centrifuge used for the separation of invisible viruses or for the measuring of molecular weight of macro-moleculars, apparatus of micro-methods for the advancement of cytology and bacteriology. The fact that micro-analyses of blood and body tissues have now been facilitated is due to the progress of microchemical quantitative analyses. Application of colorimeters and refractometers in clinics has been noteworthy.

Isotopes Isotopes, especially sodium, iodine, phosphorus and iron having radioactive properties have been harnessed for metabolic experiments and are producing salutary results. These are bound to make further development.

Organic Chemistry Organic chemistry including pharmacology is making big strides in close collaboration with the progress in other branches of medical science, as is proven by the appearance of a large number of medicines of undisputed effectiveness.

Flying Illness and Calsson Disease Following the progress in aircraft and submarines, there appeared diseases which were total strangers to our forefathers, and this subsequently gave birth to new researches of flying illness and calsson diseases. On the other hand researches in endemic diseases have led to the advance of medicines for colonial conditions. That these will play an important role in future need hardly be said in view of Japan's southward advance which is destined to be made in the coming years.

Industrial Medicine Along with the advance in industries, there has come the need for special medicines for laborers and factory workers. Important research has been done on prophylaxis against diseases liable to be caused by poisoning and toxication.

Hygienics Hygienics including prophylaxis as well as the problems of food, clothing and habitation, has received great attention. From prophylactic medicine, it has advanced to the science of living and then to the science of welfare in general, encompassing within its sphere not only pure medicine but all phases of natural science including physics, chemistry, engineering, biology, agriculture, meteorology, and veterinary medi-

cine, and even psychology and economics, and this field of research will no doubt make further advance in close co-operation with all the sciences involved.

Anthropology Another science which cannot be lost sight of is anthropology, which through archaeological and morphological studies has now developed in the form of ethnology based on the studies of vital statistics, color tones of the skin and hair, characteristics of the blood, psychological peculiarities, etc., incidentally serving as a key to the solution of the problem of the racial relations between the Japanese and other peoples of the Orient.

Pathology Pathology being a basic study of medical science, the range of subjects covered by researches on this subject is as extensive as it is diversified. A glance at the reports on researches made in the past few years more than suffices to give an idea of the present situation of this department.

Numerous doctors have been awarded prizes from societies and institutes both at home and abroad, for their contributions to pathological research. Some notable prize-winners are: Dr. Fujiro Katsurada and Dr. Goichi Fujinami for their study on distomum haematobium japonicum; Dr. Katsusaburo Yamagiwa for his research on artificial cancer, and Dr. Koryu Sasaki for his research on the same subject; Dr. Atsushi Tawara for his contribution on stimulus conducting system of the heart; Dr. Kenji Kiyono for vital staining; Dr. Tomosaburo Ogata for his research on beriberi; Dr. Rinya Kawamura on lipoid; Dr. Yutaka Kon on argyria; Dr. Seizo Katsunuma on oxydases.

Special mention should be made of the contribution made by pathologists in general to the researches of beriberi, distomum haematobium japonicum, distomatosis hepatis and distomatosis pulmonalis, as well as all other endemic diseases, parasitism, epidemics, cancer, etc.

Bacteriology Numerous treatises have been contributed up to the present in the field of bacteriology, and outstanding work has been done in this field of medical science. Surveying chronologically the following may be mentioned among the more important contributions.

Discovery of spirochaeta ikterohaemorrhagiae japonica by Dr. Ryukichi Inada, Professor at Fukuoka Medi-

cal College and Mr. Yasushi Ido, Assistant Professor of the same college in 1915 was an outstanding work during the Taisho era (1912-1926); in 1917 Dr. Kenzo Futaki and Dr. Kikutaro Ishiwaru of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute discovered spirochaeta of rat-bite disease; in the course of 1914-1917 bacillus of cholera infantum was discovered by Dr. Seinosuke Ohara and Mr. Mitsugu Minoda; in 1925 research on tularaemia infectious from the hare was reported by Dr. Hachiro Ohara; since 1923 researches on rickettsia tsutsugamushi had been conducted by Dr. Matao Nagayo, Chief of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute, Doctors Yoneji Miyagawa, Tokushiro Mitamura, and Takeo Tamiya of the same institute, as well as by Dr. Norio Ogata, Professor of Chiba Medical College, and Dr. Rinya Kawamura of Niigata Medical College, and these as well as the researches on typhus mandschuricus and typhus exanthematicus by Dr. Makoto Kodama in 1932 had been the forerunner which led to the numerous researches on the same disease in this country. The same remark applies to the research of preventive inoculation against rabies by Dr. Shinkichi Umeno in 1923-1924 and also to that of hemophile bacillus by the experimental researches on the composition of blood which is essential in the culture of influenza-bacillus by Dr. Masaichi Terada since 1921.

Mention should also be made of the culturing process of anaerobic bacillus developed by Dr. Shogo Hosoya of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute in 1926; research on streptococcus, especially hemolytic streptococcus by Dr. Rokuzo Kobayashi, Professor at Keio University since the advent of the Showa era (1926); research on immunization against pests by Dr. Kikuo Kurauchi of the Daien Sanitary Research Institute in 1936; studies on small pox virus by Dr. Nakamura, Professor at Hokkaido Imperial University, since 1920, as well as by Dr. Toyochi Otahara, Professor at Kumamoto Medical College on the same subject in 1924, and subsequently on small-pox by Dr. Jokai Iguchi of the Metropolitan Police Board.

Outstanding researches have been conducted, since 1935, on the virus of the fourth venereal disease by Dr. Ikuzo Toyama, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University and his associates, as well

as by Dr. Yoneji Miyagawa, President of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute and his associates; on encephalitis epidemica japonica by the Committee of the Foundation for the Promotion of Scientific and Industrial Research of Japan, headed by Dr. Ryukichi Inada, and by other workers conducted independently, and again a report published on the same subject by Professor Terada.

The research on Dick toxin by Dr. Koji Ando, President of the Daien Sanitary Research Institute since 1927-8 and that of Dr. Hidetake Yahagi, of the Infectious Diseases Research Institute, on preventive inoculation against scarlatina by means of toxoid since 1937, paved the way to a clear analysis of the virus of scarlatina and its prophylaxis.

Anatomy Constituting a part of biology, anatomy is but one of the primary studies of medical science, and as such it is less conspicuous than other departments of the science. Up to the present there have been three scholars in this line who received the Imperial Academy prizes for their excellent researches: Prof. Kumakatsu Kosaka of Okayama Medical College on the origin of cranial nerves in 1913; Prof. Gennosuke Fuse of Tohoku Imperial University an anatomical researches of the brain in 1921; and Prof. Buntaro Adachi of Kyoto Imperial University on the artery of the Japanese race in 1930.

A survey of this department can be made most effectively by glancing through the special lectures delivered since 1928 at the annual meetings of the Anatomical Society of Japan: on the embryology of the palate and the cause of its cleft by Prof. Inouye of Tokyo Imperial University in 1928; histological study by means of super microscopic construction by Prof. Fumoka of Kyoto Imperial University in 1929; histological survey regarding the antagonistic action of potassium and lecithin against that of calcium and cholesterol by Prof. Kosaka of Okayama Medical College and on the anatomy of the Japanese by Prof. Adachi of Kyoto Imperial University in 1930; on Aschoff-Tawara's bundle by Prof. Shindo of Kyushu Imperial University, and on microscopic and geometrical computation by Prof. Okajima of Keio University in 1931; anthropology of the native in Oceania by Prof. Hasebe of

Tohoku Imperial University in 1932; on embryology of the muscle by Prof. Nishi of Tokyo Imperial University and on the construction of cell nucleus by Prof. Saguchi of Kanazawa Medical College in 1933; on front-occipital-lines of the brain by Prof. Shimada of Kyoto Imperial University, on the fertilization of eggs of amphibious Urodela in Japan by Prof. Kunitomo of Nagasaki Medical College, and on the appearance of latent heredity in the abnormal genesis by Prof. Ogawa of Kyoto Imperial University, all in 1934; on the embryology of the primitive kidney (Wolf's duct) of the Japanese by Prof. Shikunami of Okayama Medical College, and exhibition of human bones in the stone age by Dr. Koganei, Professor Emeritus of Tokyo Imperial University, in 1935; on the computation of correlation coefficient by Prof. Uyeda of Keijo Imperial University in 1936; on organogenesis of amphibia in Japan by Prof. Kudo of Niigata Medical College, anthropological survey of the physiognomy of the Aino by Prof. Yamazaki of Niigata Medical College, and on the artificial polyembryony by Prof. Morita of the Jikeikai Medical College, all in 1937; on the embryology of the membranous labyrinth and its surrounding organs by Prof. Koike of Chiba Medical College, and on the histological differentiation of the cortical tissues of the brain by Prof. Hiramitsu of Kyushu Imperial University in 1938; on the silver plating and its application developed by Prof. Tomita of Osaka Imperial University, and on the differentiation of the lymphatic by Prof. Kihara of Kyoto Imperial University, in 1939; on the anthropological features of human bones found in Hokuriku districts by Prof. Okamoto of Kanazawa Medical College.

A survey of the work done by the Anatomical Society of Japan reveals that the trend of the major part of research has been in the direction of the central nervous system and experimental embryology. While cytology has made notable progress, studies by means of tissue culture are practically nil and those of chromosomes are very few. Among the reports on systematic anatomy and topographic anatomy there are only a small number which treat with women and children. Equally deserving of attention are the morphological studies based on genetics of mankind which seem to have been

neglected. The anthropological studies of the Aino and other races are bound to be made vigorously in future in addition to those of other races inhabiting Oceania.

Biochemistry Development of biochemistry in this country owes almost in its entirety to the progress in the quantitative microanalyses, as it incidentally paved the way for the application of biochemistry in actual clinical work.

Subsequently as a result of further studies, researchers began to select themes of a limited and specific nature rather than follow along the general lines, as for example: enzymic chemistry, amino acid and its intermediate metabolism, bile acid, biological oxidation-reduction process, varying processes of quantitative analyses, intermediate metabolism of sugar, lipid chemistry, general metabolism, protein chemistry, dietetic chemistry, vitamin chemistry, endocrinology, etc.

In the early years of development in this line of medical science, practically all researchers were either internists or pediatricists. Subsequently their number greatly increased and this gave rise to a society of bio-chemists called, "Seika-Kagakusha Yoi-no-kai" in 1922. It was at one of the meetings of this society that the late Dr. Katsumi Takahashi made an announcement on viosterine separated from live oil. This society was later absorbed into the Society of Bio-chemistry in Japan, and the subsequent development of the science has been phenomenal. Some notable researches brought forth before the annual meetings of the society are: intermediate metabolism of tryptophan by Prof. Yashiro Kotake of Osaka Imperial University; bile acid by Prof. Tael Shimizu of Okayama Medical College; metabolism of scurvy by Prof. Takeyoshi Nagayama of Tokyo Jikeikai Medical College. All these have been studied exhaustively over a period of 20 or 30 years in the past, and their reports have drawn the attention of medical men in all parts of the world.

Other researches of interest are the one on the quantitative analyses of vitamin C by Dr. Akiji Fujita of the Kitazato Infectious Diseases Research Institute and the other on octoplin by Asst. Prof. Akashi of Kyoto Imperial University.

Medical Jurisprudence The foundation for this department of medical science in this country was laid largely as a result of the efforts of Dr. Sadanori Mita, professor at the Department of Medical Jurisprudence of Tokyo Imperial University, after he took up this post in 1920. During his tenure of office themes were given in large numbers along this line and particularly along the line of serology and the science made big strides.

The Society of Medical Jurisprudence in Japan was established in April 1914 by Dr. Kuniyoshi Katayama, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University, notable lectures delivered at some of the annual meetings of the society since then being on the following subjects:—Heredity of blood-type, by Dr. Yoshimaro Tanaka, Professor at the Agricultural Department of Kyushu Imperial University, in 1927; blood-type and temperament, by Dr. Takeji Furukawa, Professor at Tokyo Girls Higher Normal School, in 1928; on individuality of cells, secretions, and body-cavity fluid due to agglutination of human blood corpuscles, by Dr. Hajime Asada, Professor at Tokyo Women's Medical College, in 1929. At the annual meeting held the next year, 1930, some 103 lectures were delivered mostly on blood-types and serological researches, among them being a significant lecture on blood-types by Dr. Furuhashi, Professor at Osaka Medical College.

The lectures which attracted much attention in the subsequent years were: on lipid antigen—antibody reaction, by Prof. Yunosuke Kagaya of Niigata Medical College in 1932; also at the same meeting Prof. Mita of Tokyo Imperial University denied the M.N.P. by Landsteiner; on the relation of the reaction of pharmaco-toxins and physical conditions by Prof. Matachiro Konami of Okayama Medical College in 1933; on the value and quantity of precipitine by Dr. Takeo Sato, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University, in 1934; on the functions of the lungs in the intermediary metabolic change by Professor Kazutane Nikaido of Kanazawa Medical College in 1935; on the specificity of species and organs viewed from two immune bodies by Prof. Tetsuro Ishikawa of Chiba Medical College in 1936; on the toxin like substances produced by abnormal body temperature by Prof. Atsuro Nakata and Asst. Prof. Omura of Osaka Medical College in 1937; on the decom-

position of a corpse by Prof. Chusetsu Endo of Kyoto Imperial University in 1938; on the registry and identification of finger-prints by Prof. Kyosuke Komiya of Nagoya Imperial University in 1939; on the temperament viewed from the reaction of precipitine by Prof. Harumitsu Hojo of Nagasaki Medical College in 1940.

Hygiene Of all the fields of medical science, the one which claims foremost attention is perhaps prophylaxis, which aims at the emancipation of men from the danger of contagious diseases and allows them to enjoy their full span of life and die a natural death. Of course the mission of prophylaxis is not confined to mere prevention of diseases, but also includes the elucidation of the causes and motives of all diseases which are liable to be occasioned constitutionally, environmentally, socially and economically thus making it possible to devise ways and means for the removal of these conditions. Hence the future of prophylaxis is bound to be closely connected with social reorganization.

In the curriculum of medical education in this country, the department of hygiene has been in existence from the very beginning of its history, and bacteriology has for long constituted a part of the hygiene department. The rapid advance of bacteriology in recent years has separated this field of science from hygiene with the result that the latter has remained in a state of torpidity for several years. However, in the Kyoto Imperial University, researches were made assiduously in this rather neglected field of science, laying the foundation for experimental hygiene for future development.

Another institute which contributed much towards the development of prophylaxis was the department of hygiene established in the Kelo University for the first time in the history of medical education in this country under the support of the Rockefeller Foundation.

Simultaneously with the rise of prophylaxis, studies in racial welfare have been progressing as vigorously as in the other. This trend became particularly noteworthy since the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident in 1931. The increasing necessity of racial welfare has led both the Government authorities and medical societies to concentrate their efforts for the promotion of this line of medical science, and thoroughgoing researches are being conducted on the

problems of population, heredity and eugenics.

The Population Problem Research Institute came into being in April 1939, succeeding the Council of Population Problems which had been working exhaustively prior to that time, and efforts are being directed toward a wholesome increase in the population of this country. While the imminent question of the population problem is centered on the quantitative factor, qualitative factor is demanding such attention in recent years, and as a result, the problem of eugenics is studied for the maintenance and increase of superior elements and elimination of inferior ones, and even the question of sterilization is being considered at present.

Pharmacology The outbreak of the First European War produced a considerable effect on the medical science of this country, pharmacology being no exception. Until that time pioneers in this field of science used to study abroad, and with what knowledge they acquired, they engaged in their experimental researches and instructed the younger scholars, but this practice was discontinued. They had began to carry out their researches independently of the West, and this incidentally served for the development of the science in this country, with the two universities in Tokyo and Kyoto playing prominent rôles.

To define the main currents which constitute pharmacology in Japan is a rather difficult task, as it is exceptionally diversified. In a word, it can be stated that they mostly consist of experiments on excised organs or in situ and from these the reactions of a medicine on a body are observed. As pharmacodynamical method is being used in recent years, this branch of medical science has become all the more delicate and complex. For experimental methods, both histological as well as bacteriological methods are adopted to some extent.

Regarding the materials used for experiment, researches using alkaloid and glycoside are still going on briskly, while the autonomous nervous toxin is employed for the determination of the acting point of the toxin in many instances, and the properties of these are being studied exhaustively, the experiments being performed on every organ and on all sorts of animals.

While vitamins had been studied

formerly to a large extent, they seem to have been superseded by hormones in recent years, the latter researches being conducted particularly in regard to sexual hormones.

Of all the excellent results achieved in the department of pharmacology, the most outstanding is perhaps the discovery made by Prof. Kenzo Tamura of Tokyo Imperial University regarding the use of camphor as a cardiotonic, camphor, when applied to the body, being oxidized and turned into a substance having a heart strengthening action. The professor, subsequently, found a way of obtaining the said camphor-oxide by using dogs, which is, as is well known, marketed today by the name of Vitacampher. Vitacampher is the compound of allo- π -oxo-camphor and trans- π -oxo-camphor.

The entire attention of the society is now concentrated on the efficacy of Digitalis, and the fact that its toxic power does not correspond to its effective power has become fairly definite today. Mention should be made in this connection of the laborious work of Dr. Kikuiji Tokita, who has been making comparative studies of all kinds of medicine obtained from every country in the world with the exception of the U.S.A. Especially interesting is the chromosome duplicating method by means of Colchicin.

Parasitology The inception of parasitology in this country dates back to 1886, when Prof. Iijima, reputed to have been the first parasitologist in Japan, returned from his extended studies abroad. Until the middle of the Meiji era (1868-1912), however, this department confined its sphere of activities to the discovery of new parasites and their morphological studies, but it soon extended to pathological studies of parasites, and later their biological aspect, including the cycle of development of parasites, and later prophylactic studies began to be made. The researches advanced from nematoda and cestoda to protozoa and insects, and partly stimulated by the advancement in this department of medical science abroad, the number of researchers engaged in this line also increased steadily.

Today, parasitology in Japan is in every way equal to that of the advanced countries of the world, largely owing to the efforts of the Society of Parasitologists organized shortly after the Great

Earthquake and Fire in 1923. This society was the precursor of the present society called the Parasitological Society of Japan, established in February 1929.

Mention regarding the existence of *distomum haematobium japonicum* was made as early as 1847 by Yoshimichi Fujii, but its eggs were not found until 1902 and the parasite was discovered two years later by Dr. Fujiro Katsurada. It was, however, ten years later that Doctors Keinosuke Miyairi and Minoru Suzuki ascertained its intermediary host, elucidated its cycle of development and determined the channel of infection.

Regarding *distomum hepatis*, its primary as well as secondary intermediary hosts were discovered in 1915, the nature of which was elucidated by later scholars. Mention should be made in this connection that the foregoing discoveries were made as early as 1875 by Sosaku Ishisaka, but since his description was not scholarly, it did not come to the notice of the scholars in his time.

With regard to somatocyst of *miracidium*, this was ascertained by Dr. Iijima as well as Dr. Kanji Nagano in 1926, the latter developing a method of destroying "Mame-tanishi" a species of mud-snail, which is the primary intermediary host, found by chance in a water-fowl. This is believed to be quite effective in the prevention of *distomatosis hepatis*. Subsequently the cycle of development of *distomum buski* was determined by Dr. Koan Nakagawa in 1920.

In 1911 Dr. Sadashi Yokogawa discovered Yokogawa's *distomum heterophyes* known by his name, and completely disproved the long established belief of taking its eggs as those of *distomum hepatis*, and this was further verified by the discovery of the life-cycle of the primary intermediary host in 1916 by Dr. Masatomo Muto. In 1915 a noxious *distomum heterophyes* was discovered by Dr. Yosaku Onji and the secondary intermediary host was recognized, and this was followed by the discovery of the primary intermediary host by Dr. Hajime Asada in 1928, which shed much light on the cycle of development of *distomum heterophyes*.

Although the history of nematoda is long, it may be pointed out that it was first discovered by Dr. Scheube in Kyoto, and its mother worm of *Sparganum Mansonii* was defined by Dr. Shiro

Yamada and Dr. Sadao Yoshida in 1917 and 1918 respectively, and two years later the cycle of development thereof was made clear by Dr. Tachyu Okumura. The morphological analyses of *diplogonoporus grandis* discovered in Japan in 1882 was completed by Dr. Sadao Yoshida and Dr. Ryoza Takano in 1923. Others worthy of mention in this connection are the discoveries of *Sparganum proliferum* by Dr. Masao Yamamura in 1904.

It was Dr. Kinnosuke Miura who discovered ascaris of non-fertilization. In this connection Dr. Sadao Yoshida proved in 1917 that there are also some cases of infiltration of the worms through coelom against Stewart's theory of infiltration only through vascular system; he further established the theory of inessentiality of an intermediate host through experiments on men. Particularly world famous are the experiments on men of ascaris of pigs conducted by Koino brothers, thereby proving the impossibility of the growth of the worm in men.

Regarding the researches as to the pathological effect of ascaris, various reports have been made abroad with reference to the coelomic fluid, and those being conducted by Dr. Tan Kozumi and his associates are outstanding in this connection. Mention should also be made regarding the relation between lack of Vitamin A and the infection from ascaris. Some controversies took place as to the infection from *ancylostomida*, but what deserves special mention in this connection is the treatise published, in 1925, by Dr. Tojiro Inadome, which proved that when *ancylostomida* were made to infect through the skin of other animals, they remain for years as parasites in the abdominal muscle of the latter, which report came as a complete surprise to the parasitologists in those days. What is of international importance in this connection was the elucidation made in 1913 by Dr. Kotaro Jimbo, who noticing the confusion of the eggs of *ancylostomida* with those of *trichostrongylus orientalis*, with the incidental assumption that the latter are identical with *trichostrongylus instabilis*, and further since some Japanese emigrants had been denied entry into the United States of America in view of the alleged confusion, called the attention of that Government to this fact and the confusion was subsequently corrected thanks to Dr.

Jimbo's elucidation.

While parasitology has thus advanced to a high level, there is a comparative lack of research in the biological aspect of the parasite. Perhaps this is due partly to the fact that artificial culture of parasites is not yet quite well developed, and it is believed that parasitologists in Japan will have to steer the course of their future researches along this direction.

Internal Medicine The department of internal diseases can be likened to a tall tree from the trunk of which branch out many boughs large and small. For instance, pediatrics today is a full-fledged department by itself, but it can hardly be denied that it forms a part and parcel of the internal disease department; the same remark applies to gastrology, phthisiology, epidemiology, and endocrinology.

A survey of the reports of the Society of Internal Diseases of Japan reveals that in the early years of the society, reports invariably dealt with broad subjects such as phthisis, contracted kidney, nephritis, and beriberi, but today researches treat in more details as to the cause, pathology, and therapeutics, to such an extent that these subsequently have given birth to independent societies of phthisis, digestive organs, infectious diseases, etc.

Several processes have been introduced to ensure accurate diagnosis in treating the patients of internal diseases, among them being Widal-Gruber's reaction and Wassermann's reaction which are followed by the use of serum reaction in the diagnosis of a malignant case of tumor, although these are not as yet completely established. Mention should be made in this connection of the practices of X-raying the stomach and intestines by means of bismuth preparations, the pouring an iodine oil like lipiodol in the trachea, the injection of chemical into the gall bladder and the kidneys.

In the field of chemotherapy the appearance of salvarsan proved revolutionary in treating syphilis and nervous diseases caused thereby, although fear is entertained in this country as to the abuse of this medicine by overemphasizing its efficacy.

Another item which sallied forth abruptly in recent years and is claiming attention forcibly is a sulfanilamide compound for stamping out gonorrhea and other exciting suppurations, al-

though here too abuse in the use of this novel medicine is noticed.

Another pet in therapeutics in recent years is vitamins of all kinds. A host of vitamins hardly dreamed of 20 or 30 years ago are now asserting their presence vigorously: A, B, C, D and E and complexes thereof, and their activities are as effective as they are extensive. Mention should also be made as to the addition of new vitamins K₁ and K₂ and quite recently vitamin P.

In the field of organotherapy, the first and foremost is the variety of hormones, substances extracted from thyroid gland, suprarenal gland, pancreas, pituitary gland, pineal gland, testicle, and ovarium. There are a host of medicines in this line, of which the most remarkable are insulin, pituitrin, spermin, cophorin, etc.

Serums can be divided into two groups: prophylactic serum and therapeutic serum, and are being used extensively for diphtheria, typhoid, dysentery, tetanus, streptococcus, etc. Of vaccines, tuberculin is widely used and is considered essential both for diagnostic and prophylactic purposes, especially in the case of rabies.

Phthisiology Until the birth of the Society of Phthisiology in January 1923 reports on researches in this department of medical science were made at meetings of the societies of internal medicine, hygiene or pathology individually. With the birth of the society, however, the number of such reports at its annual meetings increased by big strides: from only 31 at its initial meeting in 1923 to 161 in 1940 and as many as 170 this year. Some of the salient themes at these annual meetings follow:

On the subject of vaccine in connection with therapeutic problems, reports were made at meetings from 1925 onwards on the prophylactic and therapeutic effects of A-O by Dr. Ralkichi Arima and his associates, the annual meetings having been highly animated by criticisms and debates on the subject for some years.

In the field of chemotherapy, notable among the reports were those on copper compounds by Dr. Daijiro Iwasa at the initial and subsequent meetings followed by those of Dr. Shuzo Sato of the Infectious Disease Research Institute from about 1927 onwards. These doctors were succeeded by Dr. Tonoji Terao on the curbing of the

growth of tubercle bacillus.

In 1936 Prof. Eiichi Arima dealt with the therapeutic action of thymofogen and in the subsequent two or three years further reports were made by the professor and his associates. In 1939 Dr. Hideji Hasegawa reported on the results obtained during his experimental researches in the chemotherapy of tuberculosis.

It was in 1927 that a report on pneumothoraxtherapy appeared at the annual meeting of the society for the first time by Dr. Hideta Nagai. Since then the subject was dealt with by numerous participants at the subsequent meetings and the total number of themes related to this subject at the meeting of 1930 numbered as many as 30.

The first report on the removal of diaphragmatic nerve was made in 1928 by Dr. Hideo Ozono and his associates. In 1931 Makoto Marukawa and Dr. Hideo Sakamoto were responsible for the report on thoracoplasty. Quite a number of reports were made on mass examination in the last two or three years, some 33 reports having been presented at the annual meeting of 1940.

In 1924 the society had the privilege and honor of being graciously accorded a monetary gift by His Majesty the Emperor in recognition of its meritorious activities.

Surgery The Society of Surgery of Japan has the longest history among the medical societies in this country, its first meeting having been held in April 1899.

Until about 1909 the reports at the annual meetings chiefly dealt with symptoms and conditions of illness, but from about this year onwards biological tests were also reported and it was from 1929 that not only biological tests but also clinical experiments began to be reported, placing the science on an equal level with that in other advanced countries of the world.

The present position of the society in Japan can be well grasped from the interesting reports made at its annual meeting held this year at the Tokyo Imperial University. Prof. Masaya Araki of Kyoto Imperial University reported on the surgery of the pituitary body and its neighborhood. He announced that the tumor of the pituitary body, as long as it is on the Turkish saddle, can be cured not only by its total removal but also by its partial removal, and while the tumor in the

third ventricle is impossible to be operated, that out of the Turkish saddle can be operated although not without attendant difficulties in its execution. His operating method consists in reaching the tumor within the dura mater through the frontal region and the removal of the tumor being effected by breaking its capsule. He also cited the important points to be observed in executing this method of operation.

Some exhaustive reports were made by Prof. Seiji Tsuda on acute cases of pancreatic necrosis, its cause and prognostic effect.

Prof. Masao Tsuzuki of Tokyo Imperial University made public his statistics on surgical tuberculosis to the effect that of all the cases of tuberculosis, 10 to 22 per cent require surgical operation, and that tuberculosis of the lymph gland occupies 35 per cent of the total cases of surgical tuberculosis. Again, of these cases of surgical tuberculosis, those combined with pulmonary tuberculosis approximated 37 per cent in early stage; 11 per cent in non-progressive stage, and 30 per cent in progressive stage, and those whose lungs were not affected were 20 per cent.

Of all the patients suffering from surgical tuberculosis, those who can be cured are those suffering from tuberculosis of bones and joints (with the exception of spinal caries) and of the lymph gland, especially when the pulmonary symptom is not serious. These are followed by the cases of tuberculosis of the thorax and the peritoneum. The cases of tuberculosis of the intestines and the anus are regarded as partial symptoms and their prognoses are discouraging.

Interesting reports were also made regarding military surgery: on abdominal wounds by Surgeon Commander Tomita, and on shrapnels and bullets lodged in the entrails of the wounded by Surgeon Major-General Ibuka. The fact that the latter surgeon was successful in removing such objects out of the lungs and the thorax in numerous cases without a single case of failure is worthy of special mention.

Orthopedics The history of orthopedics in Japan is longer than one can easily surmise since it traces back to the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate (1603-1867) when part of this medical science was practised by Judo experts under the name of a profession called

Sekkotsu-shi or bone-setters. The chair of orthopedics, however, was not installed at any medical college until 1906, when one was inaugurated at the Tokyo Imperial University and the chair was offered to Dr. Tashiro and another was opened at the Kyoto Imperial University and was occupied by Dr. Michiji Matsuoka in the following year. The Society of Orthopedics in Japan was established in 1926.

A new departure in orthopedics in recent years is the establishment of an institute for the protection of the deformed and the crippled as an enterprise of social welfare. The state of such protective institutes abroad was reported in detail by Dr. Kunyuki Katayama of the Jikeikai Medical College some dozen years ago as a means of urging the establishment of such institutes in this country, and the same subject was again taken up by Dr. Kikan Takagi in 1934.

A census of the deformed and crippled was conducted in 1933 for part of the city of Tokyo and it was proved that their figure was by no means small. With the realization by both the Government and the people of the keen necessity of establishing protective institutes for the unfortunate people, a number of institutes were built. Of these mention should be made of the home for the wounded built within the compound of the Welfare Ministry, and while such installations are yet far from being ideal, it is nevertheless encouraging to see an increasing number of such institutes and the general cooperation of the nation for the cause of social welfare. Especially since the outbreak of the China Affair in 1937, the importance of orthopedics in the military and industrial fields has become highly pronounced.

A notable discovery which is of striking importance in this connection, is the discovery of certain chemicals for hypodermic injection for sarcopoietic purpose made by Dr. Kenzo Takahashi, otorhinolaryngologist, Tokyo. Unlike imitations of the same kind, both in Japan and abroad, the chemical liquid, once injected, does not cause deformation after a lapse of years since what is injected turns into flesh in about three weeks' time and with it a slight improvement in physiognomy can be effected with ease without resorting to any surgical treatment whatever.

Obstetrics and Gynaecology Late in

development has been this line of medical science in this country, having been left for long to the care of midwives. Perhaps the first record worth mentioning in this department was the extirpation of the uterus through the vagina effected by Prof. Gentatsu Hamada in 1891. Against myoma of the uterus in those days, injection by means of ergots or ovariectomy was effected, and in rare instances amputation at the upper part of the vagina. Subsequently total removal of the uterus against myoma, Alexander's operation against retroflexion of the uterus, vagino-fixation as well as vagino-abdominal fixation against retroflexion of the uterus, Werthelm's operation in the removal of the uterus began to be effected in succession and the progress made in operation in this field of medical science in those days was remarkable.

According to Dr. Masakiyo Ogata, some 14 cases of vaginal Caesarean operation had been conducted by him until 1901, and the reports were made at the initial meeting of the Society of Gynaecology held the following year. Vaginal Caesarean operation was subsequently carried out by most doctors although today this is done mostly through the cervix. While the method of operation was imported from abroad, it was later elucidated that it was advisable and better to carry out such operation aseptically and this knowledge came as a great enlightenment to the doctors concerned.

Regarding myoma again Prof. Gentatsu Hamada insisted on pharmacotherapy and carried out the injection of ergot principles, but later in 1908 Dr. Masanaka Kinoshita and Dr. Kenzaburo Adachi reported on its surgical treatment, and these together with vaginoplasty by means of the intestinal duct advocated by Dr. Masamichi Mori were the subjects which used to evoke lively debates at the annual meetings of the society.

It was in 1912 at the 14th annual meeting of the society that Dr. Masakiyo Ogata referred to the subject of neo-Malthusianism and it is after this that artificial contraception and sterilization began to be practised. Since the outbreak of the China Affair, however, such deplorable tendency seems to have been checked a great deal, and while this problem involves many other social and moral problems equally important, it is self-evident that any attempt to discourage births and curb

the increase of population is against the interest of the nation.

Today, aseptics is used either in the delivery or in hysterotomotocia. Against placenta praevia, Caesarean operation is effected in most cases in place of tampon; blood-transfusion in place of salt injection and cardiotonics against anemia; very efficacious cardiotonics have also been introduced in recent years. Especially the introduction of hormones and sulfanilamides has been a boon to the medical science of obstetrics and gynaecology.

Another factor which served to contribute much to the progress in this department of medical science is the roentgenisms and radiotherapy. Particularly noticeable has been the application of Roentgen rays, not only has the X-ray photograph of the uterus and the ovarian tube been used for diagnosis but it is now applied in the measurement of the pelvis and in the diagnosis of placenta praevia and even for the determination of the sex of an embryo.

Pediatrics A branch of internal medicine, the history of pediatrics in this country is not long. Its rise and steady development until it attained the present stage of progress can be traced back to December 1889 when a chair for pediatrics was created in the then Tokyo Medical College for the first time.

When the present highly advanced state of pediatrics is compared with the days when the average school doctors effected an annual physical examination perfunctorily, the difference is indeed more than can easily be appreciated. This contrast can easily be accounted for by the fact that pediatrics in former days was confined only to the diagnosis and therapeutics of children's diseases and hardly paid any attention to the constitution, heredity, or prophylactic treatment, the last mentioned now forming a department by itself at medical colleges.

The three common diseases found among children in this country are: infantile beriberi, so called meningitis and cholera infantum. The so called meningitis baffled the medical practitioners and its exact cause remained a mystery until 1923, when Prof. Ikutaro Hirai proved that it originated from lead-poisoning or plumbismus, and subsequently face powders and paints containing lead were prohibited to be produced and sold by law and as a result of the enforcement of this regulation,

this disease has been completely eradicated.

Regarding cholera infantum, while this has been studied exhaustively no concrete therapeutics or prophylaxis has been discovered as yet. The same remark also applies to infantile beriberi.

Some other subjects under deliberation in the Society of Pediatrics in this country in recent years are: auto-intoxication, periodical vomiting and bleeding. Since these diseases are native ones, the causes as well as the remedies for them will have to be discovered by the medical experts of this country.

Dermatology Melji Era (1868-1912). The most outstanding field in medical science in this country, where brilliant researches and discoveries have been made, is perhaps dermatology, syphilology in particular. As with other departments of medical science, an epochal advance began to be made with the establishment of the chair of dermatology and syphilology in the Medical Department of Tokyo Imperial University in 1890, other medical colleges throughout the country following this example later. The Society of Dermatology was established in 1900.

Simultaneously with the discovery of *spirochaeta pallida* in 1905, Doctors Dohi and Tanaka discovered the same *spirochaeta* in the cerebrospinal fluid. This together with the same discovery in the tissues of tabes dorsalis and paralysis epidemica by Hideoy Noguchi in 1913, constitute two interesting discoveries in this connection. In those days researches on experimental syphilis were also spurred on by the discovery of the virus.

It was in 1908 that reports on Wassermann's tests, which are of considerable importance in the diagnosis of syphilis, were given out by the Department of Dermatology of Tokyo Imperial University.

The discovery of salvarsan jointly by Dr. Ehrlich and Dr. Hata in 1909 caused a literal sensation in the society since it established what can be called a "blitz" therapy—maximale frühbehandlung—in spite of many assertions to the contrary. Incidentally the injection of salvarsan and neo-salvarsan into veins was instrumental for the introduction of many medicines for intravenous injection which are being employed today.

Quite a number of dermatosis other than syphilis were discovered by the end of the Meiji era. Some notable instances in this connection are tuberculosis cutis, especially lupus vulgaris, a number of tubercular exanthema, favus, impetigo, keratosis follicularis squamosa (Dohi) and pityriasis circinata (Toyama) which are all peculiar to this country.

Taisho Era (1912-1925). Upon the outbreak of the First European War (1914) and the subsequent prohibition of the export of salvarsan from Germany, numerous varieties of this medicine were produced in this country, such as, arsaminol, ehamisol, tanvarsan, arsamin, saviol, neo-preparations and natrium preparations, which are in every way equal in their efficacy to those produced abroad.

Until the latter half of the Taisho era, it was common practice to use salvarsan in combination with mercuric preparations, which eventually led to the discovery of an excellent mercuric preparation called "imanicol." Subsequently bismuth preparation was found to be as effective as mercuric preparation with less reaction and today, a combination of salvarsan and bismuth preparations is used for the cure of syphilis.

An outstanding contribution in the field of dermatological research during the era is the one by Dr. Tetsutaro Ito on chancroid. He was successful in developing a vaccine by culturing the chancroid bacillus, which has since proved efficacious, by hypodermic injection, in diagnosing patients of chancroid.

In the meantime medicines for demopathia were also introduced, such as thionol, pityrol, glyteer, lignol, etc., and for intravenous injection there were calcium chloride, calcium bromide, strontium, strontium bromide, and hyper tension glucose solution.

On the other hand intense researches were conducted on spirochaeta stimulated in part by the discovery of spirochaeta ictero-haemorrhagiae japonica in 1915 as the virus of Weil's disease by Dr. Ryukichi Inada and Dr. Yasushi Ido, and subsequently of the spirochaeta of rat-bite disease by Dr. Kenzo Futagi; simultaneously it was elucidated that both weasel-bite disease and cat-bite disease are due to the same spirochaeta.

Showa Era (1926—) The latter half of the Taisho era as well as the beginning of the Showa era witness-

ed many a brilliant report on researches on syphilis. Notable researches in other lines were various cases of immunity phenomena, rat-bite disease, virus of Weil's disease, frambesia and a number of discoveries by means of trypanosoma.

In 1926 Prof. Shoji Doi proposed to set up the standard quantum of anti-syphilitics: one cure dose of salvarsan to be fixed at five grams, and with this to be used either bismuth or mercuric preparations in combination. Subsequently, professors at some of the colleges decided to fix a definite process for this purpose based on their past experience. This later proved to tally approximately with that adopted by the League of Nations Committee in 1935 which was based on clinical experience with 25,600 patients.

In 1928 there was added to the list of venereal diseases another known as lymphogranulomatosis or the so called fourth venereal disease, and it was later discovered to the alarm of all concerned that this disease was prevailing among the people to some extent, and the annual meetings of the society in 1935 and 1936 were crowded with reports on researches conducted clinically and pathologically on this disease.

Lepers in Japan, according to the statistics of the police authorities, counted 30,000 in 1900, which decreased to 23,000 in 1906. In the following year, 1907, in view of the keen necessity of preventing the spread of the dreaded disease, the Government promulgated the law for the prevention of leprosy and built five leper colonies in Japan proper and one each in Taiwan and Chosen. A nation-wide attention was aroused by the gracious consideration of H.M. the Empress Dowager over the unfortunate patients, and both the Government and the people strove hard for the eradication of this disease. Subsequent institution of further colonies, researches, and organizations had their effect in the decrease of the patients and since 1919 the total number is running round 15,000 and those patients who are not confined in the leper colonies are less than 7,700. Mention should be made of the saintly work done by Miss Riddell who established the Kaishun Hospital at Kumamoto and Miss Legh who opened the St. Barnabas Hospital at Kusatsu. On the other hand it is regrettable that in the way of therapeutics no efficacious medicine has yet been introduced other than hydn-

carpus oil in spite of the many years of research conducted by a number of devoted scholars including Dr. Kensuke Koda, now president of the National Lepers Colony at Nagashima.

Researches on favus have a long history in this country and have been conducted by a number of experts, of which the work of Dr. Masao Ota, who conducted his researches from 1926 to 1928 and still left incomplete deserves special mention. Experimental researches on eczema and cutis have been made assiduously by Prof. Isamu Miyake of Kumamoto Medical College and his associates from 1930 to 1937 and the detailed report presented before the international medical conference held in Budapest, Hungary, won world-wide recognition.

Dermatology in Japan is closely linked with urology, and this tendency has become all the more apparent since the beginning of the Showa era and combined meetings of the two societies are being held annually in recent years.

Mention should also be made regarding the institution of the law for the prevention of venereal disease in 1927. This law, however, leaves much to be desired since it aims at the control of prostitutes alone and some further steps are generally considered essential in order to put the ill-famed disease under complete control.

Urinology Urinology in this country falls far behind that in the advanced countries of the West. This is borne out by the fact that there are yet a number of medical colleges where this department is not set up and run independently from other departments of medical science. The only exception is the Kyushu Imperial University, where an independent department of urology was set up in 1924 with a competent professor. At other universities and colleges while the department is nominally independent, the chair is invariably held by the professor of dermatology.

An interesting instance in connection with this subject in the past was the introduction of the rejuvenation process of Steinach by a professor at Kyushu Imperial University. With the dismissal of the professor from the university, however, the interest in the recondite process died down and its place seems to have been taken up in a way by a host of sexual hormones at present. The pyrexia therapy was once em-

ployed against degenerative syphilis, but this too is now superseded by sulfanilamide preparations.

The outbreak of the First European War made it impossible for medical colleges and institutes in general to import some of the important medical equipment, temporarily affecting urology as other branches of medical science. This sudden suspension of imports resulted in the appearance of a number of domestic medical equipment, some notable items among them being cystoscope for inspection, incorporating many improvements over the imported ones, and Takei's instrument with steam-sterilising device which has been found to be a very efficient outfit and contributed much towards the development of urology in this country. The same remark also applies to urethral speculums and catheters.

With the completion of diathermous apparatus in this country introduced by Dr. Masaatsu Kitagawa, Professor at Keio University, non-malignant cases of tumors of the bladder began to be cured simply and easily, while malignant cases of tumors of the bladder or of the prostate gland are now cured by means of radon seed since the establishment of the Cancer Research Institute. As for hypertrophy of the same gland, either total or partial removal by operation was effected previously, but hormone therapy is employed extensively at present.

Anatomical researches of the urethra, especially that of the urethral gland was early conducted by Dr. Tsunesuke Sato and subsequently results of pathological researches on acute and chronic cases of gonorrhoea were published by Dr. Gotabayashi and Dr. Kusaka.

Dr. Kunihiko Hayashi and Mr. Hisayuki Kume elucidated that chyluria is caused by the outflow of the congested lymph due to *Filaria Bancrofti* and Dr. Hajime Tamura later enlightened that it can be prevented by syringing fluid medicines into the pelvis of the kidney.

Regarding pyelolithotomy, Dr. Goro Inoue devised a systoscope for irrigation purpose and an excreting pump to be employed in combination at the time of treating the urinary calculus, replacing those cumbersome instruments from abroad.

As for pyelography the use of thorium and sugiuron is proving to be quite effective, the former introduced by Dr. Koshiro Nakagawa of Okayama and the latter by the Pharmacological Depart-

ment of Tokyo Imperial University, the latter being used extensively by doctors engaged in internal medicine, surgery and gynaetrics.

Another treatment evolved in this department of medical science is the saltless alimentotherapy which is proving efficacious in penis tuberculide, although it is not used in cases where operation is possible such as tuberculous of the kidney and the epididymis. Mr. Hide Yanagiwara made it clear that this disease is not a rare occurrence in this country.

By the development of pyelography, accurate diagnosis of deformity of the kidney and the urinary passage, their abnormal positions, etc. is made possible. The transplantation or transplantation cutanea of the congenital hypospadias or injuries on penis by war is now showing good results.

In effecting an operation of the kidney total inhalation anaesthesia is now giving way to either intravenous injection or lumbar anaesthesia.

Otorhinolaryngology The otorhinolaryngology in this country, it can be confidently asserted, has now attained its prime as some 50 years have elapsed since this department was established in the military medical college in 1889 for the first time.

This branch of medical science has had a flourishing record of half a century, to its credit, during which time pioneer doctors studied abroad extensively and devoted their utmost to its development. Some outstanding achievements in this connection are: vital fixation of the ear by Dr. Ushizaburo Yoshii, thus opening an outlet in the research of labyrinthine pathology; introduction of endoscopy by Dr. Inokichi Kubo; researches on labyrinthine nystagmus by researchers at Kyoto Imperial University; tonsillectomy by Dr. Kenzo Takahashi, which created a sensation among all doctors concerned in the clinic of enlarged tonsils. Incidentally among other outstanding discoveries and inventions by Dr. Kenzo Takahashi, mention may be made of the internal plastic surgery initiated by the doctor. All internal troubles are due, according to the doctor, to the impediment in the internal inspiration and expiration, and all nasal troubles including diseases caused by the malformation of the nose, are now cured by his complete internal "remodelling", which is revolutionary to say the least.

Today, in all medical colleges including those established recently in Peking, Hsinking, Harbin and Chiamussu, are found the Department of Otorhinolaryngology, each headed by youthful and learned professors. Another fact which features this line of medical science is that a large number of women physicians are engaged in this line, a feature which is perhaps peculiar to this country.

A list of special lectures delivered at the annual meetings of the society since 1920 follows: Vital fixation of the ear by Dr. Kikuma Tadokoro and others, 1920; the Nasal cavity and the accessory cavity of the Japanese by Dr. Harujiro Arai; Statistics on otorhinolaryngological patients who had previously suffered from influenza by Dr. Kyoshiro Yamakawa, and Grippe and its complications by Dr. Noboru Nakamura, 1921; Labyrinthine reflex by Dr. Teiji Hoshino, in 1922; Symptom and therapeutics of laryngeal tuberculosis by Dr. Noboru Nakamura and Dr. Tooru Kato respectively in 1923; local anaesthesia and its application in the otorhinolaryngological department by Dr. Hisashi Kosokabe, 1924; Etiology and diagnosis of otosclerosis by Dr. Yuta Hosoya and Dr. Fumio Tanaka respectively in 1925; Relation between the eyes and accessory cavity of the nose by Dr. Taneji Masuda and again on the same subject by Dr. Ryo Ishiwara, 1926; Acute case of tonsillitis and its influence on constitution by Dr. Bungo Yagisawa, 1927; Paralysis of recurrent laryngeal nerve by Dr. Shuzo Okonogi, 1928; Inflammation of the labyrinth and its complications by Dr. Keiji Torii in 1929; Deaf-mutism by Dr. Shotaro Tatsumi, 1930; Stenosis of the esophagus by Dr. Shizuo Kobayashi in 1931; Stenosis of the Eustachian tube by Dr. Gen Wanibuchi, 1932; Chronic sinusitis of the maxilla superior by Dr. Kyoshiro Yamakawa, 1933; Otorhinolaryngology and dental diseases by Dr. Mutsumi Akune and Dr. Shirokuro Endo respectively, 1934; Otogenous cerebral abscesses by Dr. Kinichi Nihonsugi, 1935; Diagnosis and therapeutics of cellulitis ethmoidalis by Dr. Kichi Nishibata, 1936; Otitis media tuberculosis by Dr. Shigeichi Sato, 1937; Sexual phenomenon of women and its influence on otorhinolaryngological diseases by Dr. Ryuichi Matsuda, 1938; Experimental investigations on the mechanism of voice production and sound articulation by Dr. Cotoji Satta, 1939; Facial injuries by the current war

which pertain to the otorhinolaryngological department by Dr. Tsutomu Saito and tonsillectomy and its indication by Dr. Minoru Sasaki, 1940; Mucosotitis by Dr. Yutaka Tsuiki, 1941.

Recent themes that have been added to this line of medical science are sound detection under water and the inspection of labyrinthine function following the development of the aircraft medicine.

Another notable fact is that in concert with the nationwide effort in combating tuberculosis, this department is zealously contributing its share in fighting against laryngeal tuberculosis.

Ophthalmology Survey of the past history of ophthalmology of Japan reveals at once that remarkable development in this line of medical science was seen around 1910 when lively discussions took place about the Wassermann's reaction and the therapeutic value of salvarsan.

In the pathological field informative debates were held on the relation between trachoma etiology and its granula and genesis of trachoma pannus. Oguchi's disease also attracted much attention at the annual meeting of the society in the clinical field.

The discovery by Dr. Tatsunosuke Nakamura, who was then an assistant in the Ophthalmological Department of Tokyo Imperial University, of the alarming fact that about 90 per cent of the cases of inflammation of the cornea, about one half of those of the iris, about one third of those of the retina and the choroid, one-third of the cases of the dimness of the vitreous humor and practically all cases of marasmus of the optic nerve appearing in middle-aged persons were of syphilitic origin. Salvarsan was first introduced to the society in Japan in 1909, and the subsequent few years witnessed a series of lively discussions about the advisability of applying the same in the ophthalmic field.

Oguchi's disease discovered in 1907 and subsequently proved to be a congenital non-progressive case of hemeralopia, attracted much attention in those days. Later in 1912 Prof. Gentaro Mizuo discovered that when such patients were bandaged over the eyes for a certain number of hours such blindness disappeared, and this phenomenon has since been known as Mizuo phenomenon.

Other problems of note which attract considerable attention of the society in those days and which are yet to be solved today are one regarding Schnabel's cavity which appears in the optic nerve of a patient suffering from glaucoma and the other concerning the pathological genesis of retinitis nephretica.

The perpetual problem of the society during the 30 years of its existence, however, has been the cause of trachoma, which still remains unsolved. Special mention must be made regarding the very laborious studies carried out by Dr. Kenjiro Kakisaka for many years, which have contributed much towards the research of trachoma in this country. Another ailment which has been subjected to a long series of researches is phlyctane which is today virtually determined as being a tubercular disease.

Since 1933 the Society of Ophthalmology in Japan has been holding annual meetings, at which the following subjects were discussed: Trachoma and its therapeutics by Prof. Shinobu Ishihara at the first meeting; Eye tuberculosis by Dr. Sadao Suganuma, Professor at Keio University, at the second meeting; Diagnosis and therapeutics of cataract by Prof. Yoshiharu Shoji at the third meeting; Visible injuries of the optics by Prof. Oguchi at the fourth meeting; Operative therapeutics of the ablatitis retinae by Prof. Shinosuke Mori at the fifth meeting; Glaucoma, its diagnosis and therapeutics by Prof. Naoki Kumagai at the sixth meeting; Sympathetic inflammation of the eye by Prof. Bumpel Nakamura at the seventh meeting; and at the eighth meeting held last year Prof. Bumpel Hata explained the results of his research on epidemic meningitis with particular reference to its optical aspect. These will show incidentally the recent trend in the ophthalmic science in this country.

Roentgenology The sphere which the physical treatment involves is as extensive as it is diversified from the primitive sun-bath or insolation and massage treatment to the medical application of neutron! While roentgenology constitutes the mainstay of researches in this line of medical science, it also includes incidentally therapeutics of many other kinds: radiotherapy, electrotherapy, osteopathy, hydrotherapy, balneotherapy and climatotherapy.

The Society of Roentgenology was established in November 1922 through the enthusiastic efforts of Doctors Yoshinori Tashiro, Shichiro Hida, Kaichiro Manabe and Goichi Fujinami, and at the initial meeting held the following year, 1923, the following lectures were delivered: Spectrum of X-rays by Dr. Masaji Nishikawa and installation of hydrotherapeutic equipment by Dr. Kaichiro Manabe.

Since 1928 Japan has been represented by delegates sent by both the Government and the society at the International Congress of Radiology, where these representatives explained the development of the science in this country and learned at the same time of the progress made in this science in other countries.

Kelo University was the first in installing an independent department of roentgenology in this country, headed by Prof. Goichi Fujinami, since it was established simultaneously with the opening of the Medical Department in the university in 1920. Subsequently the department was established in other medical colleges in close succession.

Another fact of importance in connection with roentgenology in this country is that in March 1940, commemorating the 2600th anniversary of the founding of this empire, the two societies, the Society of Roentgenology in Japan and the Society of Radiology in Japan, each having a brilliant history in their contribution towards the development of the science, were merged into one composite society called the Society of Medical Radiology in Japan.

Psychoneurology While the recent development in this department of medical science has been remarkable, it was literally a thorny path for the early pioneers in this department, namely, Dr. Shuzo Kure, Dr. Yasusaburo Sakaki, Dr. Saburo Matsubara, Dr. Seima Morita and Dr. Junjiro Shima-zono. Especially the meritorious work of Dr. Morita was outstanding. Teaching at Tokyo Jikeikai Medical College for 36 years, he defined neurasthenia and established his own therapeutics. That he shunned the transplantation of foreign theories and established his own therapeutics of world-wide fame is a matter of the highest congratulation in the medical history of the nation.

A close survey of the course of

development in this department, makes one readily perceive that there are two factors which feature psychoneurology in this country, one is the increasing trend of combining psychiatry with neurology, the two making a close and harmonious whole, and the other is the initiation of researches being carried along independently and the use of new medicines, as for instance the employment of insulin which was first attempted at Kyushu Imperial University and pre-dates the use of the same abroad for a different purpose; the use of gonovaccine in the treatment of paralysis generalis progressiva, vesanorum, was first attempted at the Inokashira Hospital; the practice of electroblitz therapy against dementia praecox at Kyushu Imperial University quite independently from that initiated in Italy.

The activities by the scholars in this line of medical science are not confined to the therapeutics as will be seen by the reports rendered by Dr. Maki Takata and Dr. Ara at the first meeting of the Medical Congress in the Far East; on encephalitis by Dr. Masaji Hayashi and Dr. Tokushiro Mitamura, on autonomous nerve system by Dr. Ken Kure; and on tension of the muscles by Dr. Tsurayuki Sasa and Dr. Seizo Katsunuma. Valuable contribution is expected to be made along the lines of social psychiatry, industrial psychiatry and efficiency psychiatry, all being recent additions which will enable the researchers in their work.

Dentistry Dentistry in this country has made a unilateral development quite apart from other departments of medical science. The fact that by the end of December 1940, the total number of dentists registered in this country numbered 28,786, clearly indicates that dentists by far outnumber physicians in other branches of medical science. This state of affairs is largely due to a number of colleges exclusively devoted to the education of dentists, both male and female, although not enough college have research departments to study for instance the problems connected with dentistry in general, relation with other diseases, diseases arising from plato-nasal surgery, surgical prothesis, etc. The fact that there are only 12 medical colleges in this country where dentistry department is installed explains the situation in this department of medical science. It is greatly hoped by those awakened to the problem

to devise ways and means to solve the present situation and make dentistry attain a wholesome and well-balanced state of development.

In November 1940, under the auspices of all dental colleges a joint conference was held in Tokyo, and in view of the successful results attained on the occasion, it was unanimously decided at the meeting to hold such joint conference every four years.

Doctor's Degrees

Doctorates awarded up to March 1941 are listed below:

Doctor of	Awarded		Total for Apr. 1927- Mar. 1941
	In 1939	In 1940	
Law	10	5	100
Medicine	1,097	919	12,837
Pharmacology	7	4	90
Technology	47	48	579

Doctor of	Awarded		Total for Apr. 1927- Mar. 1941
	In 1939	In 1940	
Literature	11	10	171
Science	66	67	692
Agriculture	28	21	358
Forestry	2	1	18
Veterinary			
surgery	0	0	8
Economics	6	10	74
Commerce	2	1	25
Political			
science	0	0	2
Total	1,276	1,086	14,954

Note:—Figures for April 1927-March 1941 include also those awarded during the 3 months of 1941.

Figures are for doctors under the new law. The number of those who received doctor's degree under the old law during the years between 1888 and 1932 was 2,047.

CHAPTER XXXIII
PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

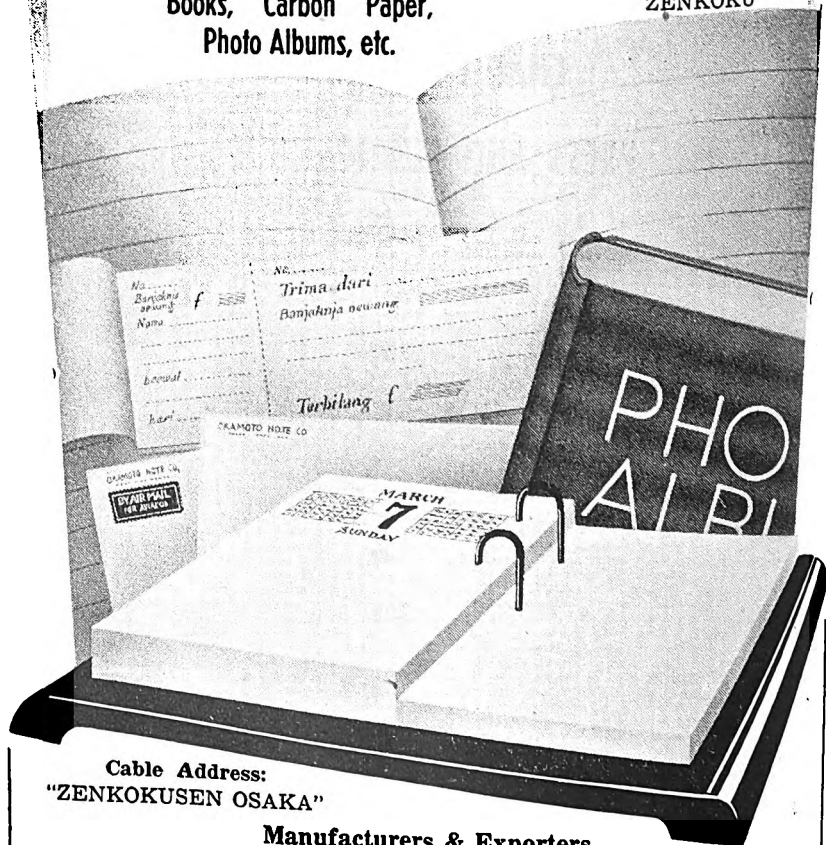
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CHAPTER XXXIII

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

Press

Early History

Yomiuri Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the *Acta Diurna* of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the history of newspaper publications in this country may be said to begin with the *Yomiuri*, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, the word "*Yomiuri*" meaning literally "reading aloud and selling." The *Yomiuri* sheets were so named because the vendors read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The *Yomiuri* sheets were essentially the *Flugblatt* of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the *Yomiuri* differed from the *Flugblatt* of Europe.

Fusetsugaki Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the *Yomiuri*, was a periodical named "*Fusetsugaki*" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign news.

Precursor of Modern Paper When the provincial clans requested that the Dutch Book of Reports be made public, the Shogunate government's *Yoshō Shiraibeshō*, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, however, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers. Instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circulation. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan.

Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers publish-

ed by white Christian evangelists in Hongkong, Shanghai and other places, and had them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorozya, a book purveyor to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books.

In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyu (1861-64). Hence they were popularly called Bunkyu *Shimbun* (newspaper).

Papers in Yokohama Foreign residents of Yokohama translated foreign-language newspapers and published them in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favored opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Western Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which appeared in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the *Japan Commercial News* and *Japan Times*.

Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspaper, *Kaigai Shimbun* (Foreign Newspaper), *Bankoku Shimbun* (International Newspaper) and *Rondon Shimbun* (London Newspaper).

Of these three, the *Bankoku Shimbun* had in its contents not only information from abroad but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-

language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

The Restoration In Japan, as in other countries, the demand for foreign news was a great incentive for the birth of newspapers. The internal disturbances prior to the Restoration and the great aftermath of the historic event afforded an opportunity for the press to develop in all aspects—thereby laying the foundation for the press in the modern sense of the term.

The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

Modern Papers

The Yokohama Mainichi The first Japanese daily newspaper of the modern kind appeared in December 1870, with the publication of the Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun. The newspaper consisted of a single sheet of foreign-style paper with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

More Papers Born The year 1872 saw the birth of several more dailies, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun, and the Nisshin Shinjishi, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly editor of the Japan Herald. The Nichi

Nichi and Hochi remain to this day but the Shinjishi had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadence to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterwards.

Government and Press

Era of Draconic Press Law An era of drastic gag rule dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this drastic legislation, the government in July 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and gave him full discretionary powers to curb newspapers as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years earlier a movement in favor of instituting the Diet had been launched by the late Taisuké Itagaki and others.

Revised Press Law The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1887, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press, which had had the effect of almost exterminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received among journalistic circles with much satisfac-

tion. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was shorn of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and compared with the despotic gag rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legislature. As a natural consequence, these editors made use of their newspapers as their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

The *Kokumin* and *Yorozu* While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater to the popular taste but which took upon itself the responsibility to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was of the old style and this newspaper failed to capture the popular imagination. In the year 1890 Ichiro Tokutomi founded the *Kokumin Shimbun*, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the *Kokumin*.

In 1892 the late Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the *Yorozu Choho*, which added to the *Kokumin's* style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The *Yorozu* invaded the fields of the *Miyako Shimbun*, *Yamato Shimbun* and other newspapers then having the largest cir-

ulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of modern journalism.

Chinese War and the Press The Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The *Osaka Asahi Shimbun*, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the *Chuo Shimbun*, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The *Yorozu* was the most popular newspaper in those days, having a circulation of 50,000. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the *Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun* in Kyushu, the *Shin Aichi* in Nagoya, the *Kahoku Shimpō* in Sendai and the *Hokkai Times* in Hokkaido.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Catering to the Public Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted a non-partisan attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in gaining popularity. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savored of vulgarity and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a keen rivalry between the *Asahi* and the *Mainichi* not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The *Asahi* both in Tokyo and Osaka, the *Osaka Mainichi* and the *Jiji Shimpō* competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. The Russo-Japanese peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and were stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, except the *Kokumin* and the *Chuo*, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the government of the day. Anti-peace mass demonstrations were held in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the demonstrators, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the *Kokumin Shimbun*. To suppress the rioters the government had to pro-

claim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication of the newspapers for certain periods which incited the public to violence. During the month following the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorozu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

Equilibrium of Influence The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin lost much of its circulation; so did the Chuo. The Yorozu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

Motion Picture Utilized Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected were all concerned with newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors.

As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorozu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi brightened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsumé, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favorable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka

Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000, and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorozu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

In the Taisho Era

Expansion of Business One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho Era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations with their capitalizations exceeding the ¥1,000,000 mark.

The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako. Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off made a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favored failed to raise their heads again and had to remain content with insignificant positions. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi claim more than 1,300,000 copies paid circulation each, and some of the leading papers in Tokyo also claim a daily circulation of a million copies. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the Showa era (1926), are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

Newspapers Today

In circulation, news service and public influence the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi, with their head offices in Osaka enjoy a position admittedly superior to all other contemporaries. They have their respective sister papers in Tokyo, the Tokyo Asahi and Tokyo Nichi Nichi. Recently, the Yomiuri, one of the oldest newspapers published in the capital, has come to a close second in circulation and news service.

The two Osaka papers divide the country with their two Tokyo sister papers with Shizuoka as the dividing line. The Osaka edition covers the western part of Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Chosen, Taiwan, Manchoukuo, China and other southern regions. The Tokyo edition covers the areas east of Tokyo up to

Hokkaido and Karafuto (the southern half of Saghalien). This system of division seems to have been generally adopted by other Tokyo papers.

Other well-known dailies which exercise considerable influence in respective districts are the following: The Yomiuri, Hochi, Chugai Shogyo, and Miyako, published in Tokyo; The Kahoku Shimpō of Sendai; The Shinano Mainichi of Nagano; The Shin Aichi and Nagoya Shimbun published in Nagoya; The Fukuoka Nichi Nichi of Fukuoka.

Since the Manchurian incident all dailies in Japan have made a definite swing in the direction of a nationalistic outlook, looking at the various problems from a strictly nationalistic point of view. Japan's continental policy is being given much prominence and the pioneering spirit given full support. The press unanimously upheld Japan's policy of extending her influence to the continent and, to that end, forming an alliance with the newly born Empire of Manchoukuo.

China Affair The outbreak of the China Affair (1937) brought about a decided change in the press, both in its physical and moral aspects. On account of the stringent control of paper pulp, the supply of newsprint was rationed while many dailies, weeklies and monthlies had to amalgamate or discontinue publication. All dailies have reduced the number of pages; the noon edition has been given up and, with rare exceptions, the Sunday evening edition has been discarded. The size of advertisements has been reduced and the full page advertisements for toilet articles, department stores, etc. which used to be common formerly have disappeared altogether.

Censorship is enforced with greater vigilance but the press is voluntarily cooperating with the authorities in censoring news and reports that have close bearing upon the military operations and the general policy of carrying out the basic purpose of the China affair.

Greater East Asia War With the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War on December 8, 1941, the press launched forth a large scale system of news gathering much greater than for the China Affair. Picked correspondents and cameramen were dispatched with major army units and quite a number of them were killed in action, while braving

the danger of enemy fire for gathering news.

One peculiar feature regarding the daily newspapers in Japan is the absence of the Sunday edition such as is seen in the United States. The edition on Sundays is the same as that on other week days. The traditional custom among the Japanese to spend the Sundays, as far as possible, out of doors for recreational purposes may largely account for the lack of Sunday editions.

(See "The Press in Wartime Japan," Contemporary Japan, April 1940 number).

Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper at the end of April 1941, was 454. In addition, there were on the same day 340 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 2,984 newspapers issued 3 times a month or less. All these 3,778 papers come under the category of "newspapers" and are so treated by the Government.

Since 1938 the Government strengthened the control of newspapers and advised the publishers of petty dailies to discontinue their publication, in view of the shortage of newsprint and other reasons. The following tables reveal the result of such control in 1938 and 1939.

NUMBER OF DAILY PAPERS

According to Districts in 1937-1941

Districts	1937	1938	1941
Northern prefectures			
Hokkaido	76	62	27
Aomori	12	11	7
Iwaté	14	14	5
Miyagi	15	16	5
Akita	7	7	5
Yamagata	12	11	5
Fukushima	38	28	3
Prefectures around Tokyo			
Ibaraki	19	9	4
Tochigi	15	10	6
Gumma	14	13	2
Saitama	7	7	1
Chiba	14	12	1
Tokyo	254	238	146
Kanagawa	19	20	7
Prefectures facing the Japan Sea			
Niigata	23	20	5
Toyama	7	6	2
Ishikawa	10	10	5
Fukui	14	12	4

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District	1937	1938	1941	District	1937	1938	1941
Prefectures in Central Main Island				Okayama	10	10	5
Yamanashi	8	7	2	Hiroshima	17	18	9
Nagano	40	38	7	Yamaguchi	17	17	11
Shizuoka	62	56	6	Prefectures in Shikoku			
Prefectures around Nagoya				Tokushima	4	3	2
Gifu	12	12	4	Kagawa	3	2	1
Aichi	74	61	37	Ehimé	20	17	9
Mié	16	16	8	Kochi	4	4	2
Prefectures around Osaka				Prefectures in Kyushu			
Shiga	18	17	2	Fukuoka	56	40	14
Kyoto	31	33	12	Saga	6	4	2
Osaka	95	90	40	Nagasaki	10	10	6
Hyogo	48	48	14	Kumamoto	7	6	3
Nara	9	9	1	Oita	32	32	2
Wakayama	19	18	6	Miyazaki	13	12	1
Prefectures in Western Main Island				Kagoshima	6	5	3
Tottori	3	4	1	Okinawa	6	6	2
Shimane	2	2	2	Total	1,208	1,103	454

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF PERIODICALS
IN JAPAN PROPER

With Guarantee Money					Without Guarantee Money				
Total			4 Times	3 Times	Total			4 Times	3 Times
Sum	Total	Daily	Monthly	Monthly	Daily	Total	Daily	Monthly	Monthly
			or More	or Less				or More	or Less
1932 11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,817	206	241	4,370	
1933 11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711	
1934 12,166	7,081	1,219	470	5,392	5,084	215	258	4,611	
1935 12,101	7,180	1,222	506	5,452	4,921	219	295	4,407	
1936 12,820	7,531	1,226	564	5,741	5,289	209	498	4,582	
1937 13,268	7,797	1,208	609	5,980	5,471	214	574	4,683	
1938 12,043	7,739	1,103	619	6,017	4,304	176	323	3,805	
1939 8,676	5,977	815	486	4,676	2,699	113	261	2,325	
1940 8,124	5,654	767	478	4,409	2,479	—	—	—	
1941 5,190	3,778	454	340	2,984	1,412	—	—	—	

Note: Publications that discuss political questions must deposit a certain amount of "guarantee money" with the authorities, otherwise they are forbidden to publish anything referring to politics. A magazine devoted to purely literary matters does not come under this regulation.

Official Gazette

The Government publishes "Kan Po," or Official Gazette, daily, excepting Sundays and national holidays, and it has a wide circulation, for example, 16,915,704 in 1939. It issues also "Shuho" or a weekly with over a million subscriptions.

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers do not publish exact circulation figures. What is believed to be a comparatively accurate estimate of the daily circulation of more than 800 newspapers is 19,000,000. In

1937 the average monthly consumption of paper by all newspapers amounted to over 800,000,000 lbs. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in the provinces and they are read more in commercial and industry districts than in agricultural districts.

Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri-Hochi Shimbun, the Tokyo Shimbun, and the Nippon Sangyo Keizai.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 40 in all, but, as

regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi, and the Osaka Mainichi, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan is as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi	1,000,000
Yomiuri-Hochi	1,000,000
Nippon Sangyo Keizai	150,000
Tokyo Shimbun	700,000
Osaka	
Osaka Asahi	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Papers	
Shin-aichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi,	
Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpō, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from ¥1.00 to ¥1.50. Airplanes are used for transportation of newspapers between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

Magazines

Many and varied are the periodicals, mostly monthlies, published in this country. A casual visit to a book-stall or the book section of any of our department stores, will give one some indication of the amount of mental pabulum provided to the masses by this type of publication. Statistics show that in 1940 the number of magazines including monthlies, semi-monthlies and quarterlies published in Japan totalled 1,970.

The more serious periodicals intend primarily for intellectuals deal with a wide range of subjects including social problems, science, literature, sports, as well as political and economic subjects. There are four or five magazines both in respect of size and contents,

catering to the intellectual class of people, and every one of them has the thickness of a fairly big volume, containing from 500 to 600 pages in octavo. What is more, these magazines become stouter still at least four times a year when special numbers are issued. So far as the number of pages is concerned, these monthlies most probably stand in a class by themselves in the whole world.

These magazines publish, among other things, detailed reports of news relating to political and economic problems, and frank comments by experts on such problems. Besides, every one of these journals contains, as a rule, a treatise or two of topical interest, usually examinations, from various points of view such as political, philosophical, religious, and literary, of some of the heritages of Japan's past which remained ignored while the country was busy transplanting Western civilization to her soil.

Another feature of these periodicals is that a large number of contributors write for each issue. The number averages about 45, of which from one-third to one-half are generally considered as first-rate writers of the day. The writings of these men, excellent both in substance and style, make an attractive feature in any magazine.

Another feature of these monthlies is the large space devoted to short stories and dramas by rising authors. Each issue contains as a rule three or four feature stories or dramas, and in the case of a special number anything from five to seven. Short-story writing has been and still is occupying an important place in the literary field in this country. One of the cogent reasons for the healthy growth of this branch of literature in this country may be sought in the great favor shown by magazine editors to young writers able but unknown to fame. It has been the custom ever since the Meiji era for almost all literary efforts by writers, who have since become famous in the literary world to be introduced to the public first through the pages of magazines of a serious nature.

These serious magazines have a limited circulation of from 30,000 to 70,000 each. Magazines which have a larger circle of readers are those catering to the tastes of the masses, young and old, and those edited primarily for the fair sex.

There are about five popular maga-

zines that are reported to have a combined monthly circulation of more than 1,500,000. As might be expected, editors of such magazines are out to put in that may be regarded as representative stories calculated to move the reader to tears or tickle his or her sense of humor. Here is a vast scope for popular writers of tales replete with those deeds of derring-do which reflect the ethos of the feudal days. Sentimental love stories by popular novelists are hailed with great delight. The Edgar Wallaces and Wodehouses of Japan find in these journals a great demand for their thrilling and side-splitting stories.

Keeping pace with these journals in point of popularity are women's magazines. They contain, among other things, articles on social problems previously touched upon in newspapers, such as the love affairs concerning film stars, cases of double suicide, scandals of noted ladies and many other sensational topics. Space is not allotted to sensationalism alone. A great deal of space is also devoted to articles on conventional things, such as hints on cookery, sewing and the care of babies—rehashed and repeated year in and year out—as well as romances by popular writers.

Another remarkable thing about all these popular journals was that whenever special numbers are issued, generally three times a year, two or three extra volumes, running up to 200 pages each, are thrown in as a token of gratitude to the reader. But the publication of extra volumes has come to a stop in 1941, on account of the Governmental control of the distribution of printing paper and the control of publications in general by the Japan Publication Association (see "Publications" in this chapter).

Of the monthly magazines described above, those of a serious nature generally see the issues of the following month out on or about the 19th of the preceding month, popular magazines much earlier, that is, about the 10th. As soon as they are out a half-page advertisement, showing the contents with subjects and names of writers of feature articles printed in large type, is inserted for two or three days in the principal newspapers.

There are at present (April 1941) 9,424 varieties of monthly journals in Japan.

Of these 2,804 are on sale in Tokyo. Below are given figures representing some of the principal magazines:

Magazines (serious)	250
Magazines (light)	58
Women's magazines	25
Young men's magazines	95
Juvenile magazines	30

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics and literature:

- Chuo Koron (Central Review)
- Kaizo (Reconstruction)
- Nippon Hyoron (Japanese Review)
- Bungéi Shunju (Literary Review)
- Sozo (Creation)

Politics and law

- Sékai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
- Shakaiséisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)

- Kokusai Chishiki and Hyoron (International Knowledge)

- Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)

- Kakushin (Renovation)

- Hogaku Shimpō (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:

- Toyo Kéizai Shimpō (Oriental Economic Review)

Economist

Diamond

- Kéizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)

- Kéizai (Economy)

- Zaisei (Finance)

- Honpo Zaikai Josel (Economic Conditions of the Country)

- Kokusai Graph (International Graph)

Popular Magazines:

King

- Hinodé (Rising Sun)

- Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)

- Gendai (Present Generation)

- All Yomimono (All Stories)

- Hanashi (Story)

- Shinseinen (New Young Generation)

- Tairiku (Continent)

Literary Magazines:

- Bungéi (Literary arts)

- Bungaku (Literature)

- Bungakukai (Literary World)

- Bungakusha (Men of Letters)

- Shincho (New Tide)

- Araragi, a waka magazine

- Hototogisu, a haiku magazine

- Butai (Stage)

Women's Magazines:

- Fujin Koron (Women's Review)

- Fujin Kurabu (Women's Club)

- Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)

- Fujin-no Tomo (Women's Friend)

Press Organizations

The Federation of Newspapers was established on May 15, 1941, as a juridical person. The number of member publishers reached 110 in July. The first president of the Federation is Tokichi Tanaka of the Chugai Shogyo. The purpose of the Federation is to effect autonomous control of daily papers in all matters of publication, reports and discussions, training of correspondents and distribution of printing paper.

Shunjukai; founded 1903; a social club of newspaper editors, magazine writers and correspondents in Tokyo.

Niju-Ichi-Nichi-Kai; founded 1926; members include editorial directors, managers, news editors and others holding responsible positions on the editorial staffs of newspapers.

The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters; founded 1931; consists of 46 newspapermen's and news agency reporters' clubs at various governmental institutions and economic or financial bodies.

News Agencies

The Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha was merged with the Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha (June 1, 1936) and became known as the Domei Tsushin Sha. It is organized by 200 Japanese daily newspapers on a non-profit making system, on the same lines as the Associated Press in America, and its directorate is represented by leading dailies and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan.

The Domei maintains close relations with representative news agencies abroad, and their correspondents in Tokyo have offices in the Domei building. It handles domestic and foreign news, news reels, news photos, overseas radio service.

The Nippon Dempo remains a purely advertising agency.

Schools of Journalism

Waseda, Meiji and Jochi universities maintain their schools of journalism since early 1930's. Tokyo Imperial University opened a similar school as a section of the Faculty of Literature in 1932. Lecturers in the Tokyo Imperial journalism course include noted men of experience in the active press work. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Shinjiro Yamano, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first 40 graduates in December 1932.

College Papers

Tokyo Imperial and Waseda universities issue a weekly of their own; Keio and Kyoto Imperial universities a bi-monthly; Meiji and Kansai universities a monthly, all in Japanese and edited by students of journalism. Waseda publishes a monthly newspaper, The Waseda Guardian; Tokyo Imperial University an annual edition, both in English. Kwansei Gakuin used to publish The Gakuin Observer (also in English) twice a year but is temporarily suspended.

Foreign Language Publications

The Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser, a weekly, first issued in Nagasaki in 1861 by a resident Britisher, named Hansard, was the first foreign language newspaper published in Japan. He soon moved to Yokohama where he continued the publication, in December of the same year, under the name of the Japan Herald. He employed another Britisher named Black as its editor.

The Japan Herald was soon followed by a weekly, in 1863, known as the Commercial News, edited by a Portuguese. The Japan Herald, in October of the same year, started, in addition to the weekly, a daily, featuring advertisements. In 1865 the Commercial News was discontinued and a certain banker Rickerby bought the equipment and started The Japan Times in September of the same year. (This publication has no connection whatever with the daily of the same name published in Tokyo).

A dispute arose in the Japan Herald in 1867 between its editor Black and the new owner, and Mr. Black left the paper and started the Japan Gazette, an evening paper. The popularity of the Japan Gazette was so great that it eventually forced the Japan Times out of business.

Shortly after the disappearance of the Japan Times, Captain Brinkley, a Britisher, started the Japan Mail. It enjoyed a large patronage among Japanese and foreign residents and after the death of Captain Brinkley was run by his son, the paper having moved, in the meantime, from Yokohama to Tokyo. In 1914 the Japan Mail was merged with the Japan Times, the paper being known since then as the Japan Times & Mail.

There was another English language newspaper, the Japan Express, edited by an American, which first appeared in 1866. The copies of the paper were

hand-written, engraved in wood blocks and printed. The name of this American and the duration of time the paper was published are unknown but a diplomatic document in the possession of the French Government records that this journal represented American interests.

There were also a French newspaper, *L'Echo du Japon*, in the Kelo era (1865-68), an English magazine, the *Japan Punch* which was started in the Bunkyo era (1861-64) and lasted for 20 years, and a French magazine of caricatures, "*Tobaye*." These foreign papers served to stimulate, directly or indirectly, the birth and growth of modern newspapers in Japan.

Mention should be made of the *Nagasaki Press*, one of the oldest foreign language newspapers, the *Kobe Herald*, and the *Yokohama Gazette*. They kept up a heroic struggle but eventually discontinued. The earthquake of 1923 dealt a death blow to them financially.

The *Japan Times*, started in 1900, sponsored by leading statesmen and businessmen, under the editorship of Motosada Zumoto, may be considered the oldest daily in English (or in any foreign language) in Japan. It was launched with the purpose of presenting correct information about Japan to the world and has been carrying on with increasing success. Its name was changed to the *Japan Times & Mail* when it was amalgamated with the *Japan Mail* in 1914. About that time, Mr. Zumoto left the *Times*. The name of the paper was again changed to the *Japan Times and Advertiser* when it combined with the *Japan Advertiser* in 1940.

The *Osaka Mainichi*, English edition, was begun by the *Osaka Mainichi* in Osaka with the same purpose as the *Japan Times*, in 1922. A year later, in April 1923, the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi*, English edition, was started in the *Tokyo Nichi Nichi* building, a sister paper of the *Osaka Mainichi*. The following year, it was transferred to Osaka and fused together with the *Osaka Mainichi*, becoming known as the *Osaka Mainichi & Tokyo Nichi Nichi*.

The *Japan Advertiser* and *Japan Chronicle* were both foreign-owned dailies of long record. Both papers, however, were amalgamated with the *Japan Times* in 1940, and the *Japan Advertiser* was combined with the *Japan Times*, while the *Japan Chronicle* is published in Kobe as before by the *Japan Times, Limited*.

Contemporary Japan was first published in June 1932 as a quarterly by The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan, founded in 1931, Tokyo, to furnish all principal phases in the current national life of Japan. In order, however, to achieve the object more effectively, consonant to the changing national conditions, it was made from a quarterly to a monthly, (beginning March 1939). Contributors to Contemporary Japan include men of highest authorities in respective lines of their endeavors. Members of Council are: Prince Fumimaro Konoye, Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, Counts Nobuaki Makino and Kentaro Kaneko, Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, Barons Yoshiro Sakatani and Kijuro Shidehara, Seihin Ikeda, Hantaro Nagaoka, D. Sc., and Kihei Onozuka, LL.D., while Prince Iyesato Tokugawa continued a member from the beginning until he passed away in June 1940. The Director is Toshi Go who is also President and Editor of The *Japan Times & Advertiser*.

The newspapers and periodicals in foreign languages published in Japan today are as follows:—

Daily

Japan Times & Advertiser
Osaka Mainichi & Tokyo Nichi Nichi
(m.e., except Mondays)

Weekly

Japan Times Weekly & Trans-Pacific
(The *Japan Times, Limited*)
Deutsche Kulturschau
Latest China Intelligence

Monthly

Contemporary Japan (Foreign Affairs Association of Japan)
Tourist (To-A Tourist Bureau)
Japan Trade Monthly
Travel Bulletin (N.Y.K.)
Oriental Economist
Bulletin of South Sea Association
Commercial Japan
Japan Esperanto Servo
Tenrikyo (The Shinto Sect)

Quarterly

Commerce (Japan Foreign Trade Federation)
Cultural Nippon (Nippon Central Cultural Federation)
Sakura (Osaka Mainichi)

Annual

Japan Year Book (Foreign Affairs Association of Japan)
Orient Year Book (Asia Statistics Co.)
Japan Today & Tomorrow (Osaka Mainichi)
Present Day Nippon (Osaka Asahi)

Bi-Monthly

Japan Trade Review (Yokohama Commercial & Industrial Museum in

Yokohama Chamber of Commerce & Industry)
Nippon (in English, German, Italian and French)

Daily News Service in English

Domel Service (domestic, foreign, commercial, etc.)
Okuyama Service
Pacific Information
Commercial Daily Report

Publications**A Historical Summary**

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows:

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow:

1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025
1934	26,331
1935	30,347
1936	31,996
1937	30,732
1938	29,466
1939	28,054
1940	26,279

Since the outbreak of the China Affair, the number of publications in Japan has tended to decrease. Books and pamphlets have fallen off by 4 per cent in 1937 and 1938. This trend is largely due to the high price of paper, which began to rise in the spring of 1937, and to the recent increases in postal charges. Most significant was the decrease in the number of pamphlets and the increase in books. For a time there was actually a deluge of pamphlets, the peak coming in July 1936, when for

the 996 books published there appeared 1,520 pamphlets. But the pamphleteer's popularity has dwindled in recent months, and in October 1938, there were only 505 such literary products as compared with 1,898 books, a decrease of about two-thirds.

Many factors have contributed to this decrease in pamphlets, especially the ten-sen brochures. One factor has been the appearance of the Cabinet Information Bureau's Weekly Report, (circulation over 1,000,000) which has acted as an authoritative substitute for the various brands of news-interpretation pamphlets which held the field in the past. Another important cause has been the liquidation of various problems which had supplied the themes for many a pamphleteer owing to the unification of public opinion during the emergency. But the main reason for this significant decline is the fact that serious-minded readers no longer rely upon such pamphlets as a background for the daily news.

Of the 26,279 publications turned off the press in 1940, the largest individual group is represented by literature, numbering 3,112. The number increased by 112 as compared with the previous year. The reason why literary works, novels and stories, maintained a steady output during the past 5 years is to be found in the fact that people are seeking entertainment in them in these years of emergency more than in peacetime, so that stories depicting the affairs at the war and home fronts appeared in greater numbers. Books on politics have gained 264 as compared with the previous year.

The number of religious books published remained normal, indicating the presence of a strong thirst for spiritual comfort.

Another interesting result may be seen in the decrease of books on language.

age and dictionaries, dropping to a normal number. The reason may be found in the saturation of supply in preceding 3 years.

The publication of books on military affairs has also returned to a normal condition, reflecting subsiding of excitement.

The total number of books and pamphlets published in 1940 decreased 1,775 or 6.3 per cent from the previous year.

Increase of New Books But the publication of new books and foreign books

translated into Japanese is on the increase as revealed in the following tables. The reasons may be sought in the increase of public demand for new books as a means of recreation in these emergency years in which other means of amusement are much restricted, in the thirst of the Japanese people for the knowledge of foreign countries at this time of international confusion, in the increase of readers among working classes and in the constant demand for knowledge in general as it has been one of the best national characteristics of the Japanese people.

YEARLY COMPARISON OF PUBLICATIONS

Subjects	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Politics	1,127	1,322	945	592	856
Law	876	835	833	913	860
Economy	2,000	1,707	1,745	1,589	1,749
Social science	1,252	1,414	1,222	1,813	1,474
Statistics	183	251	205	67	449
Religion	1,891	1,576	1,453	1,566	1,199
Philosophy	1,248	1,106	751	605	578
Education	2,581	1,830	1,677	1,527	1,030
Text books	1,488	2,709	1,948	1,619	2,282
Literature	3,189	2,656	2,452	3,000	3,112
Language	1,341	1,378	1,621	842	273
History	460	455	503	370	390
Biography	547	411	583	342	398
Geography	1,467	1,444	1,132	1,076	1,085
Mathematics	590	529	404	180	32
Natural science	602	429	422	512	565
Engineering	862	1,035	993	694	102
Medicine	985	927	989	807	656
Industry	1,884	1,751	1,368	925	967
Communications and transportation	243	246	228	121	208
Military subjects	414	834	961	417	387
Fine arts	1,117	1,107	812	490	447
Music	1,185	963	908	1,148	778
Handicrafts	185	71	245	322	83
Dictionaries	102	123	152	122	102
Series	378	419	511	686	794
Domestic subjects	1,451	1,011	1,434	2,177	2,303
Amusements	761	786	557	603	831
Miscellaneous	1,587	1,407	2,412	2,929	2,287
Total	31,996	30,732	29,466	28,054	26,279

YEARLY COMPARISON OF NEW PUBLICATION AND TRANSLATIONS OF FOREIGN BOOKS

(Compiled by the Tokyo-Do Book Store)

Subjects	New Publication					Translations of Foreign Books in the Total		
	1937	1938	1939	1940	1937	1938	1939	1940
Philosophy	211	142	205	200	22	20	38	38
Religion	122	62	77	109	8	5	10	15

PUBLICATIONS

697

New Publication

Translations of
Foreign Books
in the Total

Subjects	1937	1938	1939	1940	1937	1938	1939	1940
Education	464	346	287	169	6	7	3	5
Criticisms, essays	416	195	268	225	—	—	—	—
Literature	65	48	61	61	76	86	128	194
Poetry	166	86	108	145	—	—	—	—
Fiction	515	255	509	795	—	—	—	—
Music	66	24	28	22	—	—	—	—
Fine arts	87	83	58	64	5	8	7	12
Drama, cinema	17	18	12	25	—	—	—	—
Language	110	83	56	34	—	—	—	—
Foreign language	170	137	96	96	6	2	1	2
History, biography	197	160	161	201	22	13	32	33
Geography	70	71	86	103	10	10	9	13
Politics, social science	295	355	325	376	29	29	55	84
Law	156	157	134	128	3	2	4	—
Military subjects, communications and transportation	—	—	89	109	6	6	3	22
Statistics, year books	—	—	61	37	—	—	1	—
Finance, economy	253	273	221	258	28	32	28	43
Commerce	72	70	72	55	3	5	3	—
Industry	255	234	258	229	—	3	8	11
Agriculture	107	105	85	81	—	8	4	5
Natural science, mathematics	154	107	105	126	10	8	15	15
Medicine, sanitation	241	146	163	117	2	2	3	5
Sports, amusements	88	69	33	48	7	2	2	1
Domestic subjects	63	41	35	50	2	—	2	4
Designs and maps	13	6	5	7	—	—	—	—
For boys and girls	302	264	276	347	5	8	9	21
Reference books for examination	279	335	349	355	—	—	1	3
Series, library	—	474	448	538	133	190	145	171
Pamphlet	—	141	160	248	—	2	3	15
Revised books	—	521	930	792	19	37	79	66
Character building	49	43	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	5,003	5,041	5,761	6,123	402	485	589	784
Percentage of translations of foreign books	—	—	—	—	8.2	9.6	10.4	12.8

STATISTICS OF ITEMS RELATIVE TO PRESS AND PUBLICATION

(1936—1940)

Items	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Publications	31,996	30,732	29,466	28,045	26,279
Governmental publications	10,497	11,067	12,620	11,318	7,034
Newspapers (End of the Year)	12,820	13,268	12,043	8,676	5,871
Magazines (End of the Year)	16,739	16,788	15,057	15,953	15,369
No. of principal magazines sold	68,584,000	72,733,000	75,474,000	82,275,000	—
New books appeared on bookstalls	4,900	5,003	5,041	5,761	6,126
Libraries	4,893	4,615	4,616	4,755	4,538
Library admissions	24,444,000	26,158,000	26,701,000	19,671,000	—
Members of the Japan Booksellers Association	15,072	15,168	15,341	16,141	—
Printing papers sold (In million lbs.)	1,872	2,032	2,030	2,035	1,935

Control of Publication

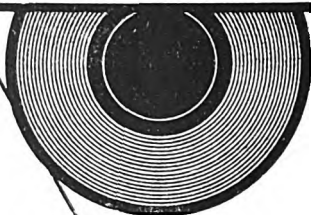
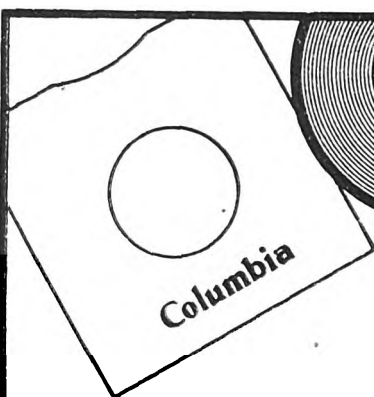
In consonance with the movement for the new national structure, the Nippon Shuppan Bunka Kyokai (Japan Cultural Publication Association) was organized on December 19, 1940, with the purpose of controlling the publication of periodicals and books and the distribution of printing paper for publication, under a permit system. Among various periodicals, the number of which reaches over 20,000 including non-commercial private magazines, and books, the monthly publication of which reaches 3,000, there are superfluity of publication on similar subjects, competition for mere profiteering purposes and even those periodicals which are published with the main purpose of getting money from advertisers. The regulation of the indiscriminate publication of insignificant periodicals and books has been long required by thinking people through the columns of newspapers. And in answer to their requirement the Association was organized by the cooperation of competent authorities in the Government and leading publishers.

The members of the Association are (1) publishers in general, (2) publishers for non-commercial purposes, (3) those who are engaged in the publishing business carried by the above mentioned publishers, and (4) those persons who have special interest in and knowledge of publication and recommended by the president of the Association. Their number reached 3,536, on June 24, 1941, when the first general meeting of the Association was held in the Okuma Memorial Hall at Waseda, Tokyo.

The main works of the Association are a proper supply of material for publication to publishers of periodicals and books, and the control of publication, both under a permit system through which selection of publishers and choice of books and periodicals are made; and a proper distribution of books and periodicals among book stores through the Japan Publication Distribution Company. In other words, publication in Japan is restricted to books and periodicals published under the recognition or permission of the Japan Cultural Publication Association.

CHAPTER XXXIV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC



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CHAPTER XXXIV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

LITERATURE

History

Yamato Period The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods: the Yamato, Héian, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yédo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodai (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato, Nara prefecture, wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Héian, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) **Literary Works.** The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are: the Kojiki, Nihonshoki, Fudoki, Norito, Senmyo, Manyoshu, Kaifuso, and Nihonraiki. The principal writers are: Ohno-Yasumaro, Tonérishinno, Yamabé-no-Akahito, Kakinomotono-Hitomaro, Yamanoéno-Okura, Otomono-Yakamochi, Ohmino-Mifuné, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, Ohmino-Mifuné, was proficient in Chinese classics

and poetry.

(2) **Development and Classification.** Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections: works in descriptive style, of which the Kojiki is the main representative; and poetry that followed, with the Manyoshu¹ anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Héian Period The Héian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Héian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

1 **Manyoshu (or Manyoshu).** The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the history of Japanese literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period in which the poets of the book lived covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A.D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,496 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 waka and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are Kakinomotono-Hitomaro of the epic long poems; Yamanouéno-Okura of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; Yamabé-no-Akahito, the only nature poet among the group; Ohtomono-Yakamochi who is believed by many critics to be the compiler of the book and Nukatanô-Ohogimi and Sakanoé-Iratsumé, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Héian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Héian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. This period may further be subdivided into the following four sections:

- Early Héian period (781-884)
- Middle Héian period (885-980)
- Mature Héian period (981-1064)
- Last Héian period (1065-1182)

(1) Early Héian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among the poetical works are the Ryouunshu, Bunkashureishu, Kéikokushu, while among the authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Ôéno-Otondo, Sugawarano-Koréyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukéyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of the newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-letters was taken by Japanese poetry.

The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the Rokkasen, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Onono-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisenhoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the Takétori-monogatari and the Isé-monogatari.

(2) Middle Héian Period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like a tidal wave. In poetry, works like the Kokin-wakashu and Gosen-wakashu are prominent, while in fiction such works as the Utsubo and Ochikubo and Tosanikki, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Héian Period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Héian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazomé-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanékata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared women novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Séisho-nagon, the former being the authoress of the Genji-monogatari, while the latter composed the Makura-no-soshi, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colors blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Héian Period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, in the early part of the period the literary cult turned from

1. Genji-monogatari. The authoress Murasaki-shikibu (975-1031) was born a daughter of Tamétoki Fujiwara, a family of the illustrious Fujiwara clan, and served at Court for some years as lady-in-waiting to the Empress Akiko. She is known as Lady Murasaki, but her personal name is not known. The book is a large one (nearly 1,900 pages in Arthur Waley's English translation), written in pure old Japanese, extremely refined and pregnant, with Japanese character, or kana, sentences, and literary critics agree in the opinion that it belongs to the greatest masterpieces of the novels of the world.

Genji-monogatari means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as any the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is the impression it creates upon us of its modernity and universality of feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.

novels to historical works, producing the *Eiga-monogatari* and *Okagami*. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshinari Fujiwara and Saigyô-hoshi; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General Development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the *Manyôshû* precedes the more intellectual *Kokinshû*; and the *Shikashû* that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the *Manyôshû* and *Kiki* (short for *Kojiki* and *Nihonshoki*) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the *Taketori-monogatari* and the *Isé-monogatari*. This realistic tendency was further augmented by the *Utsuho-monogatari*, and later produced the famous *Genji-monogatari*, turning its direction thenceforward toward historical compositions, such as the *Eiga-monogatari* and the *Okagami*. To enhance this realistic tendency of the time, legends and fairy tales, mingling with current realism, regained their former influence, producing the *Konjaku-monogatari*, a fairy tale dealing with supernatural and supersensuous things. Furthermore, amid this abundance of literary composition there are others with characteristic features common to meditative, lyrical literature, namely the *Tosa-nikki*, *Murasaki-shikibu-nikki*, *Maikurano-soshi*, *Izumi-shikibu-nikki*, *Tombo-nikki*, *Tonominé-sho-sho-monogatari* and *Sarashina-nikki*.

Kamakura Period The period of about 150 years, beginning with Minamoto-no-Yoritomo Shogunate government at Kamakura in 1182 and ending in the Kemmu Era of 1334, is called the Kamakura period, in the history of our literature. For the first 50 years literature was under the influence of the preceding Heian period; but the 100 years that followed saw two literary currents sweeping against each other, one at Kyoto, the cultural center, and the other at Kamakura, the pivot of political authority. Although, during the period,

there was no literary movement worthy of special mention, yet it created its own literary atmosphere which resulted in the production of numerous so-called war-tales and religious literature.

(1) Kamakura Literature. The fact that the emotional and sentimental tendency of earlier ages gradually turned to philosophical meditation during this period explains why the works of the time are generally void of individual touch while being true to type. Buddhist pessimism then dominated social thought. The popularization of the Buddhist religion in this period was the result of the natural growth of that religion on the one hand, and of the reaction of public sentiment against the ceaseless civil wars, on the other.

(2) Representative Works. War literature, like the *Hogen-monogatari*, *Héiji-monogatari*, *Héiké-monogatari* and the *Gempéi-séisuiki*, is the most outstanding production of the age. Just as in the preceding period, when literary themes were gathered from historical facts, so in the Kamakura period subjects were sought for from the social conditions of the times when bloodshed, existing side by side with the simple, artless life of the samurai, completely saddened and subdued public sentiment. With reference to waka, inspired by the advent of well-known poetical works like the *Shin-chokusenshû*, were born the *Zoku-gojuishû* and *Kinkaishû*. The *Sin-kokinshû*, another anthology of poetry, shows the highest point that Japanese poetry had so far reached. The *Kinkaishû* suggests a return to the *Manyôshû*, while the *Sin-chokusenshû* gives an impression of having reached the acme of poetical refinement, retracing its way back to the beauty of simplicity. It is a pity, however, that rival influences between groups of literary men and critics holding different theories of literary values left the healthy development of literature very much handicapped. Ranking as principal poets of the period were Gotoba-Joko, Tsuchimikado-Joko, Juntoku-Joko, Yoshitsuné, Sadaké, Iétaka, Jakuran and Sanétomo.

Muromachi Period The Muromachi period is the term applied to the 270 years sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa periods, beginning in 1335 when Takauji Ashikaga, rebelled against the Emperor Godaigo and terminating in 1603 when Iyéyasu Tokugawa removed the Shogunate govern-

ment to Yédo.

(1) Muromachi Literature. In consequence of civil disturbance in the preceding age, the literary movement of the period was rather stagnant: the Court nobles were deprived of their positions, while the militarists, taking advantage of the disorderly administration of the central government, exercised an unfavorable influence on the natural development of literary talent generally. Nevertheless, even in such helpless social conditions, the period had the literature peculiar to such an age. Despite the troublesome yoke of historical events, there emerged a certain free and simple literary style; hence, instead of the waka, tales, and diaries, that flourished down to the close of the last period, such descriptions of war and historical tales as the Masukagami, Jinnoshotoki, Taihéiki, Yoshitsunéki and Soga-monogatari were born, besides rambling notes like the Tsurézurégusa, with their own characteristic attractions.

(2) New Forms of Literature. It is worthy of special mention that in this chaotic period originated such new literary forms as the renka, yōkyoku (utal), kyogen and otogisōshi, which saw full development in the following period. Tanka (or waka) verse developed and gave birth to a more diminutive mode, the haikai (or haiku); kyogen evolved into joruri and drama; while otogisōshi reappeared in the form of novels and plays, all in the period that followed. Herein we notice the beginnings of modern thought, the product of classicism evolving into modernism, and aristocracy into plebeianism. The Muromachi period thus occupies an important position in our literary history, functioning as a bridge that connects the preceding periods with the more illustrious Yédo literature. Another thing worthy of note in this connection is the creation at this time of the Kanazawa Bunko, the Ashikaga-gakko and the Gozen-bungaku, the first two being seats of learning and the last a branch of literature.

Yédo Period The Yédo period begins in 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate took up the task of civil government in Yédo, and ends, after 265 years, in 1868, when the Meiji Restoration was accomplished. This forms the most important section in the history of Japanese literature. The Yédo literature succeeded the decadent Muromachi literature

and handed on its wealth of achievement to the Meiji period. The remarkable fecundity of this era is to be attributed to various factors, but to none more fundamental than the good government of Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line. Realizing the importance of the diffusion of learning for good government, he engaged Confucian scholars, published books, started schools and collected rare literary works. The example thus set by the first Shogun was emulated by the succeeding Shoguns, each striving to open up the way for easier access to knowledge and culture both in town and country, until in the Genroku Era under the rule of the fourth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, national culture reached its highest stage of development. The Yédo period may be divided into the following four sections: centered around Osaka and Kyoto,

1. Period of enlightenment (1603-1680)

2. Period of development (1681-1741) Yédo as the center

3. The period of eastward advance of literature (1741-1791)

4. Period of maturity (1791-1868)

(1) Period of Enlightenment. True to its name, this period, following the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yédo, saw the collection and publication of ancient books, and annotations thereof, as well as translations of Chinese literature. It is but natural that during this period nothing worthy of note was produced save as foundation work in preparation for what was to come. From another viewpoint this is the age when the traditionally mystic view of art, and the undue belief in tradition, greatly wanes in influence.

(2) Period of Development. A bird's-eye view of the period gives the impression of a rapid development in popular literature, with Osaka and Kyoto as the center and the Genroku Era as its climax. The origin of this literary movement is traceable to a revival of Mitogaku, which later led to a renaissance of the classics; we see a revival of haikai verse under Bashō, the poet, and then the appearance of Chikamasa's and then the appearance of unfettered development within its own sphere of influence. Towards the close of the period, however, these branches of literature lost popularity, until eventually they could scarcely enjoy public recollection.

(3) Eastward Advance of Literature. This is the period when the so-called Kamigata literature of Kyoto and Osaka, began its movement eastward to establish a new literary movement in the city of Yédo, the seat of the Shogun's government. By this time the popular literature founded by Chikamatsu and Saikaku had declined. Buson became the representative haikai poet of the time. Besides haikai, there came into vogue in Yédo various kinds of short poetry, namely, senryu, witty epigrammatic verse; kyoka, comic verse; and kyobun, nonsense notes. Also in this period the so-called literature for men of the world cropped up, following the publication of the *kibyoshi* and *sharémon*.

(4) Period of Maturity. It was in this period that the construction of the main body of Yédo literature was completed. As a result of the encouragement of learning by the Shogun's highest official, Sadanobu Matsudaira, both art and learning made a remarkable advance, producing a number of artists, and authorities on Japanese and Chinese classics. Parallel with this phenomenal development of classics, popular literature resumed its firm grip on the public. Inasmuch, however, as during the latter half of the period the country was completely upset by troubles both from within and without, most of the literary progress was confined to the early part of the period. Nevertheless, this is known as the period when Yédo literature was crowned with full maturity.

What most characterize Yédo literature are its variety, volume of production and sphere of influence. Not only was it prolific but, all branches of art and learning, from the aristocratic classics down to *kyoka*, *senryu*, *haikai*, *yoruri* (*gidayu*) and popular novels, showed systematic advancement. The social structure in those days could not but reflect the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period. Whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurian's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic fea-

tures of Yédo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works. (As to the development of literature in Meiji and Taisho eras see the Japan Year Book, 1938-39, p. 839.)

Literature in 1938-41

(See pp. 753-757, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41 and pp. 733-738, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42).

Literary World, 1941-42

There was no remarkable change in the tendency of the literary world during the one year starting in June 1941 and ending in June 1942. On the contrary, the conditions in the story-writing circles proved rather dull and inactive, not marked with the advent of any great war stories as in the case of the preceding year. The only special tendency of the literary world during the present year was the rise of book-reviews and comments on current topics. Pivotal subjects which were discussed by commentators and critics were focussed on the re-recognition of classical literature and the study of the racial spirit for the guidance of the Greater East Asia.

Under the influence of such a tendency, the study of Waka and Haiku (pure Japanese short poems) became active. Such a tendency was most vividly reflected by the movement of the publishing world.

Of all the reasons which brought about such a tendency of the literary world, the most noteworthy was the progress of the general public attitude toward the war from the spasmodic pursuit of mere war reports to the study of the very thought of the war as the war became prolonged. Mere novels depicting war conditions proved ineffective to satisfy reading circles. The interest and concern of the reading circles be-

came increasingly and steadily abstract and idealistic. As a result, novels which attach the greatest importance to description became temporarily neglected and reviews which attach the first importance to thinking came to prosper. Such, however, is a transitional tendency. When a racial thinking grows strong and powerful enough to make the story-writing possible, it will result in the creation of war novels in the true sense of the words.

It seems that that racial will for making such a story-writing possible has come to express itself in the increasing pursuit of classical works such as "Manyoshu" or "Kojiki" with an unprecedented zeal and enthusiasm. On the other hand, there has been a mushroom rise of dogmatic and hasty racial thinking or literature in an attempt to jump at a conclusion.

When "a myth of the twenty century" or a guiding principle, for the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere is clearly set out in the mind of men of letters the concrete advance of the Japanese literary world will be possible. However, in 1941, literary thinking of Japan failed to make a merry and bright advance, particularly in the second half of 1941, as the course of Japan in that year was marked not only with concerns on the China Affair but also with threatening clouds overhanging the nation just before the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. Literature reflects the psychological conditions of realities most vividly, and it was quite natural that the vehicle of thinking had to race and the story-writing world has lost its spiritual impetus.

Another principal reason for the inertia of literary circles was a Government control of the distribution of paper. The economization of paper necessitated a strict selection of books to be published by the Japan Cultural Publication Association through which all publication in the country is controlled, periodicals including newspapers had their absolute numbers reduced. Under these circumstances, publications were selected on the one and only basis of the need of the country, resulting in the advent of a kind of government-licensing uniformity.

The economization of paper by magazines and newspapers made it impossible for them to contain long stories or serials. This tendency caused long historic novels based on facts or persons to disappear and enabled the rise of short

stories principally by veteran writers such as Yasunari Kawabata, Hakucho Masamune and Riichi Yokomitsu. Thus, the private-life novels came to prosper, a tendency entirely contrary to the expectation of literary circles which had been nothing but a development of healthy nationalism. This tendency called for criticisms pro and con. But besides a sentimental discrepancy among story writers themselves, it was also attributable to a restriction pressed upon them from without in the form of a literary disciplinary movement sponsored by the Cabinet Information Board. This movement called for the enforcement of a ban on the publication of stories catering to superstitious sentiments or offending to public morals. Subjected to such a ban were the works by popular writers such as Fumio Niwa, Shusei Tokuda, Sakunosuke Oda, Miss Fumiko Hayashi and Mikihiro Nagata.

As the Cabinet Information Board strengthened a control over the publication of romantic stories or comic stories in order to encourage the rise of sound novels likely to stimulate the sentiment of the people under the wartime situation, the contents of stories were forced to become inevitably dry and uninteresting.

Under these circumstances, activities of story writers were more confined to such fields as war reporting, participation in the "misogi" movement, formation of patriotic bodies as well as comfort visit to the front lines. Starting from about September 1941, groups of popular story writers made lecture tours to various parts on the continent. It was at that time that such famous writers as Miss Fumiko Hayashi, Ryuchi Yokoyama and Hidenobu Kamizumi organized a literary patriotic league and made a lecture trip to China and Manchukuo with the support of the Press Section of the Japanese Army in Kwantung Leased Territory.

The Military Protection Board dispatched 96 noted writers in order to write parts of the country in order to write stories about those who rendered distinguished services for the protection of the soldiers as well as the activities of the members of the bereaved families of war dead and compile such stories into a work titled "Good Acts Behind the Gun." Among those selected by the board for the task were Hiroshi Ueda, Shiro Hibino, Ashihei Hino, Minoru Nakano.

Kazuo Takemori, Kinzo Satomura, etc.

The Kuroganekai, a literary patriotic body, was organized by 40 writers including Ki Kimura, Komatsu Kitamura, etc. and held an inaugural lecture meeting at the Hibiyu Auditorium on October 4. Among the proposed program of their activity are positive co-operation with dramas, movies or radio programs of patriotic nature, publication of a magazine on sea defense, establishment of a marine research organ, fight against enemy propaganda, etc.

Activities of writers as members of the army and naval press sections have been remarkable since the outbreak of the China Affair, and particularly so since the start of the Greater East Asia War, a great number of them being sent to the areas occupied by the Japanese forces extending from the Aleutians in the north to the islands in the southwestern Pacific area together with many painters. This task of serving in the execution of the gigantic war with pen and brush is no invention of Japan but many writers and painters of all the countries of the world are engaged in similar work at Western war fronts, and it may be said that it is one of the specific duties of the literary men in Japan to serve the country with pen.

It is believed that their experience in the occupied regions will lay a foundation for a new and more extensive development of literature in this country.

There is no denying that the dazzling victories of the Imperial Japanese forces since the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War including the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor at the outset of the war have offered many and numerous new experiences and encouraging factors to Japan's literary circles, and have served to drive away a rather gloomy atmosphere which prevailed during the four years of the China Affair.

With the remarkable war results in the past 6 months Japan's literary circles have renewed their convictions that they are tasked with a heavy responsibility of building up literature in East Asia as the leaders of literary circles of the countries in the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. This conviction certainly proved the strongest

element for the creation of literary work in 1942.

As compared with the inactivities of story writers in 1941, the rise of "Kado" or the art of Japanese poetry was one of the noteworthy developments in the literary circle of Japan last year. The increasing zeal and enthusiasm of poets as well as the general public toward poetry culminated in a plan to create a representative Japanese song titled "Kōka Daikōshin Kyoku," or "March of Asia," under the sponsorship of the East Asiatic Bureau of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association. This plan is now well under way with the assistance of the Japan Poetry Association, Japan Poetry League and other leading poetry bodies.

On August 1, 1941, the recipients of the Akutagawa and Naoki prizes for 1941 were announced. They included Akutagawa Prize for Yukei Tada for his work titled "Choko Delta" (Yangtze Delta); Naoki Prize for Soju Kimura for his work titled "Sentry in Yunnan."

The special feature of the works which received the two prizes was that both of them based their themes on the life on the Continent depicting it with a deep insight into realities, instead of a mere presentation of outward actions to flatter the age.

The epochal boom of the publishing world inspite of restrictions mentioned above was one of the noteworthy features of the literary world during 1941, particularly since the start of the Greater East Asia War. This tendency is believed to be due to a remarkable increase of reading circles as a result of the steady disappearance of other forms of amusement under wartime restrictions.

Great importance attached to scientific books due to the encouragement of the diffusion of scientific knowledge by the Government was another special feature in 1941-42.

On the other hand, the Ministry of Education created a Commission for Recommendation of Good Books in an attempt to select good books for the public. Books thus recommended by the commission have been sold with special tags bearing the words "recommended by the Ministry of Education."

FINE ARTS

History

Pre-Asuka Period This period, corresponding to what is called the dark age of art, has nothing specially to describe, although it is perhaps the longest period, extending, as it does, from the age of myths down to about the 7th century, A.D.

According to archaeology the ancient Japanese worked in stone, artifacts such as stone images being used in ancestor worship. These are rough hewn sculptures, representing persons clad in armour, wearing a sword, or other arms, all having been used in burial as guardians of the tomb. It was customary, too, in ancient times to have a similar primitive engraving, in the form of a ladder or a wheel, made on the coffin; the plain, artless impression thus conveyed is expressive of the simple mode of living in that remote age.

The dwellings were also in very simple style, constructed of barked but unhewn timber. Even in this simplest type of building there were two styles, known as the Izumo and the Isé, which implies that the ancient culture of Japan was dual, derived either from Izumo or Isé. The former style of structure is represented by the Izumo Shrine, Izumo province, present Shimané prefecture; and the latter by the grand shrine of Isé, although these now give no more than a vague idea of what must have been the prehistoric architecture of the country.

In addition to the above, there are earthen figures called haniwa which arrest the attention not only of archaeologists but also of artists. According to historical records, the Emperor Suinin, who abdicated in 2 B.C., abhorred the cruel old custom of burying people alive around the grave of a high personage, certain individuals being selected from among those persons who were under patronage of the deceased in life. At the instance of a retainer, Nomino-Sukuné, he caused earthen figures to be interred in place of living persons, when the Empress Hihashimé died; and this was the origin of haniwa. It is believable, however, that the haniwa existed before Suinin's time. The haniwa is, from an artistic point of view, by no means of high value. It is nevertheless, the only art product of Japan before the importation of Buddhism. Moreover, its value rests on

the fact that it is a work produced solely by the Japanese before they had been influenced by Chinese art. Besides, it is invaluable in that it gives some idea of the life of the people of its day. The variety of haniwa may be roughly classified into human figures, birds and animals, architectural structures, household articles and arms.

Asuka Period As has been stated in the preceding section, for sometime after the foundation of the Empire by the Emperor Jimmu, there was nothing worthy of mention in the realm of art. The Asuka period covers the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629), when the Imperial palace was in the province of Yamato, Nara prefecture. Already, as early as the time of the Emperor Yuryaku, in the middle of the 5th century, a painter named Isura came over from Chosen, with which country Japan then had frequent intercourse, and through which Chinese civilization had been introduced. Later, during the reign of the Emperor Sushun, towards the end of the 6th century, another painter called Hakka came with carpenters to build temples. But it was not until Shibatatto came over from China, in the reign of the Emperor Keitai (507-531), that Buddhism was introduced into Japan, despite the fact that communication had long before continued with Chosen, then called Kudara.

Shibatatto must have been an expert in the art of sculpture, for he was the grandfather of Kuratsu-kurinatori who cast the image of Buddha now in the Horyuji Temple, in the Empress Suiko's time. Nevertheless, it is evident that the country which contributed most toward founding Japan's fine art technique was Kudara.

The development of art in the Suiko régime was really wonderful. Prince Shotoku, a man of wide learning and an enthusiastic devotee of Buddha, spurred on the ever increasing devotion to art. The leading structures of the period were the Horyuji and Tennoji temples; but those parts of them that have best withstood the wear and tear of time are the two-storied kondo, gate, the five-storied pagoda of the Horyuji temple and the three-storied pagodas of the Horyuji and Horinji temples. No doubt the creative design of the Prince must have been woven into them, but it is

nevertheless true that they were modeled after Kudara architecture. It is only from these structures that one can form any idea of what Chinese architecture in those days might have been. The Tamamushi-no-zushi, (a miniature temple) in the Horyuji temple, is valuable not only as a model of ancient architecture but as an example of the structural art and craft of the Suiko régime. The honeysuckle design on the metal fittings of the miniature temple bears close resemblance to similar art motives of Greece. The sculptures of the Suiko period are not all from one source, some coming from China or Korea, while others are home creations, either from the hands of Chinese sculptors, or the combined efforts of Japanese and naturalized aliens.

The fine art of the Suiko period is both deep and comprehensive, and at the same time affords invaluable reference for study.

Hakuho Period In the history of Japanese fine art, following the Suiko Era comes the Hakuho period which starts in the reign of the Emperor Joméi, terminating in that of the Emperor Mommu, 629-697. In the 15th year of the reign of the Empress Suiko the custom of sending a government envoy to China, then called Sui, was established, followed by increased intercourse between the two countries. Later, in the 2nd year of the Emperor Joméi's administration, the first envoy was despatched to the T'ang Court in China. By the establishment of this custom art products of China came direct to Japan instead of through the Korean Peninsula, as they had done up to that time. Moreover, the Taika Reformation, by which the political system of China came to be closely followed from the time of the Emperor Kotoku, contributed much toward developing Hakuho art.

(1) **Painting.** One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this; Its fresco work is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speak of the inflow of art from India and other Oriental countries.

(2) **Bronze.** The most representative work of the period consists in the big bronze images of Buddha and the two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. In connection with the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern also has its origin in the west of India, whence it came to China during the Han dynasty and prospered in the age of Tang.

(3) **Architecture.** The only model of architecture constructed in this period and still extant is the three-storied pagoda of the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Another example of the best architectural technique of the period is to be seen at the Nara Imperial Museum where models of five-storied pagodas of the time are preserved.

Tempyo Period The Nara period (707-780) is called the Tempyo Era in the history of Japanese fine art. Through the zealous efforts of the Emperor Shomu and Empress Komyo, who were unrivalled in piety, Buddhist doctrine was thoroughly demonstrated in the capital of Nara, with a consequent development of Buddhist fine art. It was the veritable golden age of fine art in religion. The casting of the Daibutsu (great image of Buddha) at the Todaiji temple and the construction of the temple itself may be pointed out as the greatest examples of art within the period. The Daibutsu has several times suffered from fire, which made it necessary to repair the image; and, in consequence, only the petals of the lotus blossom upon which the image sits retain traces of contemporary art motives. On the surface of these petals are engraved scenes from the sacred world of Buddha, which, from the view point of technique in painting are decidedly excellent. In front of the building occupied by the colossal statue of Buddha there is a bronze-lantern which minutely exemplifies the characteristics of the Tempyo period. Other remains representing the sculptures of the period include several images in the same temple.

(1) Shoso-in Museum.¹ After the demise of the Emperor Shomu all the objects of art he possessed were donated to the Tōdaiji temple by the Empress Komyō. Nearly all were treasured in the Shoso-in Art Museum of Nara, and have safely been handed down to the present times. Perfect preservation of art products from so remote an age could be expected only in such a country as Japan. The national treasures of the Shoso-in not only abound in rare paintings but also in many objects of industrial art, such as textiles, lacquer-ware as well as gold and silver ware, porcelain and writing utensils. Especially noteworthy are the Tang masterpieces from the Imperial household of China. In addition to those of Japanese and Chinese production, examples from the East Roman Empire, Persia, India and countries west of China are found in the museum. Thus the Shoso-in Art Museum is representative of the art products covering both East and West from even before the 7th century.

(2) Ganjinwajo. A priest known in Japan as Ganjinwajo together with a number of disciples, visited Nara, then capital of the country, not long after the completion of the Daibutsu. He and his followers had drifted ashore in the southern part of Kyushu. These foreigners left an indelible impression on the history of Japanese art, because they belonged to a group of leading

artists of the Tang period of China. Their skill in art was woven into the art of the Tempyo period, not only in the fields of painting and sculpture, but also in architecture. That art products from their hands must have been as great in number as in variety is evidenced by the art treasures of the Tōshōdaiji temple in Yamato province, Nara prefecture. The image of Buddha enshrined in that temple exhaustively represents the characteristics of the art of the Tang dynasty. Besides these there are several wood-engravings in which, it is surmised, the sculptures of the succeeding period had their origin. Among the foreigners were persons of other than Chinese nationality. Gumporiki, as he was called in Japan, was an expert sculptor, from the country of Kurlunkuo the exact location of which is still a question. Judging by the fact that the Ganjinwajo party included people from the west of China. It is but a matter of course that the engravings at the Tōshōdaiji temple resemble the fresco art of countries west of China. From what remains, there is sufficient reason to believe that some of the descendants of the Persians driven out of the country by the Mohammedans, arrived in Japan with the party.

All kinds of cultural forms and products were imported during this period. These the Japanese could digest and work with a skill not inferior to that

1. The Shoso-in is located in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple at Nara. The building is a typical wooden storehouse of old Japanese Azé-kura style. No metal nails are used and no walls of earth. The whole building consists of three separate sections which have no windows but one entrance door for each. In the interior each section is two storied with an attic. The dimensions of the building are approximately 108 feet by 30 feet, the height from the ground to the roof top being 39 feet.

Formerly the treasures were kept out from light, and untouched for a long period of years. Since 1872 the doors are being opened annually for airing for two weeks, from November 1st to 14th. All the precious objects are kept in glass cases. In the northern section are kept treasures of the Imperial House before and at the time of the Emperor Shōmu, mirrors, desks, musical instruments, screens, medicine, etc. The middle section contains arms and armour, cases, glass and lacquer wares. The southern section largely contains religious antiques of the Tōdaiji temple.

The Shoso-in apparently existed in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple before 756 A.D. when the Empress Kōmyō, widow of the Emperor Shōmu, dedicated to the Vairocana Buddha or Daibutsu the Imperial treasures as a memorial of the deceased. Time and weather have told upon the building. Battles went on around the sacred ground and the Shoso-in itself was once stricken by a thunderbolt. But the wooden storehouse has been mysteriously preserved through 1,179 years, with partial repairs. Most of its contents listed in the "Tōdaiji Kemmotsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), dated June 21, 8th year of Tempyō-shōhō (756 A.D.).

of the foreigners. A general impression of the Tempyo period, however, is that there was too much copying of Chinese art and so, too little originality. This one-sided trend of evolution gave rise to a movement in the following periods for a revival of art genuinely Japanese in origin.

Konin Period The Konin period (782-888) begins about the time that the Emperor Kammu transferred the capital from Nara to Kyoto, lasting till the reign of the Emperor Koko. The outstanding characteristic of the Konin period lie in the phenomenal rise of native art at the hands of noted priests. Kobodaishi and Chisho-daishi were priest sages of refined artistic endowment. Quite a number of pictures and sculptures of the period are from their hands. The Toji, Koyasan and Mildera temples treasure works of theirs. As one of the prominent painters of the time we may name Kudara Kawanari on whom there are a number of books, but none giving reliable historical information about him. He must have been among those artists summoned by the Emperor Saga to paint the pictures of landscape and rough seas seen on the walls and paper sliding-screens of the Séiryoden Hall of the palace. The custom of painting landscapes and characters on screens of the Imperial palace was thereafter developed setting a fashion in drawings which please the

eye. In those days screens were popular, and this helped to popularize landscape painting.

The typical sculptures of the period are such sacred images as are seen at the Shingoji temple, Kyoto, known as the Shingoji style sculpture, and others at the Murofuji temple in Nara prefecture, known as the Murofu style. The rise of the art of engraving images of Japanese gods may be mentioned as a memorable event of the age.

As regards architecture the period shows very few examples that now remain, the representative structures being the main hall and five-storied pagoda of the Murofuji temple. The Hélan Shrine constructed in Kyoto, closely modelled after the structures of the age under review, offers excellent material for the study of Konin architecture.

Fujiwara Period The Fujiwara period (889-1186) covers the 300 years between the reign of the Emperor Uda and that of the Emperor Antoku. At the beginning of the period the Emperor Uda, at the suggestion of Michizané Sugawara, discontinued the custom of despatching envoys to China, thereby cutting off facility of communications with the continent. During the consequent isolation Japanese art was afforded a chance to cultivate its native genius and its own field of influence. The continental art that had been freely

have been kept unharmed solely due to the loyalty of the officials and people to the Imperial House to whom the Shoso-in belongs.

The most important treasures are the "Kemmonsu Chō" (catalogue of donation), letters of the Emperor Shōmu, essays written by the Empress Kōmyō, slung sword of the Emperor Shōmu, Kin-gin Hyomon Kin (gold and silver ornamented Oriental harp), Shitan Genkwan (a stringed instrument), Gogen Biwa (a five stringed lute) Mokuga Shitan Kikyoku (a sandal wood checker board ornamented with wooden mosaic), Toriké Tachionna Byobu (a screen with a female figure who wears feathered garments), Urushi Ko Héi (a lacquered carafe), Yōraku or diamonds and fragments of the crowns of the Emperor Shōmu and Empress Kōmyō, Gingaku Men (masks used in an old performance "gigaku"), bronze mirrors, swords and other arms and armour; Imperial edict engraved on a bronze plate, glass cup, lacquered chest painted with gold and silver dust, gold and silver ornamented leather box, hangings with figures of Buddhas, Mitta Eboen (a painted tray), silver bottle, and censer with a handle.

Priceless documents of the Tempyō period are stored in Shoso-in, 779 in all. They include census registers, maps, official documents, I.O.U. and books, and present indispensable materials for the study of official and civil life 11 centuries ago.

For the sake of protection, inspection of the treasures of the Shoso-in is not permitted to the general public, but the pictures of all treasures are published in book form named "Tōyōi Zuko," and all the documents may be found in the "Dai Nippon 'Ko Mon Jo" (Japan's old documents).

absorbed and adopted up to that time commenced to produce national characteristics as is demonstrated by yamatoyé work in the sphere of painting.

(1) Painting. Koséno-Kanaoka was probably the most skilled landscape painter of the period. His reputation was such that the horse he painted on a paper sliding-door was credited with getting out of the screen at night to feed on bush clover in the yard. Koseno-Hirokata, a well-known painter, was one of his descendants. As skilled painters of that age we may mention also Motomitsu Fujiwara, Mitsunaga Fujiwara, Takayoshi Fujiwara and his son Takachika, besides Toba-sojo and Kakyu, all of whom specialized in painting yamatoyé or native style, which had developed from a school in the Tang period of China, called Karayé. Japanese paper-doors and folding screens were what they selected to paint on.

Besides yamatoyé many other schools of Japanese style paintings were started, as the kamiyé, utayé, ashideyé, and okoyé. The last mentioned was a school of comic genius whose premier artist was Toba-sojo, a noted priest of the day. Three albums of comic pictures from his brush are treasured at the Kozanji temple. Another important arrival was the yémakimono (paper-scroll) which later developed, reaching its golden age in the Kamakura period. The aforementioned three artists were the most popular masters of the age. Some of their work still survives.

Consequent upon the ever inculcated Buddhist precepts, Buddhist paintings flourished, so much so that specialists in that art were always in evidence. In this religious sphere of painting also national characterization was effected to no meagre extent. The most outstanding of the Japanized Buddhist schools was named the Eshinфу, started by Eshinsodzu, a priest, first affiliated with the Tendai sect of Buddhism, but who later preached the doctrines of the Jodo sect. Probably this school was second to none at that time in Japanization of technique. Taméto, commonly called Great Takuma, who did the fresco work of the Ho-o-do at Uji, Kyoto, belonged to the Takuma family, producing accomplished painters of the time. The most representative Buddhist paintings are treasured at the Hokkéji, Yamashiro Chohoji, Yamato Horinji, Koya-

san, the Toji temples and the Imperial Art Museum of Tokyo.

(2) Sculpture. Remarkable advancement in the realm of Buddhist sculpture was revealed in consequence of effective doctrinal propaganda by the Tendai and Shingon sects. Wood-engraving stood unrivalled, but that art, unlike the same mode of the previous age, was mainly in what is called parquetry work. Sculptors collaborated, and in most cases images were constructed in separate parts, each carved by a different artist, under an accomplished specialist. It is interesting to note that even in the carving of hands, feet, head and body there was a division of labor into smaller parts, and each section was put in charge of one sculptor. When completed, the several parts were put together, painted with lacquer and gilded.

Guilds of sculptors, like the Shichijobussho, Shichijomiya-bussho, Rokujomarikoji-bussho and Sanjo-bussho, established studios one after another. Especially noteworthy in this field was the Shichijobussho started by the famous artist Jocho who was practically supreme in the realm of sculpture in the Fujiwara period. The peculiarity of the Jocho school of his creation lies in its soft, mild features with smooth, elegant textile folds or plaits, which characterize the most glorious period of Fujiwara art. The images of Amida, enshrined at the Ho-o-do, Hokaiji, Saikyoji and Chusonji temples are all representative works of the Fujiwara period.

(3) Architecture. Along with the development of Japanese style painting, a new Japanese architecture, as seen in what is called the Shinden-zukuri (main building of a peer's residence), prevailed. This style gradually encroached on the domain of sacred structures, as is well exemplified in the Ho-o-do and Konjikido, above cited.

Within 300 years after the country's adoption of a seclusion policy, an indigenous style characteristic of the Yamato race made the fullest possible development in all branches of art.

Kamakura Period Between the Emperor Gotoba and Emperor Godaigo the Kamakura Shogunate assumed the reins of government. The Kamakura period (1192-1337) of political history is at the same time that of Japanese

art. During those 140 years traditional Japanese sentiments and thought developed vigorously against the aristocratic culture which had gained influence in the previous period. Such a turn of cultural development could not but react on art; the anti-traditional spirit of the age began to tell on artistic creation. Not only from within but also from without the country a radical change was introduced, because in those days the Yuan period succeeded the Sung in China; and its highly favored cultural attainments came flooding into Japan. The two movements, of foreign and domestic origin, combined to lay a foundation for modern fine art which started and developed in and after the Muromachi period.

(1) Painting. Continued civil wars, military administration, and war literature, all contributed to the voluminous production of *yémakimono* (picture-scrolls) based on themes from battle scenes. Another kind of *yémakimono* worthy of special mention was painted for the purpose of propagating the doctrines of newly risen sects of Buddhism, such as the Zen and Jodo. This pictorial demonstration of religious doctrines proved quite effective; for, by depicting the life and work of founders, a more direct appeal was made to prospective converts. For the same reason the *yémakimono* came to serve also as a means to propagate knowledge of the origin and development of shrines. Quite a number of picture-scrolls of the period still remain in perfect condition, those reckoned among the greater works being the History of the Kitano Tenjin Shrine, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Sanjurokkasen, Mokoshurai-ékotoba, Honen-shonin-gyojo-édzu. The last mentioned is a *yémakimono* depicting the personal history of Honen-shonin, the noted priest who founded the Jodo sect of Buddhism. Among scores of *yemakimono* painters, Nobuzané Fujiwara, Kéion Sumiyoshi, En-i, Takakané Takashina and Yoshimitsu Tosa were the most popular. A further noteworthy event of the period was the rise of portrait painting. Generally speaking, until this period there was no other method for reproducing figures except by sculpture. The term for portrait was *niséyé*. But toward the end of this period a new mode appeared. The technique of portrait painting made rapid advance from the time of Takanobu Fujiwara, Taira-no-Shigémori, Minamoto-no-Yoritomo

whose works are treasured at the Shingoji temple, all rare masterpieces.

With reference to Buddhistic painting, the aforementioned Takuma school gradually improved in technique; and with the appearance of Shoga, a descendant of the Takumas, the Takuma school of Buddhist painting was founded, drawing a clear line between the old and the new delineations.

(2) Sculpture. The Kamakura period was also a fecund age in the direction of sculpture. Compared with the work of the preceding period it appeals with more virility. The Shichijo-busscho, the most important sculptors' association or guild, which had been making steady progress, produced a group of consummate artists in Koéi, Unkéi, Jokaku, Kalkéi, Tankéi, Jokéi, Koben and Kosho, all contemporaries. Among them the most skilled were Unkéi, Tankéi and Kalkéi, who are recognized as the best sculptors since the time of Jocho. Whereas Unkéi and Tankéi excelled in producing the expression of passion, as in statues of nio (Deva kings), Kalkéi specialized in gentle, elegant figures, like those from the chisel of Jocho.

(3) Industrial Art. Lacquer-ware technique, too, made a remarkable advance. The art of engraving also progressed, especially with the appearance of the Kamakura-bori (Kamakura style of engraving). Technique in metal work, also saw much development, inheriting the characteristic virtue of the Fujiwara period. Up to that time the native ceramic art was in so primitive a stage that only unglazed ware could be manufactured. After Kato Shirozaémon-Kagéhisa returned from Sung, marked progress was made in this field, and fine chinaware became a home product.

(4) Architecture. The mansions of nobles had been built in the Shinden-zukuri style, but during the Kamakura period the Buké-zukuri style of architecture started and soon dominated. This is a simple, plain style with an unusual number of sliding-doors to let in light. Though this style of structure has gone out long ago, one can get an idea of it through various *yémakimono* in which this style of architecture is represented. After the advent of the Zen sect of Buddhism under Eisai-zenshi from China, then called Sung, and the establishment of the Kenninji temple at Kyoto, Zen style of architecture

came to attract attention. A good example of this style, still intact, is the Enkakujī temple at Kamakura.

Muromachi Period Succeeding the Kamakura age came the Muromachi period (1337-1573), which after the two centuries and a half of civil strife, ended with the downfall of the Ashikaga Shogunate. In China the civil disturbances of the late Yuan dynasty had been brought under control by the rise of the Mings, resulting in the advent of the golden age of Ming culture, which exercised some influence on Japan.

(1) **Painting.** As was customary whenever Chinese culture attained its zenith, communication between the two countries, which had been on the wane, revived again, resulting in the gradual decline of yémakimono, portrait and Buddhist painting, handed down from the preceding Kamakura period, which were unable to cope with the powerful influence of Sung-Yuan style of painting in China. Early in this period there were not a few yémakimono worthy of note such as the Gosannen-gunki by Koréhisa Fujiwara and the Yuzu-nembutsu-engi, joint work of Hiroyuki Tosa, Yukihiidé Kasuga, Mitsukuni Fujiwara, Ryuko Awataguchi, Jakusai Rokkaku and Eishun Hogan. The latter still remains in the form of a colored wood-engraving, perhaps the most widely known as our oldest example of this art.

Typical portrait work of the period is that of the Emperor Godaigo in the Daitokuji temple, Kyoto, and of Yoshimochi Ashikaga, at the Shingoji temple. Far more characteristic of the age, however, are the portraits of Zen priests or so-called "Chinso." The most typical chinso is, perhaps, the portrait of Séichi-kokushi, painted by Mincho, preserved in the Tofukujī temple. Strictly speaking, chinso has more similarity to the Sung-Yuan style than to the Tosa school of portraits.

Buddhist painting of the Muromachi period may roughly be adjudged stationary. Copying of old works seemed to have been the only task attracting artists, among whom a priest named Myotaku-zenshi was known for skill in painting Acala pieces; the principal works of this priest-painter are treasures of the Imperial Art Museum. The most distinguished pictorial artist throughout the period, however, was Mincho. Among his works handed down to the

present are the portrait of Séichi-kokushi, above-mentioned, Gohyakurakan (500 disciples of Buddha) in the Tofukujī temple, and Dainéhanzu, known as the largest painting in the country. In his brush work are ample traces of the style of the Sung-Yuan period in China; and he was, moreover, the leading painter of the age by whose art the Continental technique, introduced with the Zen sect in the Kamakura period, was digested, assimilated and consummated.

Special mention should be made of the advent of the Sun-Ming style in yamatoyé work, enhancing the traditional style of that art. This new movement was no doubt made possible by the Ashikaga policy of encouraging trade with China, then called Ming. In consequence, numerous Chinese works of art continued to be imported, greatly stimulating the domestic art world. Among the various art institutions then inherited from the Continent, kakémono (hanging pictures) and a more advanced technique in painting flowers and birds were perhaps the most outstanding. It is also a fact worthy of special mention that the Sung-Yuan style of sumiyé painting (black and white) became popular throughout Japan, under artists like Jasoku Soga, Sotan Oguri, Shinno Nakano, Sésshu and Masanobu Kano. These five sumiyé painters were talented pupils of Shubun who enjoyed the confidence of the Shogun and occupied an important position under the Shogunate government as a painter.

(2) **Sculpture.** Images of Buddha continued to be supplied by the Shichtjō-bussho of which mention has already been made. But these products gradually lost their artistic value. The aforementioned Shubun was also a good sculptor. It is said of his skill that the great wooden statue, 40 feet high, of Amitabha, enshrined in the Unkyōji temple, was originally the work of a Nara sculptor, but was retouched by Shubun's chisel and improved.

(3) **Industrial Art.** In this epoch the development shown in industrial art was mainly due to the whimsical enthusiasm of the Shogun. Chanoyu (tea ceremony), a ceremonial etiquette genuinely Japanese, gave rapid rise to various branches of industrial art especially in fine porcelain, the climax of which was reached during the latter part of the period. This progress was not only

in works of manual art like tea-cups, trays and so on, but in kakémono and tokonoma (alcove) furnishings of the tea-room, and the building itself, all of which are required for the full ceremony of tea-serving. Most of the tea-cups used for chanoyu in those days were of Chinese make, or imports from the South Seas.

(4) Architecture. The Zen style of architecture greatly improved. This, combined with the cult of chanoyu, lent impetus to the construction of simple but tasteful habitations and temples, with gardens and arbors harmonious to the main building, well represented by the Kinkakuji and Ginkakuji temples in Kyoto.

Momoyama Period The 25 years from 1574 to 1598 is termed the Momoyama period. During this comparatively short interval civil disturbances stirred up the whole country under the governments of Nobunaga Oda and Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, acting as military dictators.

(1) Painting. Eitoku Kano was perhaps the greatest painter of the period. Nearly all the mural pictures in the castles of Azuchi and Osaka and the mansion at Shuraku are attributed to the brush of this famous artist. The peculiarity of the painting of the period lies in its grand scale and gorgeous, bright coloring. This is especially true of Eitoku Kano's work. Another noted landscape and ukiyoyé painter was Sanraku Kano; in the Sesshu school of sumiyé were Kogan Unkoku and Tohaku Haségawa; the Tosa school had Mitsu-yoshi who succeeded to the Tosa school which had by that time been reduced to a school only in name.

(2) Sculpture. The most striking feature of the Momoyama sculpture is its clever adaptation to decoration of architecture. Besides Hidari-Jingoro, whose fame as an accomplished sculptor and engraver still enjoys nationwide popularity, there were skilled artists like Yuzaémon Miyanishi and Matayémon Okabé. As in the Muromachi period, the art of carving "No" masks came into vogue.

(3) Industrial Art. Metal work experienced remarkable improvement. The sword-guard artists evolved novel designs. Also in the technique of bronze casting no insignificant progress was made by casters like Yashichiro Nagoya, Dojin Nishimura, Yojiro Tsuji-

do, Yayémon Nagoya and Echizen-no-Shojo-sansho. The current of the age could not but influence the art of raised lacquer, handed down from previous periods; now works on large scale, fit for the decorative purposes of architecture, began to dominate the situation. The Kannon-do of Chikubu-shima island, Biwa lake, and the Kodaiji temple of Kyoto best represent the technique of this period.

Ceramics also were greatly enhanced in technique. Impelled by the nationwide use of chinaware, due to the popularization of chanoyu, imported articles grew insufficient. As a natural consequence, home industry in this direction was greatly stimulated, resulting in Nagasaké Chojiro's invention of the rakuyaki style and Rokubéi Mikazuki's bizenyaki style of ceramic ware. In the realm of textile art, what is to be noted is that in the Tensho Era (1573) a new technique in weaving was introduced from Ming China, and reached Nishijin, Kyoto, where it appeared in the form of Yamato-nishiki, ito-nishiki, karaori-nishiki, kinran (gold brocade), donsú (satin damask), rinzu, and so on.

In conclusion it may be said of the art of the Momoyama period that, while developing such gorgeous and imposing structures as the Jurakudai and Momoyama Castle, it popularized the exclusive, austere and polite art of chanoyu. Thus two diametrically opposed arts developed all through the Momoyama period.

Yédo Period The Yédo period (1603-1867) started with the Tokugawa Shogunate in Tokyo, then called Yédo, and terminated with the downfall of that government just before the Meiji Restoration. During the 260 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate Yédo flourished, cultivating its own culture as against that of Kyoto, giving the country two centers of culture, one in the east and the other in the west.

In the early Yédo period communication with countries beyond the sea opened and foreign trade was thereby greatly stimulated. Whereas hitherto Japan had had little or no dealing with Europeans, save Spaniards and Portuguese, Japan now began to be visited by Hollanders and Britons who came to her shores for commercial purposes. Relations with neighboring countries also increased in intimacy, due to improved communication facilities. Nevertheless,

the people were not satisfied with official passivity but extended their trade with Siam, Cochin, Tonking, Luzon. Furthermore, Iyéyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line, even attempted to trade with Spain and Mexico, sending envoys for that purpose. By this improved intercourse with foreign countries traditional Japanese art was greatly influenced. In the Kan-éi Era (1644), Emosaku Yamada first produced pictures in Western style painting. Fortunately or unfortunately, however, the third Shogun, Iyémitsu, with a view to stamping out Roman Catholicism pursued and imposed an isolation policy by prohibiting the entrance of all foreigners except Hollanders and Chinese. Under this high-handed policy the infiltration of foreign influence was almost completely checked, and domestic genius again came into its own, developing another golden age of fine art.

(1) *Painting.* The Kanos, who had flourished since the Muromachi period, produced skilled artists like Yasunobu, Naonobu, Tsunénobu and Morinobu, all of whom had the honor of serving the Shogunate as official painters. But this special favor proved a cause of decline in the Kano school later. Among the foregoing four principal members of the Kano school, the last mentioned, Morinobu, was the most excellent, known by the pen-name of Tan-yu. Tsunénobu ranks next in artistic skill. The Tosa school, which had been waning in influence, recovered its laurels in the days of Mitsuoki who was promoted to the Emperor's service. In those days the Sumiyoshi school originated from the Tosa, and became firmly established under Jokéi, younger brother of Mitsunori. Toward the close of this period an attempt was made for the revival of yamatoyé, by Totsugon Tanaka, Ikkéi Ukita and Tamétaka Okada, among whom the latter was pre-eminent. The yamatoyé of the Meiji and Taisho eras started from their work. Yosai Kikuchi is another painter of the group.

One of the greatest painters of the age was Korin Ogata whose art may be traced back to that of Sotatsu school which was originally a style of painting for decorative purposes. Under Korin were Kenzan, Shiko Watanabé and Holtsu Sakai. Their work surprised foreign eyes as a revelation of the peculiar excellence of Japanese art. Being used for decoration the work of the Koétzu

school had close relations with textile, dyeing, ceramic and other technical industries of the time.

Ukiyóé, which for originality is one of the salient art products of the Yédo period, developed hand in hand with popular drama and popular literature. It is said that the Ukiyoyé or *genré* style of picture, was started by Iwasa-Matabéi-shoi; certainly he and Choshun Miyagawa, Shunsho Katsukawa, Utamaro Kitagawa, Kiyonaga Torii, and Hokusai Katsushika are known as the most accomplished ukiyoyé painters. Of ukiyoyé there are two kinds, namely, hand-painting and color-print. The latter form was most characteristic of the age. The black and white prints, started by Moronobu Hishikawa, were forerunners of beniyé, which is a colored print made on colored wood blocks, an engraved block for each color. Before this printing process was adopted for mass production, brushes were used for coloring. At first two colors, red and green, were used for printing from engraved blocks, but Harunobu Suzuki later invented an improved process of printing in five colors, starting the nishikiyé which met with popular favor as time went on. Later, in the hands of masters like Utamaro and Hokusai, the process of color-printing from wood-engravings saw marked improvement, until the finished pieces far surpassed the original hand-painted work in artistic value. Landscape prints in ukiyoyé style were started by the famous Hiroshigé Ando. Some people may look down upon ukiyoyé as vulgar art; but nevertheless it was art most true to the life of the Yédo period. In later years it was not seldom that European collectors of works of fine art were found ready to pay even several thousand yen for a sheet of mere color-print. This was not without reason.

Special mention should also be made of the arrival of Ifuchieu, a painter of the Ching dynasty in China: for it was through this artist that the Nan-Sung literary school of painting was first introduced into this country. In the early days of the Nan-Sung style of painting, Nankai Gion, Hyakusen Sakaki, Taiga Ikéno and Buson Yosano were its most excellent exponents. Later, with the rise of Chinese classics, the Nan-Sung literary school made great progress and its influence practically dominated the country, producing such noted names

as Unsen Kushiro, Daizen Hirose, Kaiséki Noro, Chikuden Tanomura, Kazan Watanabé, Aigai Takaku, Baikan Sugai, Hanko Okada, Chikudo Nakabayashi and Baiitsu Yamamoto, among whom Chikuden Tanomura was reputed the most excellent. Kazan Watanabé and Baiitsu Yamamoto enjoyed popular favor next to Chikuden.

Buncho Tani became the most brilliant artist of the age, both in Pei-Sung and Nan-Sung styles of painting; he was a pupil of Kangen Kitayama who learned technique from Fei Hun-yuan and Chu Ko-chin who entered Japan during the Ching dynasty of China. There were some other very important painters, too, namely, Rikyo Yanagisawa, Jakuchu Ito, Sosen Mori and Ganku. Especially popular were the pictures of domestic fowls by Jakuchu, and monkeys by Sosen.

An important event, moreover, was the appearance of the Maruyama school with Okyo Maruyama as its founder. Okyo's style was derived mainly from Ming and Ching paintings, and developed into what resembled sketches. His pupil, Goshun Matsumura, established the Shijo school, which in later years grew to be as popular as the Maruyama school. By these two styles the Kyoto world of pictorial art was dominated.

(2) Architecture. The Momoyama architecture of the preceding period developed into a far more elaborate style, and with more elegance. This elaborate rococo style of Yédo architecture had less value as fine art than as mere decoration. Examples of the architecture of this period are found in the celebrated buildings at Nikko, which, as everybody can recognize, are more worthy to be called an excellent decoration than an excellent example of fine art.

(3) Sculpture. Although there is not much to be said about the sculpture of this period there are yet two outstanding instances that exemplify the use of Chinese carving; there are the Mam-pukufji temple at Uji, Kyoto, by a Chinese, Ingenzenshi, and the art of Zen-shu-chokoku (Zen architecture), by a Buddhist sculptor, Fan Ton-sheng, from Foochow, China.

(4) Industrial Art. Both manual and industrial art greatly advanced in technique, and metal, textile, dyeing, lacquer and ceramic industries flourished like all sorts and varieties of flowers. A

Chinese introduced from Ming the progress of decorating ceramics with brilliant colors or in gold or silver. And through the efforts of Kakiémon Sakai and others the famous Arita and Imari potteries were founded. In this field of fine art the name of Jinsai Nonomura should be remembered, for he occupied the highest position. Cloisonné were also experienced a remarkable promotion in technique, along with other branches of industrial art.

The time arrived at last when the people awoke from their age-long sleep, and the doors that had been closed to foreigners were opened. Besides Hollanders, came Russians, Britons, Frenchmen and Americans, in spite of the national agitation to keep the country shut against foreign intercourse. Already from Holland Western learning and art had percolated in through Nagasaki. Oil painting in Western style was attempted by Gennai Hiraga. The new style of painting spread far into the country even to Akita prefecture, and reached consummation under Kokan Shiba later. Thus towards the close of the Yédo period the urge of Western art reached Japanese shores in great force.

Meiji Art The modern age in the history of Japanese fine art started over 60 years ago when the Emperor Meiji established the Imperial government in Tokyo. The Oriental fine art, which first originated in Mesopotamia, made eastward advance blending with Indian and Chinese art until it reached the Far East and established its central influence in Japan.

(1) Architecture. With the Meiji Restoration came a turning point in our history; the country was opened to free foreign intercourse, followed by the inflow of European culture like a flood. Western civilization soon began to exercise an overwhelming influence all over the country, and eventually everything foreign met with enthusiastic popular favor. This phenomenal change in the country directly influenced architecture; and European-style of structures sprang up here and there. Even in the Japanese style of building were mixed Western modes of architecture. These radical changes in the architectural world of Japan had no small influence on other branches of our fine art.

(2) Japanese Painting. In the early part of the period Nan-Sung literary

painting still prevailed, supported by Kyou Hoashi, Koséki Nakanishi, Shoka Watanabé, Gokaku Hirano, Rozan Yasuda, Soun Tasaki, Yukoku Noguchi, Alzan Taniguchi, Kwatéi Taki, Chokunyu Tanomura, Séiko Okumura, Kampo Araki, Shohin Noguchi and others.

It so happened that in the 11th year of Meiji Prof. Ernest F. Fenollosa, an American professor in the department of philosophy at Tokyo Imperial University, being charmed with Japanese paintings such as the ukiyoyé and Kano and Tosa work, proposed to start a movement for the preservation of these schools of art. In conformity with his suggestion, the Government, in the 21st year of Meiji, established the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts. As a result of the movement, the old schools of Japanese style of painting revived and a number of painters regained influence of whom the more distinguished were Hogai Kano and Gaho Hashimoto of the Kano school; Kangyo Morizumi, Kangi Yamana, Mitaté Kawabé, Fuko Matsumoto of the Tosa school; Zeshin Shibata, Kansai Mori, BaiRéi Yukino, Gyokusho Kawabata, Kéinen Imao of the Maruyama school; Chikudo of the Kishi school; Honen Tsukioka and Gekko Ogata of the ukiyoyé school.

In the 40th year of Meiji the first art exhibition was opened by the Education Office; and since that time it has been held once every year, greatly stimulating the resurrection of traditional Japanese art. The Tokyo circle of Japanese style painters was represented by Taikan Yokoyama, Kanzan Shimomura, Kogyo Terasaki, Gyokudo Kawai, Tomoné Kabori, Jippo Araki, Sulun Komuro, Soméi Yuki, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Réika Yoshikawa, Elkyu Matsuoka, Hyakusui Hirafuku and Kéigétsu Matsubayashi; while in the Kyoto circle were well-known painters like Kokyo Taniguchi, Hobun Kikuchi, Séiho Takéuchi, Shunkyo Yamamoto, Kako Toji, Kéigétsu Kikuchi and Suisho Nishiyama. All of these leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yédo Era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kokan Shiba and Denzen Aodo; and now came Togai Kawakami, Yuichi Takahashi, Horyu Goséda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai, Shotaro Oyama,

Kiyowo Kawamura and Naojiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijutsukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyotéru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburosuké Okada, Eisaku Wada, Takéji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fusétsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Mitsutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail today, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohéi Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubéi Shimizu and Sobéi Kinkozan. In recent years Hazan Itaya, Rokubéi Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji Era, fine cloisonné was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dyeing industries no less improvement brought Japanese industrial art to the verge of its golden age.

The tendency of Western countries to vie with one another in holding Japanese art exhibitions amply endorses the international value of Japanese art.

(5) Sculpture. Upon opening the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts, Kyutichi Takéuchi and Koun Takamura gave lessons in traditional Japanese wood sculpture. Western style sculpture was also taught, by an Italian instructor in the academy, side by side with lessons from Shukéi Naganuma who had returned from Italy, followed by Fumio Asakura, Taimu Tatéhata, Séibo Kitamura. From Koun Takamura and Kyutichi Takéuchi

we come down to Choun Yamasaki, Unkai Yonéhara, Denchu Hirakushi, Shin Naito. In the Meiji Era the rise of ivory carving was also conspicuous, producing engravers like Gyokuzan Asahi and Komyo Ishikawa.

What helped the phenomenal ascendancy of all branches of art were the Bunten (Education Office's art exhibition) which later came to be called Téiten (Téikoku Bijutsuin art exhibition), and the Inten (Nihon Bijutsuin art exhibition). Besides, there were and are exhibitions held by many other smaller groups of painters. From the viewpoint of art, it is not too much to say that Japan is to the Orient what France is to Europe.

Fine Arts During 1938-41

(See pp. 768-776, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41 and pp. 749-756, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42.)

Movement in Art Circles, 1941-1942

Introduction Following the trend of the previous year, Artistic circles in 1941-42 continued to be prosperous. The period covered by this review comprises the last half of 1941 and the first half of 1942, the latter including the period of the Greater East Asia War and the former being the gloomy months leading up to the outbreak of the war. Under this emergency period, one would imagine that the extraordinary period of warlike conditions should arrest the progress and development of art, but surprising as it may seem, artistic circles witnessed an atmosphere of unusual activity. Numerous art exhibitions were held throughout the country, the number of people who attended these exhibitions being twice that of the year before. New art societies made their appearance notwithstanding the restrictive measures. Publication of art books were well received and had wide circulation in spite of their prices being high. The popularity of these publications could not be attributed to want of other amusements, as the former can hardly substitute the latter, but should be ascribed to an increasing art-sense in the general public. As to the subject-matter of art creations and publications, it is noted that the contemporary trend of general affairs predominated.

A nation has no existence apart from the daily life of the people. Art is therefore tending to reach out to the

matter-of-fact life of the people in every branch of national activities. For example, there are frequent art exhibitions held in factories and work shops under the auspices of the Sangyo-Hokoku-Kai (Patriotic Industrial Association). There are also frequent exhibitions held on streets, displaying posters, cartoons, sketches, etc., relating to the campaign.

During the year before, exhibitions and art societies were mainly centered in Tokyo but during the current year there has been a tendency to hold exhibitions in small towns and villages as well.

A remarkable progress is noted in industrial arts, such as wood carving, bamboo ware, pottery, lacquer, and glass painting which are produced in greater quantities. Various kind of industrial art organizations such as lacquer artists league, wooden sculpture league have been combined, producing a favorable result in the organized production of art works.

The reason for this sudden development is to be attributed not only to the growing popularity of art and nationalistic expression through art which is evident in recent times, but also to the complete stoppage of foreign products of art as a result of the war.

So far we have referred to the practical aspect of art. Now turning to the research study pertaining to art, we notice a large number of publications on art subjects particularly on industrial arts. Reflecting the trend of the times, research into classical Japanese art has been stressed and good many books on the subject have been published. Representative among such works are—"Nihon Bijutsushi Taikéi (Outline of Japanese Art History)" edited by Dr. Fujikake, "Toa Kobunka Kenkyu (Study of East Asia Classic Culture)" by Dr. Yoshihito Harada; "Nihon Bijutsushi Kenkyu" (Study of Japanese Art History), "Toyo Bijutsushi Kenkyu" (Study of Oriental Art History), and "Kokogaku Kenkyu" (Study of Antiquities)."

All these by Dr. Kosaku Hamada, formerly the president of the Kyoto Imperial University.

A definite demarcation in the development of art during 1941-42 may be noted after the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. The period preceding the war was largely centered on the classical Japanese Art, and the period following exhibited a sudden turn to the study of

the art of southern regions, on account of the need for the creation of a common art standard for the area comprising the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere.

Books on the subjects have been increasingly making their appearance.

Chief Features Chief features of art movements in the current year are, (1) paintings with maritime motif, such as the sea battle of Hawaii and the battles off Java, off Malay; (2) mural paintings showing the development of the Japanese race; (3) industrial arts, which have witnessed sudden development; (4) popularization of exhibitions; (5) paintings depicting the war front, by artists accompanying the fighting forces. We shall now review these features in greater detail.

Maritime Art Paintings of sea-battles come under this section, and were exhibited in a series of exhibitions under the name of Maritime Art Exhibitions. An outstanding exhibition of this category was held at the Bijutsu-kan (Art Gallery) in Ueno Park, in commemoration of the Navy Day, from May 25 to June 5. This was the largest exhibition of its kind to be held in Tokyo, and was held under the joint auspices of the Naval Association, Japan Maritime Art Association, Asahi News Paper, and with the support of the Navy Office. The exhibition was visited by the Navy Minister and was well attended by the general public. The Navy Office bought the following paintings for decoration at the Navy Ministry:

Western Style Paintings—Torazo Tanaka's "The Sea," Ikunosuke Shirataki's "The Morning Sea," Kunzo Minami's "Going Through the Twilight," Shigehiko Ishikawa's "Waiting the Tide at Twilight."

Japanese Style Paintings—Ikkei Kojima's "Port Mimitsu," Toyomaro Iwata's "Beach of Mitsu," Otohiko Muramatsu's "Sail-boat Yamahara."

Maritime Art exhibitions are not confined only to paintings of sea battles, the object of the exhibitions being to show the close connection existing between the growth of the Japanese nation and the sea. Many of the paintings deal with the maritime life of the Japanese people, and the old traditions connected with the sea. The object of the artist in this category of painting is to elaborate the maritime culture of the nation, and to arouse the appeal for the sea.

An art critic referring to the aspect of painting describes it as follows—"We must arouse the maritime spirit which lies deep in our blood. There may be various ways in which this could be done, but one of the most important is the role played by marine artists. The work of artists in this category is not complete by merely depicting the sea skillfully, but by aiming to arouse sea spirit among the people. For that the artist has to bring into play the peculiar native love and sentiment toward the sea."

Maritime civilizations of various peoples have a distinct stamp of their own, as, for instance, the Hellenic culture being closely connected with Aegean Sea, and British culture reflecting the early life of its buccaneers.

In point of maritime culture, the East shows characteristics which are peculiarly its own as against Occidental culture.

Owing to the strong influence exerted by the continental cultures, Japan in the past could not develop propensity to maritime civilization, but in recent times her native gift in this line has been aroused and she must give full expression to her latent abilities in this line. The Sixth Marine Art Exhibition was held from May 24 to June 4, 1942, at the Art Gallery in Ueno. The exhibition was held to commemorate the brilliant successes of the Imperial Navy in the Greater East Asia War. Among more than 1,000 paintings submitted for exhibition, 74 Western style and 16 Japanese style paintings were chosen for exhibition, in addition to 77 works of Member Artists and 167 invited works placed on exhibition. Among the exhibits were some of the works depicting the Malay sea battle, Hawaii sea battle, Coral sea battle and other scenes of the gallant sea eagles in action. Other subjects were warships, transport vessels, fishing villages on home front, ship yards, etc. The pictures rendered great service to arouse the national sentiment of the people. This exhibition attracted unprecedented number of visitors. Prizes were awarded as follows:—

Navy Minister's prize: (Japanese style painting) Shiro Kasamatsu's "Fishing," (Western style painting), Yutaka Yasuda's "Herring Caught in the Net."

Asahi News Paper prize: (Japanese style) Hiroyuki Matsuyama's "Ship Yard"; (Western style) Kumano's "Mending," Mitsuru Mano's "Prince

Yamato Takeru" and Kinsen Kubo's "Mamiya Rinzo"; all these are to be permanently exhibited in the Navy Museum.

Murals by groups of artists Works of this class were exhibited in the fourth exhibition by members of Insho Domoto's school, which is developing new trends in Japanese painting.

The above exhibition was held from May 13, 1941, at Daimaru Department Store, Osaka; from May 20, at Daimaru, Kobe; from June 6, at Art Museum, Kyoto,—all watched with keen interest. The exhibits consisted of 18 wall paintings, nine feet long and twenty feet broad, by fifty-five artists. Reflecting the spirit of the emergency period "Wako (soft sunlight)" by Chosel Miwa, Ako Fujiki, and Heizo Seno, depicting a Japanese girl in company with girls of southern regions. It represents the peaceful relations of Asiatic races in an atmosphere of mutual cooperation. "Resting Place of Labor" by Mitsuo Togawa, Masashi Furukawa and Masaichi Shimomura is a work showing a man of the south working in the beautiful setting of his native sea.

"Sewing People" by Miyoko Ohhi, Osako Miki, and Sozo Okuda, represents a number of young girls working at a sewing machine; "Enjoying with Soil" by Makoto Takai, Chosaburo Ikeda and Hakushin Tokumoto depicts a group of boys and girls, cows, houses, sheep, pigs, rabbits, and chickens, showing the beauty of farm labor in war time.

"Kan-ze-on (The goddess of Mercy)" by Insho Domoto, the leading artist, showing the figure of Avalokitesvara among the Bodhi-sattvas.

These works were contributed to the Information Bureau which exhibited these works at the Art Gallery at Ueno to invite aid for the development of wall paintings.

Following the exhibition of Domoto school, the fifth exhibition of Japan Wall Painting Association was held from June 3 to 7 at Seijusha Gallery. The subjects of the paintings were all connected with East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. "Traveller in Jehol," "Manufacturing Center" by Tsuruta are among the outstanding exhibits.

In October "A Picture of Modern Japan" was completed by Tetsuro Hashimoto, a member of Nika Art Society which was sent to Bangkok as a memento from Japan in connection with the Anniversary Celebration of the Constitution of Thailand.

It was a fine work, 20 feet long and 18 feet broad, representing a large scene of Tokyo. This was done at the request of Kokusai Bunka Shinko Kai (The Society for International Cultural Relations).

In 1942 Tokyu Sha held its fifth exhibition of the year from May 5 in Osaka, Kyoto, Nagoya and Kobe.

Their wall paintings in this year were monumental ones, much superior to those of the preceding year. They were, "The Sound of the Wheel," "Smoking Street," "Across the River," "A Unit in Dawn," "Rushing Through a Jungle," "Light in the South," etc. The first-mentioned of these, "The Sound of the Wheel" was the largest of them all and strikes a harmonious note. The object of these works being to instill a spirit of cooperation, it has a deep significance in the present emergency period.

Popular Art in Daily Life In May 1941 Nihon Shitsugai-In (Japan Lacquer Work Society) held its fifth exhibition at the Mitsukoshi, Nihonbashi. From the point of view of traditional technique and freshness of motif, the exhibits were valuable.

In June, the Glass-Work Artists in Tokyo formed an association and decided to hold a exhibition of their works once a year, in the same month, Rokubei Shimizu and Hazan Itaya, members of the Imperial Art Academy, the foremost pottery artists in Japan, and five exhibition of modern pottery art under the auspices of the art department of Takashimaya Department Store. Also, there was an exhibition of housewives' works, at Takashimaya. It was organized by Toshiko Hachisuka, Yachiyo Okada, Etsuko Ichijo, and twenty other noted women, for the purpose of promoting refined living.

In October, the third Export Design Art Exhibition was held, and 80 exhibits were on display and received favorably by the public.

In 1942—this movement made great strides. It was evidenced in the birth of the Welfare Art Association. This is a group formed by members of the Creative Artist Association for the purpose of bringing aesthetic joys to laborers in factories through art, and thereby promote industrial efficiency. A movement was started at the beginning for establishing dining room art in factories. The welfare department of Sangyo Hokoku-kai having noted the valuable effect produced upon labor by

this movement has begun to extend positive support.

The Japan Technological Artist Society held first exhibition in June 1942, at Takashimaya Department Store, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The object of the society is to work for the cultural advancement of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, through technological art. The exhibition contained 430 articles from Tokyo, Kyoto, Kanazawa, Kagawa, Aichi and other centers noted for the production of art objects of this category. Among the special exhibits displayed were 100 interesting pieces from Thailand, French Indo-China, Java, Burma and other areas of Co-prosperity Sphere contributed by the Tokyo Art School, Imperial Museum, and the private collections of Fumio Asakura and Shigezo Okano.

These exhibits helped to promote considerable interest in southern culture.

In the field of technological art there were numerous exhibitions by private groups or individuals. For the promotion of prefectural arts, exhibitions were held in various prefectures.

In Ishikawa Prefecture, the Ishikawa Prefectural Art Society and Ishikawa Technological Culture Society were formed during the year; Ishikawa Prefecture has had a traditional reputation for its technological arts, its climate and customs having a bearing on its peculiar development in this line. Of recent times, however, it has become rather backward, on account of its conservative outlook. The Society is therefore laying stress on the development of modern trends to make the art fall in line with the new requirements of the nation under the emergency period. Hence a departure from the traditional standards in the object of the newly formed society.

Prefectural art circles witnessed particular activity in Kyoto and Nara, the two centers of classical or traditional art.

Plans for the Greater East Asia Art
The problem of directing the development of the ideas and standards of art in the Co-prosperity Sphere, began to be taken up in earnestness with the occupation of southern regions. With the new fields opened up for artists through newspapers and exhibitions and the demand for front line pictures, rising

artists have turned away from the necessity of competing for a place in such high class exhibitions as Bunten, Nika or Dokuritsu, which were only open to the rigidly selected works of art.

South Seas Art Association was formed in June last year, under the presidency of Mango Kobayashi with twenty members, all of whom have direct knowledge of southern regions. This society embarked upon problems of active aim that popularizing southern art in Japan.

In November, an exhibition of Japanese paintings was held in French Indo-China under the auspices of Foreign Office and Kokusai Bunka Shinko-kai. A collection of 160 pieces of Japanese painting were exhibited in Haiphong, Saigon, Hanoi and other important cities with Tugui Fujita in charge.

During 1942, the Nitto Art Society collected new style Japanese paintings from the public, and exhibited their collection in Manchoukuo, China, Hongkong, Philippines, French Indo-China, Thailand, Malaya, East Indies, etc. The Society is planning to open its branches in some of the above-mentioned places and to dispatch some leading artists to these areas, commissioned with executing memorial paintings of the Greater East Asia War.

Memorial Paintings With the object of causing memorial paintings of the Greater East Asia War to be painted, the Navy Office selected 16 artists and sent them to the southern areas. The artists who were selected were as follows:

Japanese painting: Yukihiro Yasuda, Gengetsu Yazawa, Chosel Miwa and Kohei Ezaki; Western painting: Tsuguji Fujita, Ken-ichi Nakamura, Saburo Miyamoto and Kei Sato; Sculpture: Naondo Nakamura.

Besides, Navy Office caused 17 historic marine paintings to be painted from the reign of Emperor Jimmu to the end of Tokugawa period by renowned artists of historical themes. A selection of these paintings were shown at the 6th maritime art exhibition which was held in May this year, after which they were hung up in the Naval Museum. The works are as follows:—

"Emperor Jimmu's Expeditionary Ship" by Yukihiro Yasuda; "Empress Jingo's Expedition to Korea" by Gakuryo Nakamura; "Abé Hirao's Expedition" by Masami Iwata; "A Japanese

Mission sailing to China" by Tadao Komura; "The Naval Battle Between Genji and Hôike" by Katsutoshi Arai; "Attack by Kublai Khan's Armada" by Tadashi Moriya; "Kitabatake Chikafusa's Eastward Advance from Ohminato" by Arisune Hattori; "Scene of the Medieval Sea Battle" by Kako Morito; "Pirate Ships" by Seison Maeda; "Sea Battle in Bunroku and Keicho" by Ténio Ohta; "Japanese Abroad" by Choshu Isoda; "Hasekura Tsunénaga Departure for Europe" by Kohéi Ezaki; "Yamada Nagamasa's Feat" by Yasuo Kobori; "Yoshida Shoin's Attempted Voyage" by Seiho Ikeda; "Mamiya Rinzo's Expedition" by Kinsen Kubota; "The Coming of Black Ships" by Kyuho Noda.

The War Office also planned to have memorial paintings of the Imperial Army's exploits in the greater East Asia War and deputed 16 artists of first class calibre to the south. The works are to be exhibited by December 8, 1942, the first Anniversary of the Greater East Asia War. Artists are: Shin Kurihara (Malaya), Junkichi Mukai (Philippines), Kazuya Takamitsu (Southern Area), Masayoshi Minami (Java).

A notable exhibition was that held by Showa Manyo Kai during June last year, at Kojunsha, Ginza. The Showa Manyo Kai is an organization established by Tadao Yoshimura, Arisuné Hattori, Masami Iwata, Gakuryo Nakamura, all authorities of Yamato school painting. The object of these paintings is to represent the spirit of Nara culture on the canvas; and by it to contribute to arousing the national sentiment under the emergency conditions. Notable works exhibited were: "Imamatsuribé Yasofu" and "Ohtomono-Yakamochi" by Yoshimura, "Kaki-moto-no Hitomaro" by Hattori, "Ohtomono-no Yakamochi" by Iwata, "Yamabe-no-Akahito" by Nakamura, etc.—being all portraits of famous men of letters of the Nara period. Among the exhibits were some representative pieces of earthen ware and tiles of the Nara period. Some of these exhibits were later contributed to the Kashiwara Shrine.

Annual Exhibitions The 4th Buntén (Education Ministry Exhibition), 1941, was held from October 17 to November 20 at the Art Gallery, Ueno.

Works: (Japanese Section) Number of works submitted 1,194 about 100 less than in the previous year; paintings selected 135. **(Western Section)** Works submitted 1,620 also less than before; selected, 230. **Sculpture:** Submitted, 285;

selected, 117. **Technology:** submitted, 1,013 pieces, nearly double the number submitted the year before; selected, 170.

In spite of reduction in other sections, technological exhibits showed a two fold increase, an evidence of the increased public interest in this branch of art. Exhibits in all sections were marked by a depth of expression, apart from mere excellency in technique. The range of subjects covered by works is very extensive, although the historical theme was most popular. Ei Tsuji, head of the Western Section, Hanging Committee, remarked that on account of the transportation restrictions due to the emergency, there were few entries, but many of the works submitted were quite creditable. On the whole an atmosphere of dullness prevailed in the field of painting and sculpture while unprecedented activity was noted in the branch of Technological Art. Simplicity of design and strength of expression were the notable characteristics in this branch of art.

Prize-winning works are as follows: Japanese paintings: Kyuman Mukai's "A baby boy was born," Eiho Kitsuda's "A Blue Abyss," Shiro Térashima's "Just a bit cool," Kohéi Ezaki's "Shoot!"

Western paintings: Tsuruo Hayashi's "Child and Grass," Takéo Watanabe's "A portrait of Mr. T." Takuji Nakamura's "Girls Gather in a Group," Genichi Kotozawa's "Autumn Garden," Tatsuya Aoki's "Pampas Grass," Chi Kitamura's "Deva King," Katsumi Kinoshita's "Summer Night," Masayoshi Minami's "Grey Hair."

Sculpture: Kongo Wada's "Scarlet Sea," Tôru Watanabe's "The Earth," Kakuzo Tatehata's "Silence," Ryo Matsuura's "Tobacco," Masanori Kojima's "Hope," Jinso Sato's "A Man," Rokushu Mifunemachi's "Sculpture of Egawa Tarozae-mon," Goro Suganuma's "A Woman."

Technological Art: A bronze flower vase by Shotaro Kimura, A box with herb design by Shun Kawai, A screen by Nenjiro Inagaki, an ornament by Hyakusui Yamamuro, Okada's prize for sculpture: Teizo Ito's "A Moment's Rest," Ichiro Tanizawa's "A Woman Who Held a Piece of Cloth."

Notable among the works by the judges were: (Japanese painting) Miss Shoén Uémura's "Twilight," the artist being a member of the Imperial Art Academy; Insho Domoto's "The Hour for Fighting"; Shinsui Ito's "Modern Women"; Kansetsu Hashimoto's "Summer Evening." (Western Painting):

Ken-ichi Nakamura's "A Seated Figure"; Ikuma Arishima's "Portrait of a Wife"; Ei Tsuji's "Still Life on the Carpet." Tsuguji Fujita's "A Girl," Shintaro Yamashita's "Seated Portrait of a Girl." (Sculpture); Eikichi Takahashi's "A Fisherman," Koyu Fujii's "Seated Woman." (Technology); Seizan Kawamura's white china with peony design, Einosuke Kawai's vase, Shushin Katori's incense burner, Waichi Kimura's screen.

Dairin-ga-in Exhibition: The fourth exhibition was held from September 1 to 28 in Japan Art Society building, 89 pieces were selected from among 216, showing the relation between Japanese painting and national characteristics.

Issui-kai's fifth exhibition, which consisted of works by leading artists in Western style painting was held from September 23 to October 4 at Uéno Art Gallery. 200 were chosen out of 1,324 submitted. Notable works were those of Hakutei Ishii, Sotaro Yasui, Ikuma Arishima, all of whom are member artists.

Dokuritsu Exhibition: The twelfth exhibition of Dokuritsu Art Society was held from March 5 to 23 at Uéno Art Gallery. Number of works which displayed were 531, being those chosen from 3,583 entries. The theme of the majority of these paintings were connected with the home front, such as the factory worker, Autumn harvest, fishing team, shipbuilding yard, etc.

Daicho-Kai Exhibition: The sixth exhibition of Daicho-Kai, an organization of drawing teachers of National schools and Middle schools was held from November 23 to December 7 last year, at Uéno Art Gallery, under the auspices of Education Ministry. There were 1,002 entries (Japanese 43, Western 959) from which 29 Japanese paintings, 356 Western style paintings were selected. The works chosen were mostly those connected with scenes in the home front.

Soldiers' Exhibition: This is an exhibition of works by soldier artists at the front, and was held in June, last year, at Matsuzakaya, Uéno. More than 150 were on view among them being 20 paintings by sick and wounded soldiers in the First Army Hospital, recording their personal impressions at the front.

Japan Water Color Exhibition: The 29th Exhibition of Japan Water Color Painting Society, which has among its members all the leading water color artists, was held in June, this year, at Uéno Art Gallery. Entries numbered

1,256, from which 160 were selected, while those by members were 187, the total exhibits being 355 in all.

Art Culture Exhibition: The third Exhibition of Art Culture Society was held in June this year at the Uéno Art Gallery. This society is composed of young, raising artists lead by Ichiro Fukuzawa, most of them belonging to abstractive circle. The exhibition had a large number of interesting works to its credit.

Taihei Yōgakai Exhibition: The 38th Exhibition was held from February 14 to March 1 at Uéno Art Gallery. A room was specially devoted to paintings depicting scenes in Greater East Asia.

Nika and Inten, the two big exhibitions regularly held in Autumn. The latter devoted to Japanese paintings, the former to Western style paintings, were held from September 1, at Uéno Art Gallery. The entrance on the opening day for both exhibitions was free of charge. Due to Tsuguji Fujita's retirement from membership on account of his entrance into the Imperial Art Academy, the Nika had lost one of its leading members. But the works of the other members were quite numerous and showed accuracy of technique and depth of suggestion. Inten exhibition contained many works by famous artists. Yukihiro Yasuda's "Battle of Kiso River" stood out as the most popular piece with excellent technique.

Miscellaneous Project to build a modern art gallery—Gyokudo Kawai, Takan Yokoyama, Eisaku Wada, Takéji Fujishima, Fumio Asakura, members of the Imperial Art Academy launched a plan to construct a modern Art Gallery and sent the plan to the Memorial Organization Bureau of Tokyo City Office. City Council approved the plan and appropriated a sum of ¥8,000,000 for its materialization. They are now engaged in selecting a proper building plot. The building is expected to be completed by 1947.

A monumental statue for Saburo Okada: A statue of Saburo Okada, the famous artist of Western style painting, by money collected from 700 disciples was executed by Fumio Asakura, and Itaru Tanabe at the Uéno Art School. The ceremony of unveiling was held on April, 29, 1942.

Artists' League: Hitherto groups such as Shunyokai, Nikakai, Dokuritsu Art Society and others had formed a union, but it was dissolved to form a new

Artists' League, the opening ceremony of which was held on May 4. The business of the League is to paint the portraits of war-dead, to teach in the factory, etc.

Government Administration of Artistic Works: This proposal has been presented to the Artists' League by Onichiro Tomita, member of Hakujitsu-Kai, in February this year. Tomita's project

involves the sending of a large number of paintings to southern areas through Government cooperation for the purpose of popularizing Japanese art in the South. The League is planning to push the plan with the help of the Government.

Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows:

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum; Uéno Park, Tokyo; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.
Departments: Art and History.
Officials. President: Eisaburo Sugi; Manager: Nagamitsu Asano
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara: In Nara Park; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25, to Jan. 5.
Departments: History and Art. Director: Ki Yamaguchi
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum: In Shichijo, Kyoto; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments: Art and History.
4. Chokokan: In Uji Yamada, Mie.
5. Réihokan: At Koya-san, Wakayama.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji: In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji: At Uzumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Réihokan, Ninnaji: At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan: In Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima shrine: At Miyajima, Hiroshima.
12. Kokuhoikan: At Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum: At Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.
14. Governmental Museum: At Keijo, Chosen.
15. Kéishu Museum: In Kéishu-gun, Kéisho-hokudo, Chosen.
16. Prince Yi's Museum: In Keijo, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum: At Ryojun (Port Arthur), Kwantung Leased Territory.

MUSIC

The First Period: Primitive Music

The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in pre-historic times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629 A.D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period.

The Second Period: Introduction of Foreign Music The second period started about the end of the Suiko régime in the 7th century, and

continued till about the end of the Heian period, at the close of the 12th century. The characteristic feature of this period lies in the building up of Japanese music upon a foundation of Chinese, Korean and Indian music, which possessed a markedly advanced form and was then being freely introduced into Japan.

(1) **The First Half.** In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music, then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evolution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but

natural that there was a great gulf of difference between the standard of the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music. For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmyo when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even gagaku was of foreign origin.

(2) The Second Half. During the second half of the second period, foreign and domestic music became harmonized, producing a new Japanese style in vocal music. Founded on the imported music staff, the vocal music of this period cannot be compared with the purely national music that prevailed in a later period. The varieties then developed were kagura, saibara, roei and imayo, all of which can be included in the following two groups:

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Héian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music, practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Héian period. In the early days of the sacred Kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, Azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and Yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of those folk-songs in the rites of

sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of the imported variety; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models of the country. The principal instruments employed for this purpose were the six-stringed Japanese koto and the six-holed kagura flute, remodelled.

(b) Those modes that come under the category of the other group are the saibara, roei and imayo, which were combinations of imported and Japanese music then in vogue. As regards saibara, it is believed that it was a sort of folk-song that prevailed in the Nara period, but the saihara, a folk melody of the Nara period, cannot be compared with the saibara which was an artistic vocal song of the Héian period; in form they are widely apart. The saibara in the Héian period was in fact an artistic product. These branches of music served for the amusement and diversion of nobles, and had nothing to do with religious services. They were exclusively of foreign origin in form.

The Third Period: Seclusion of Domestic Music The third period begins with the Kamakura Era and terminates towards the close of the Tokugawa Shogunate, or from the beginning of the 13th century to the middle of the 19th century. A characteristic of the period was its seclusive tendency in music. By the term seclusive music, however, is not meant national seclusion, but that music, like other arts, throughout the period, was driven into seclusion in consequence of incessant civil war in Chosen and China, which prevented its development in Japan. Save for the material brought back by priests from China no foreign culture entered Japan during that age; and it is for this reason that the term seclusive represents the third period. Characteristic features of the third period are seen in the relations of music with literature.

(1) Music and Literature. As a natural result of the interruption of intercourse with continental civilization, the influence of the Japanese language made itself felt on music, so much so

that in form music seemed to belong to language, both evolving together; in fact, story and song became the essential requirements of music.

(2) The Range of Influence. Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as *kiyomoto*, *loruri*, *shinnal* and *itchubushi* became representative during the third period, but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection *loruri* was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. *Kiyomoto*-music thrived in Yédo, *loruri* prospered in Osaka, and *itchubushi* flourished in Kyoto. Thus none of the music that was born and popularized in the third period was of national, far less of international, character, having been limited to a certain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was of no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for, in the evolution of art, song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

(3) Music and the Military. Then there was the relation of music to military administration. The government was in the hands of feudal lords. In the preceding period music was regarded as a means of culture, and treated as such by the leisured class, because, among the nobles, proficiency in this art constituted an essential element in anyone aspiring to be a man of character. Under the feudal lords, however, asceticism rose to influence among the samurai class, and music was looked down on as no more than a mere luxury which military men should despise as effeminate. This trend of the times gradually transferred music from the control of the nobles down to the lower orders of the community. This is why *samisen* music did not develop among the upper class but the lower stratum of society, where it thrived. The exclusion of *samisen* music by the intelligentsia was a glaring defect of the military administration. Naturally all branches of music in those days had to develop on the basis of popular knowledge and common sense.

Although civil strife is a great deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial Household, whose

existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The *Héiké Biwa* originated and developed under priestly auspices; and the *shakuhachi* (a kind of bamboo flute) music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, and through its efforts. The *shakuhachi* music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

The Muromachi Era The Muromachi Era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi Era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial Household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial Household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the *yokyoku* music of the lyrical drama, or *Noh* dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the *sarugaku* dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The *Noh* dance was probably derived from primitive forms of *sarugaku* and other musical dances.

Early Yédo Era The last period begins and ends in the early Yédo Era. All through this period popular music prevailed; the *samisen*, a popular musical instrument introduced into the country at the end of the Ashikaga Era, rose to great influence. Naturally, therefore, such popular music as the *loruri*, *nagauta*, *kouta* and *hauta* developed rapidly; they were especially popular among merchants and artisans.

The *samisen* was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yédo Era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japa-

nese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the Muromachi period, it arrived in the country through the Ryukyu Islands and is supposed to be of Spanish or Chinese origin. Compared with the sho and biwa, imported in the 5th or 6th century, the samisen is a thing of but yesterday. Yet it is found everywhere in Japan as an accompaniment to vocal music.

The Fourth Period: Internationalization of Japanese Music The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868-1926) when domestic music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yédo Era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusiastically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji Era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staves. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music. In the Yédo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because im-

portance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yédo Era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

For revival of ancient Japanese music the Gagaku Bureau was created in the Imperial Household Office in the 3rd year of Meiji. A large number of authorities on gagaku became officials of the bureau and strove to effect reorganization of the ancient music of Japanese parentage. These Court musicians set about composing new music out of gagaku, for use in elementary schools. The national anthem, *Kimigayo*, is a product of that bureau. Precisely speaking, *Kimigayo* ought to be played in gagaku, but, instead, it has come to be rendered with European instruments; for in those days they were the only musical instruments in educational institutions. *Kibigaku*, which is still popular in the Kansai district, is a form of gagaku somewhat vulgarized, at the time, by Hoshu Kishimoto, an Okayama musician.

(2) Diffusion of European Music. One of the outstanding features of musical development in the Meiji and Taisho eras is that Japanese musical education was placed on the foundation of European music. The introduction of European music into Japan can be traced as far back as the entrance into Japan of Christianity. This, however, had been monopolized by the introducers themselves in their respective localities of influence, until in the 2nd year of Meiji it entered the capital for the first time. In this year Japanese soldiers learned military band music from an English naval band master at Yoko-

hama, which is perhaps the first instance of our official use of European music. Soon afterwards, in the 5th year of Meiji, both army and navy bands were inaugurated. Later, in the 12th year of Meiji, an investigation commission on school musical education was established in the Education Office. A commission, headed by Mr. Shuji Izawa, conducted inquiries as to the best method of teaching European music in Japanese schools. In the following year, the Education Department invited an expert from America, and, under his superintendence, made music a part of elementary school education. Three years after, the Tokyo Academy of Music was established. This is but a brief outline of the growth of European music in Japan during the Meiji Era. It was mainly due to Government encouragement that European music was popularized in Japan much earlier than generally expected. But, for sounder and more thorough instruction in European music we must look to the era of Taisho. Rapid progress of music in the Taisho Era was made possible principally in the following ways:

(a) Propagation by Gramophone. This invention enabled inhabitants of even the remotest corners of the Island Empire to appreciate the great foreign music masters.

(b) European War and Visiting Musicians. At the outbreak of the European War many well-known musicians of the West went to America and Oriental countries in order to avoid being involved in the turmoil, and to find appreciation of their music in more peaceful environment. These world-famous musicians gave a number of concerts in Japan, and thus afforded the people an opportunity to hear some of the outstanding musicians of the world. These chances of hearing the master musicians contributed much toward cultivating a taste for music in this country. Not long afterwards came radio, also from the West; and, like the gramophone, radio also greatly helped the public towards a more intelligent appreciation of European music. Radio, however, should be regarded as more properly belonging to the present era of Showa.

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us its international qualities, systematized

form and aesthetic structure. The vast difference between this international music of the West and Japanese music which is but national, served to spur on the reconstruction movement among the Japanese interested in music. The movement originally started in the middle of the Meiji Era, but at that time it had no fixed goal at which to aim. Now, however, renewed ambition moved in three definite directions:

(a) The attempt to harmonize European instruments with the rhythms of Japanese music was laudable, but this seems to have been confined largely to Japanese students of European music.

(b) The movement to produce European rhythm with Japanese musical instruments, such as the samisen, sho and shakuhachi, was the task of those musicians who specialized in domestic music and who were yet familiar with modern ideas.

(c) A scheme to create a grand symphony orchestra of mixed foreign and domestic instruments was studied and tried by a few accomplished musicians, but the success or failure of the attempt is a question of the future.

Western Music

Arrival of Western Music The exact date when Western music was introduced into Japan has not been determined. According to the work of a Frenchman (published in Paris in 1715), there is evidence to show that Western musical instruments were brought into Kagoshima by Christian missionaries during the Temmon period (in the middle of the 16th century). It may therefore be said that the arrival of Christianity coincided with the introduction of Western music into this country, music being a necessary part of Christian service. It may be supposed that at the outset, the music introduced was limited to the ceremonial motet at the best, but that it was later enlarged to satisfy the requirements of Mass and other forms of large-scale religious service which began to be conducted from 1556 when Nagasaki became the base of operations for Christian activity in the country, with a Christian cathedral erected in the city, while it was also the portal for all foreign trade.

The musical instruments which were introduced here in those days included viol, trumpet, charamela, rebec and lute,

The players of the instruments, it might be supposed, were foreigners on all formal occasions, for it is unlikely that any Japanese could have learnt to play the instruments well at that time. Under the circumstances, the organ, a sort of automatic musical instrument, began to be popular. The use of this instrument later spread far and wide in the country and even today one comes across it here and there.

The Western musical instruments which had made their appearance together with Christianity in one corner of Kyushu began to excite the curiosity of the entire nation and to exert a new influence over the people.

Just then the Shogunate Government carried out its policy of seclusion banning all intercourse with Western nations, exception being made in the case of Holland which was allowed to communicate with the country under certain restrictions. In course of time, however, the conditions of the Western nations changed and Holland's days of glory had gone with England rising to take its place. The Hollanders living in Dejima in Nagasaki decreased gradually, their place being taken by the English and the French. During the 200 years of Japan's seclusion from the outside world, the art of music like all other arts had made marvellous progress in the West.

In June of the 6th Year of Kaei (1853), Commodore Perry of the United States came to Uraga, being in command of a fleet of three warships. The appearance of this fleet, like a bolt from the blue, surprised the Japanese people who were not aware of the remarkable progress that had been accomplished by the Western nations. With the American fleet was a naval band which is supposed to have played the American national anthem. It played stirring pieces of music on the occasion of naval officers' interviews with officials of the Shogunate and during the dinners given in their honor.

As a result of the visit of Commodore Perry, Yokohama was made an open port and the gay music of the foreign land came to be heard every day, from the foreign settlement in Yokohama. Occasionally, too, these foreign residents were observed to parade through the streets playing their instruments.

Thus were introduced foreign-style popular airs into Yokohama and Yedo

(Tokyo) and forms of the Western music were incorporated into Japanese music. As an outstanding example of these new airs may be mentioned the "kappore" (a burlesque dance air) which enjoyed great popularity, being sung to the accompaniment of samisen, although evidently a foreign-style air.

During the latter part of the Tokugawa government, i.e. about the middle of the 19th century, the various daimyos or feudal lords began to pay close attention to the military art of the Western nations and as they sought to emulate the new methods, the traditional war-bell and war-drum were replaced by the new type of drum and trumpet from Holland. This was the beginning of the military music of the Western type in this country.

The Satsuma clan ordered its band of 30 drummers to be trained in the foreign-style military music under the direction of John William Fenton in the 2nd Year of Meiji (1869) and the head of the clan ordered the necessary instruments from London through Fenton. In the course of the training, Fenton pointed out the need for having a song of praise for the Emperor, or in other words, a national anthem. When the text of the national anthem was determined, it was inaugurated with a composition by Fenton. Mention may be made here, however, of the fact that this national anthem was later revised to such an extent as to leave little resemblance to the original. The student musicians learned how to play the newly-composed "Kimi-ga-ya" and a number of English airs. The "Ishin" march (march of the Meiji Restoration), which is frequently played even now, is one of the English-style compositions of those days.

In the 4th Year of Meiji (1871), the military bands of the three clans of Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa were merged into an Imperial military band upon the creation of the Ministry of Military Affairs. The Imperial military band was also placed under the direction of Fenton.

In the meanwhile, the Christian devotional music which had been introduced by the missionaries had gradually been gaining ground in the country. During the early part of the Meiji period, the various Christian sections undertook to prepare Japanese versions of hymns and various publications of the kind appeared. This also made a

great contribution toward the development of Western music in this country.

Meiji-Taisho-Period

Military Band The 4th year of Meiji (1871) witnessed the amalgamation of the military bands of the Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa clans into an Imperial military band. Later, the Imperial military band was divided into two sections, namely, the military band and the naval band. The former changed from the English to the French style and a French bandmaster, D'achron, was appointed its director. D'achron continued in this post for nearly 10 years.

In the spring of the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the naval band invited Franz Eckert to assume the post vacated by D'achron. Besides being the band director, Eckert held the post of instructor at the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) which had been recently established where he taught musical theories. Through his enthusiastic instruction, Eckert contributed so much to the musical advancement in this country that he is now regarded as the father of German music in this country. Eckert is particularly remembered by posterity because of his successful harmonization of the "Kimi-ga-yo" which is now the authorized national anthem. Eckert is also remembered for his famous compositions of the "Kimi-ga-yo march" and the "Kana-shimi-no-kiwami" (funeral march) specially composed for the funeral services of the Empress Dowager Yeshio (1897). The "Kana-shimi-no-kiwami" was also played at the time of the funeral services for the Emperor Meiji and the Emperor Taisho and is still preserved as a most treasured piece of music in the Imperial Household.

Under Eckert's able direction the naval band achieved rapid strides and gave concerts at various places. Indeed, it may not be too much to say that Eckert is the greatest among the naval band directors the country has ever known. When Eckert was relieved of the duty, Gustav Albe, a German musician, was employed as the music instructor.

The military band had the privilege of being trained under the direction of D'achron until the 16th Year of Meiji (1883) when he resigned. Charles Leleu who was a distinguished director

of military band in France in those days was appointed his successor. Maintaining that the success of the military music lies in personality, Leleu carried out a grand-scale renovation of the personnel of the military band and effected various other alterations, thus causing the military band to take on a new aspect. After remaining in office for four years, however, Leleu had to return to France under instructions from his home government. Leaving the future affairs of the military band to Yoshitoyo Shimoto, Leleu went home, with many in this country feeling deep regret at his departure. Later, Eckert, the director of the naval band, was appointed to assume the concurrent post of director of the military band which thus added German technique of military music to its French technique and further consolidated its foundation.

During the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars, both the military and naval bands experienced a period of remarkable activity, both on the battle-fronts and behind the guns. During the two wars, numerous military songs were composed, not a few of which are popular even to this day.

The Taisho period may be considered as the most important period for the development of military music in this country. Special mention in this connection must be made of the fact that the naval band, also including strings, visited England to attend the Royal Coronation and its excellent performance under the direction of Tokichi Setoguchi on the occasion gained great favor among the public there and was even praised as one of the first-rate bands of the kind in the world. The numbers played by the band included a piece of "nagauta" music entitled "kanjincho," a piece of "koto" music entitled "Rokudan" and a piece of "tokiwazu" music entitled "Kodakara" which won greater applause than the various numbers of Western music played by the band. The military band, too, showed great progress under the direction of Kenshi Nagai. There is no doubt the meritorious services thus rendered by Nagai will be remembered by posterity. The farewell party given in honor of Nagai upon his retirement from service as director of the military band was an unusually splendid one. Thereafter he continued his services for the growth of the military and naval bands, com-

posing marches and directing outdoor concerts.

The organizations of the military and naval bands at the present time may be summarized as follows:

The military band is maintained at the Toyama Army School and is therefore called the band of the Toyama Army School. At present, it has a staff of about 100 musicians and a standard division of the band is composed of 50 musicians which may be divided into two sub-divisions of 25 musicians each, this being the minimum unit. In addition, about 20 new recruits are admitted every year for training as student musicians.

The naval band is composed of a total of some 430 musicians who are separately attached to the naval stations and squadron. Conforming to the number of naval stations and squadrons, the naval band is divided into 8 units with about 50 musicians in each unit. In addition, about 60 new recruits are taken in every year to be trained for a period of one year and five months before being attached to the various units.

Tokyo Music School In the 12th Year of Meiji (1879), the Ministry of Education created a Musical Enquiry Commission with a view to (1) producing new compositions by blending the Eastern and the Western music; (2) promoting the national music by creating facilities for its instruction; and (3) creating a music course in the various schools. Shuji Izawa, the then principal of the Tokyo Higher Normal School, was appointed chairman of the enquiry commission.

In the following year, Luther Whiteing Mason who then held an important position in the musical educational circles in the United States was employed as musical instructor. Mason, a rare musical educator, devoted himself earnestly to solidify the foundation of the musical education in this country by his systematic method of instruction, and thus made himself a great benefactor to the cause of musical advancement in the country. In the same year, 20 students were assembled and systematic training in music was instituted. Simultaneously, a large number of pianos, organs and stringed musical instruments were provided.

The endeavors of the Musical Enquiry Commission bore their first fruit in the 15th Year of Meiji (1882) in the

form of a concert participated in by the students who had been trained under Mason. Mason returned to his homeland in July of the same year and one year later, Franz Eckert was employed as director of the military band. Eckert also gave lessons in orchestration, scoring and harmony.

The compilation of song books for use in primary schools was one of the primary tasks of the Musical Enquiry Commission. The work of the body progressed steadily with the result that three collections of songs were compiled and authorized as text-books for primary schools.

In October of the 20th Year of Meiji (1887), the Musical Research Institute (Ongaku Torishirabe-dokoro) was renamed the Tokyo School of Music. The first governmental school of music was thus brought into being and Shuji Izawa became its principal. For four consecutive years, Izawa devoted himself to the perfection of the equipment and improvement of the facilities of the school. He also wrote and published a book entitled Musical Education and the meritorious services which he rendered in bringing up the music school will remain on record permanently.

In November of the 21st Year of Meiji (1888), Rudolf Dietrich from Austria was appointed instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. Dietrich was a brilliant man, having graduated with honors from the conservatoire in Vienna. He was skilled in playing the piano, organ and violin. Furthermore, he was an affable man of character and as such was best fitted to assist in the bringing up of the music school which had been in existence only for a short time.

Among the graduates of the Musical Research Institute (precursor of the Tokyo School of Music) there were many who became distinguished musicians. In this connection, special mention must be made of Nobuko Kodate, the first graduate of the Institute who was sent abroad by the Government in the 22nd Year of Meiji (1889) for the specific purpose of studying music. Other excellent musicians included Sakunosuke Koyama, Genichiro Yamada, Makoto Torii and Koshi Toyama, all of whom contributed toward the spread and development of the Western music in this country principally through their work at the Tokyo School of Music.

In the 26th Year of Meiji (1893), the Tokyo School of Music came to be deprived of its independence, the Government of the time deciding that it should be attached to the Higher Normal School. About that time, Professor Raphael von Cabell of the Department of Philosophy of the Imperial University was employed as pianoforte instructor. The duet with Dr. Cabell playing the piano and Dietrich playing the violin was praised as the grandest concert of the kind in those days. One of Dr. Cabell's foremost disciples is Mr. Kyoshige Tachibana who is now a member of the Academy of Art.

In April of the 32nd Year of Meiji (1899), August Junker, a noted violinist and conductor from Germany was appointed instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. Junker devoted 16 years to the training of Japanese musicians in violin and orchestration and won the reputation of being the father of orchestration in this country. He returned to Germany once but came again in 1934. In the 42nd Year of Meiji (1909), Hanka Petzold arrived here to assume the post of full-time vocal instructor at the Tokyo School of Music. She was born in Norway and studied under Liszt, Marchesi and Cosima Wagner, and made a name for herself through her performance in the role of Elizabeth in the "Tannhauser" of Wagner. She trained many vocalists and was one of the greatest benefactors to the vocalist circles in this country. The 2nd Year of Taisho (1913) witnessed the eminent musician, Paul Scholtz assume the post of pianoforte instructor of the Tokyo School of Music. Scholtz by his untiring zeal and effort rendered invaluable services to the pianist circles in this country, producing a number of able pianists.

Throughout the Taisho period and right up to the present year of Showa, the Tokyo School of Music has continued to function as the only government music school in the country and has sent out a large number of successful musicians, the institute being the chief organ for musical advancement in the country for the past half a century or so. The organization of the school as it stands at present, may be summarized as follows:

Instruction in school is divided into preparatory course, principal course, the normal-school course, the Japanese

music course, the postgraduate course and the elective course. The preparatory course and the principal course are each divided into three departments, namely the vocal department, instrumental department and composing department. The instrumental department has the sub-divisions of the violin, violoncello, piano, organ and wind-instruments. The Japanese music course has three divisions, i. e. "koto," "nagauta" and the "no" dance music.

The present principal of the school is Kaju Norisugi. Among the instructors are Eiichi Hagiwara, Miyaji Takatori, Kisei Iguchi, Sueko Kokura, Leo Sirola and Leonid Kreutzer, of pianoforte department; Teigen Sawasaki, Tamotsu Kinoshita, Takeo Ito, Tsuruyo Takeoka, Wucherpfennig and Ria von Hesser, of the vocal department; Jun Kawakami, Takeo Inoue, A. Mogulrewsky, Willy Frey and Sachiko Ando, of the violin sub-division; Hozo Hirai and Duckson, of the violoncello sub-division; and Kiyoshi Shinji Heki Hosokawa, Kunihiko Hashimoto, Kanichi Shimofusa and Helmut Fermer, of the composing department.

The school keeps an orchestra composed of instructors and graduates, under the direction of Helmut Fermer and Kunihiko Hashimoto, and a chorus composed of students, under the direction of Teigen Sawasaki, Tamotsu Kinoshita and Helmut Fermer.

In addition to the Tokyo School of Music, there are several music schools in the country which, however, are not government schools but private institutions. Principal among them are the Musashino Music School (established in 1929), the Teikoku Higher Music School (established in 1935), the Tokyo Higher Music School (established in 1926), the Toyo Music School (established in 1907) and the music faculty of the Nihon University (established in 1931). Competing with the Tokyo School of Music, all these institutions are turning out many musicians of ability. In Osaka, there is the Osaka Music School (established in 1915) which is making its own contribution to the rather inactive musical circles in the Kansai. The private music schools also have their own orchestras and choruses which give a number of concerts every year.

General Musical Circles All the activities of the musical circles in this country during the Meiji period were

centered around the activities of the Tokyo School of Music as well as the military and naval bands. The principal musical entertainments in those days were, therefore, the graduation concerts of the Tokyo School of Music and public concerts by the military and naval bands. The former, in particular, attracted a great deal of public attention, the institution being held in the highest regard for its musical standards. Accordingly, these concerts were held in grand style. Needless to say the performances of foreign musical instructors attracted large audiences. Among the Japanese musicians who attracted a great deal of attention were Nobuko Koda, violinist; Genichiro Yamada, Benjiro Noshō, Sakunosuke Koyama and Kyoshige Tachibana, pianists; Sekitaro Shlmazaki, Tamaki Shibata (who later came to be known as Tamaki Miura) and Kunihiro Toyama, organists. In the 19th Year of Meiji (1886), the Dai-Nippon Musical Association was organized which held frequent concerts. The organization was discontinued for a time but was revived under the stimulus of the inauguration of the Meiji Musical Association under the chairmanship of Rokushiro Uehara in the 31st Year of Meiji (1898). As private bodies both these associations contributed largely to the development of the musical culture in the country.

Even after the advent of the Taisho period, the Tokyo School of Music continued to be the center of the musical activities in this country. From the school went out many excellent musicians during the Taisho era and practically all the concerts held in those days were either by the instructors or by the alumni of the school, the signal growth achieved by the musical world in the country after the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars being chiefly due to them. Of the musicians who were active during the early part of the Taisho period, the following were the most prominent: August Junker, violinist; Werckmeister, violoncellist; Dr. von Cabell, pianist; Hanka Petzold, vocalist; Sachiko Ando, violinist; and Tamaki Shibata and Elkichi Funahashi, vocalists.

Among the composers of note, special mention must be made of Shikataro Taki, the young genius who left the immortal composition "Kojo-no-tsuki" behind him. It is a pity that he died at the young age of 25. Apart from

Tokichi Setoguchi, who was then the director of the naval band, and Kenshi Nagai, then director of the military band, both of whom have some fine military compositions to their credit, there were few composers worthy of mention in those days. Following the advent of the Taisho period, however, earnest efforts were made in the field of composition along with the development of the Western music in the country. Composers such as Kosuke Komatsu, Kosaku Yamada, Ryutaro Hirota, Tei Yanada and Chosel Motoori contributed much to the promotion of the composing world. However compositions in those days were confined to songs or airs and there were none that might be called great works, except those of Kosaku Yamada who presented the public with his symphonic works entitled "Ochitaru Tennyō" (Fallen Fairy), "Yami-no-tobira" (Door of Darkness), and "Mandara no Hana" (Flower of the Mandara), and who was the first Japanese composer to find a reckoning among European musicians.

Opera Movements The opera movement in Japan dates from the middle of the Meiji period. During the 35th Year of Meiji (1902), a society for the study of operas was established in the Tokyo School of Music with a view to the systematic study of operas. The first attempt of the society was the presentation of a part of Gluck's "Orpheus" which probably was the first instance of opera presentation in this country. Under the stimulus created by the society the opera movement in the country gained supporters and in the 39th Year of Meiji (1906) an organization named Gakuenkai was formed under the leadership of Kosuke Komatsu and Aio Kobayashi with the object of promoting opera compositions by Japanese. This organization, however, was destined to fail because the time was not yet ripe for such move. In the 40th Year of Meiji (1907), the Bandman opera troupe of more than 30 members from England, visited this country and gave about 10 public performances during their stay but failed to arouse any great interest among the public. The visit of the opera company however served as a stimulus for composers like Sueharu Kitamura, Chosel Motoori, Ogai Mori and August Junker as well as Komatsu and Kobayashi to attempt opera compositions with Japanese themes and a number of

new works of the kind were produced. During the early part of the Taisho era, Rossi, instructor in the Western musical department of the Imperial Theater promoted Rossi's Opera Comic which staged a number of comic operas by Offenbach, with Nobuko Hara, Kintaro Shimizu and Rikizo Taya and aroused much public interest.

In December of the 9th Year of Taisho (1920), Kosaku Yamada presented at the Imperial Theater Debussy's "L'enfant Prodigue" and Wagner's "Tannhauser," which was a unique event of its kind in the history of opera activities in this country because it constituted the first artistic and able presentation of an elaborate and difficult theme.

Plectrum Music The introduction of plectrum instruments into this country dates from the 16th century but the instruments of those days differ largely from the instruments of today. The mandoline music as it is played today was introduced into this country by Kempachi Hiruma who learned to play the instrument during his stay in Berlin in connection with commercial business. When he returned home, he caused the first mandoline orchestra of the country to be formed in the Ueno Art School. Mandoline music came to be liked especially by university students and mandoline clubs were formed in the Keio and Doshisha Universities. Morishige Takei organized the Orchestra Sinfonica Takei in the 4th Year of Taisho (1915) and ever since has endeavoured to facilitate the spread and development of the artistic plectrum music.

Orchestral Music The orchestra movement also progressed with the Tokyo School of Music taking the lead. August Junker, who was an instructor at the music school, made devoted efforts in directing symphony orchestras and thus came to be known as the father of orchestral music in this country. When he arrived in Japan to assume the post of Instructor at the Tokyo School of Music in the 30th Year of Meiji (1897), the conditions of the musical circles here were such that it was well-nigh impossible for him to put his ideas into operation. The fact that symphonies were first played here by the members of the faculty of the Tokyo School of Music and its students

under the direction of Junker will alone suffice to make his name immortal in the musical world of the country. About the same time, the naval band created a stringed-instrument department for orchestral music, thus aiding in the development of military music. The naval band including stringed instruments was dispatched to England and the United States where their musical skill and technique won much appreciation.

With the progress of Western music in the country the musical section of the Imperial Household Department also created a place for Western music. Under the direction of Eckert, the section gave orchestral concerts frequently. It need not be said that the joint concerts given by the Tokyo School of Music, the military band and the naval band as well as the musical section of the Imperial Household Department were the most brilliant affairs in the musical world of the country during the latter part of the Meiji period.

Recent Times

Tokyo School of Music The Tokyo School of Music held a position of the highest authority in all branches of Western music in this country during the Meiji period and in the early part of the Taisho period. Its monopolistic position, however, came to be gradually encroached upon by various private musical organizations actively engaging themselves in an earnest study of Western music as a result of the remarkable development achieved by Western music from the middle of the Taisho period. The position of the Tokyo School of Music has not been affected by this fact and it has continued to operate as the only governmental music school and has sent out many able musicians who have been trained under its excellent instructors.

Some years ago, the orchestra of the Tokyo School of Music made remarkable progress under the enthusiastic direction of Professor C. Pringsheim and rendered a number of difficult compositions. Particularly, the orchestra made a great contribution to the musical circles of this country by giving the first performances of Mahler's Symphony No. 5 in 1932, Beethoven's Symphony No. 9 in 1933 and Bach's "Matthaus-Passion" in 1937. Professor Pringsheim was relieved of his duties at the Music School upon the expiration of his term

in 1937 and in the autumn of the same year, Professor Hans Schwieger of Germany was employed in his place. When Professor Schwieger departed for the United States in March 1938, arrangements were made for the employment of Professor Helmut Fermer from Germany who arrived to take up the post in April of the same year.

Professor Paul Weingarten of Vienna who had been a valuable asset to the pianoforte section of the instrumental department of the Tokyo School of Music where he served as instructor for some time returned home in the spring of 1937 upon the expiration of his term. As his successor, Leonid Kreutzer who had been living in this country for some years past was invited to become instructor at the Music School. Maria Toll, vocal instructor, also returned home upon the expiration of her term in the spring of the same year to be succeeded in the post by Ria von Hessert from Germany.

Orchestral Music Following the lead by the Tokyo School of Music, the military and naval bands and the musical section of the Imperial Household Ministry in organizing orchestras, private circles in the country also launched a movement for the promotion of orchestral music after the middle of the Taisho period. At first, however, the movement failed to gain much ground on account of the lack of a systematic organization. During the latter part of the Taisho period, Kosaku Yamada for the first time introduced to the public orchestral music really worthy of the name by holding concerts jointly with the Russian orchestra from Harbin. This served as a great incentive to the promotion of a movement for symphonic orchestral music with the result that Kosaku Yamada and Viscount Hidemaro Konoé established the Japan Symphonic Music Association which created the first purely professional orchestra in the country.

The New Symphony Orchestra. Under the impetus of the activities of the Japan Symphonic Music Association, a few symphony orchestras were brought into being but they failed to achieve any great result. Later, the Japan Symphonic Music Association was split into two bodies with Viscount Konoé leading the greater part of the members of the association in organizing the New Symphony Orchestra. The association

continued to function with Kosaku Yamada as its director. Ever since, the New Symphony Orchestra has been active as the leading orchestra in the country, giving 12 regular concerts every year. In 1936, Viscount Hidemaro Konoé quitted the New Symphony Orchestra for financial reasons and the latter invited Joseph Rosenstock from Germany to become its conductor.

Under the direction of Rosenstock, the New Symphony Orchestra made great strides during the 1936-37 and 1937-38 seasons by performing numerous difficult compositions. Particularly, the body won the admiration of the lovers of music, young students of music and composers of this country by rendering for the first time the modern musical works of various nations during the 1937-38 season. The same members of the New Symphony Orchestra also form the Japan Broadcasting Association's Symphony Orchestra which has been broadcasting orchestral music through the JOAK. The conductors of the broadcast orchestral music include Rosenstock, Masao Shinohara, Hideo Saito, Terunobu Banzai and Kojiro Kobune.

In addition, there are various orchestras in the country including the orchestra of the musical section of the Imperial Household Department, the Central Symphony Orchestra (under the direction of Yazaemon Hayakawa), the Concert Populaire (under the direction of Tadashi Hattori), etc. The various music schools also have their orchestras composed of instructors and students. Among the local orchestras, mention must be made of the Takarazuka Symphonic Musical Association and the Osaka Broadcasting Association's Symphony Orchestra which is composed chiefly of the musicians of the Takarazuka body and is under the direction of Emmanuel Metter. Unlike the New Symphony Orchestra, however, these organizations have been giving no regular concerts.

Brass-band Music The best brass bands in the country are the military band and the naval band which give public concerts, by turns, at the Hibuya Park's Band Stand from spring to autumn every year. The brass-band music has of late spread among the civilian circles with rapidity and small-scale brass-bands have been organized by middle schools, young men's associa-

tions and boy scouts. The development of the military music has become all the more pronounced under the influence of the China Incident which broke out in 1937 and brass-bands have become the most popular musical organizations. The local bodies including cities, towns and villages have long been maintaining their own brass-bands as a means of entertaining their inhabitants by giving outdoor concerts.

Since 1936, the organizers of the Musical Week have been sponsoring an annual brass-band concour. In 1938, a wind-instrument concour was held simultaneously, and all this gave a stimulus to the spread of the brass-band music.

Chamber Music Chamber music has been in a most neglected condition in this country. As principal chamber musical organizations in the land, the Jupiter Quartet (established in 1920) and the Suzuki Quartet (created in 1925) are to be mentioned. The two bodies have been giving a number of concerts every year.

Chorus Choruses are organized all over the country. Not only the various music schools but the various universities, colleges and secondary schools have their choruses. Choruses are also maintained by other civilian organizations and in Tokyo alone, the number of choruses reaches the neighborhood of 50, all of which are under the direction of well-known musicians and are active in giving concerts and broadcast-recitations.

The most notable among the numerous choruses are the Orion Choir, the Tokyo Lieder Tafel Phelaine, the Vocal Four Chorus, the Mixed Chorus of the Tamagawa Gakuen, the Euphonic Chorus and the Brahms Choir. The Dai-Nippon Federated Chorus, which includes among its members some of the leading singers of the above choruses, as well as the Dai-Nippon Chorus which was formed in 1937, have been attracting considerable public attention on account of their large-scale organizations and the proficiency of their members.

Instrumental Music The piano is the most popular musical instrument in this country. In former times, every Japanese family with moderate means possessed a koto or samisen for the musical education of its daughters as the ability to play one of these instruments was considered an important feminine

accomplishment. With the progress of Western music in the country, however, the piano came to be adopted in place of the koto and the samisen. Indeed, the number of Japanese maidens receiving instruction in piano has increased so rapidly that it may be regarded as an unmistakable sign of the advance of the Japanese nation in the field of musical culture in recent years.

Consequently, the number of accomplished pianists in the country is considerable. In this connection, special mention must be made of Chieko Hara who won the first place in the Conservatoire de Paris in 1932 at the age of 17 and Miwako Kai who achieved excellent results at the international musical concour in Vienna. Other notable pianists include Professor Kisei Iguchi of the Tokyo School of Music, Sonoko Inoue and Noboru Toyozo who returned from Vienna in 1938. Among the resident foreign pianists in the country are the world-famous Leonid Kreutzer, Leo Sirota, Maxim Schapiro and Paul Schotlz, who have been rendering inestimable service to the musical circles here by giving lessons and recitals.

Next to the piano, the violin is the most popular musical instrument in Japan and has also made its way into a great number of Japanese homes whose children are receiving musical training. The oldest violinist in the country is Sachiko Ando who studied under the noted Joseph Joachim and who has already retired from the first line of service. Kenshu Wanibuchi and Takeo Inoue are still active. Among the foreign violinists, Professor Alexander Moguirewsky of the Tokyo School of Music and Willy Frey have been contributing much in the field of violin music in the country. As yet no Japanese musicians have distinguished themselves as players of the violoncello. Mention might be made in this connection of Prof. Duckson, who is an instructor at the Tokyo School of Music, and who is contributing his share in training the young students by his ardent instruction at the school and by giving public concerts of the Piano Trio together with Leo Sirota and Moguirewsky.

Vocal Music It is in the field of vocal music that the Japanese musicians first appeared on the first-rate stage of the world. As early as in the beginning of

the Taisho period, Tamaki Miura distinguished herself as a vocalist and has since enjoyed great public favor as singer in the role of "Madam Butterfly" by appearing before the footlights of first-rate theaters in the capitals of the world. Returning home a few years ago, she again created an opera troupe bearing her name and is continuing her efforts for the musical education of the rising generation and for the promotion of the opera movement in the country. Next, mention must be made of Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshie Fujiwara, both of whom also appeared in the first-rate theaters in Europe and America as opera singers of world-fame.

Principal among other vocalists who are most active at present are Ayako Ohta (soprano), Miho Nagato (soprano), Taneko Seki (soprano), Kaneko Yanagi (contralto), Tamotsu Kinoshita (tenor), Keikichi Yatabe (bass), Takeo Ito (baritone), and others. Ria von Hessert who assumed the post of instructor at the Tokyo School of Music in 1938 has since been giving instruction in vocal music together with Wucherpfennig and Netke Loewe, also of the Tokyo School of Music.

Composition The composing branch of music in this country is still in its infancy. During the early part of the Taisho period, efforts at composition were made jointly by Kosaku Yamada and Kosuke Komatsu but later Kosaku Yamada alone continued the efforts for creation, being the only composer of note throughout the Taisho period. During recent years, however, considerable progress has been made in the composing field, a good number of rising composers making their appearance every year.

In 1934, Tcherepnin visited this country and with a view to encouraging promising young composers, created a prize bearing his name. The now defunct Jiji Shimpō organized a musical concour in 1931 and ever since a musical concour is being held every year. In 1936, the New Symphony Orchestra created a concour for compositions by Japanese, with Rosenstock acting as judge. The following year witnessed the creation of the Weingartner prize in memory of the visit of the world-

famous conductor Felix Weingartner to this land. All this served to stimulate the activity in the composing circles here with the result that young composers of talent and promise have appeared one after another.

Among the promising young composers, those from whom much is expected in the future are Saburo Moroi, Shiro Fukai, Masao Ohki, Kishio Hiraō, Tomojiro Ikenouchi, Kunihiro Hashimoto and Heki Hosokawa. It may be mentioned in this connection that both Saburo Moroi and Heki Hosokawa have won great popularity for their works presented in Vienna.

Concours Along with the progress achieved by Western music in this land, various musical concours began to be organized. The musical concours sponsored by the Jiji Shimpō was held for the first time in 1931 and has since been repeated annually with remarkable results. The scope of the concour has been enlarged since 1937 when the Tokyo Nichi Nichi took up the sponsorship. The fact that the prize-winners at the concour have been much in the limelight as musicians of the new era is well illustrative of the useful purpose served by the concours. The concour for compositions by Japanese, established by the New Symphony Orchestra with Rosenstock acting as judge, won the reputation of being the highest concour for compositions in the country through its accomplishments in 1936 and 1937 but it failed to be repeated in 1938.

The Tcherepnin prize of 1934 and the Weingartner prize of 1937 also gave impetus to the young composers of the country.

The National Musical Association held its 12th chorus competition festival in 1938 for the enhancement of the level of choruses in the country. The 7th children's singing concour jointly sponsored by the Japan Educational Musical Association, the Dai-Nippon Musical Association, the Dai-Nippon Composers' Association and other musical organizations was held in 1938. Under the same sponsorship were held a concour for wind instruments and a concour for brass-band music. The said children's singing concour is held by the utilization of the radio broadcasting facilities.

Music in 1938-1940

(See the Japan Year Books, 1939-40, 1940-41, 1941-42.)

Music During 1941-42

This is a most memorable period in the Japanese musical world. This period witnessed the development of New Structure Movement in the vast field of national activities under wartime situation. The influence of the movement was naturally felt in the musical world. Though there was no effort for consolidation of musical activities, the musical circles witnessed rapid advancement. For example many Orchestra bands showed rapid progress comparing with the most famous bands of the world. Also there were many musicians who became famous in the various fields of music, and many excellent young artists made their debut during the year, holding forth a promising future to the Japanese musical world.

Western music was introduced into Japan more than a hundred years ago. It was, however, limited to a ceremonial one in the early days of its history in Japan. It was only sixty or seventy years ago that the Western music began to enlarge to satisfy the requirements of the general public. It is clear that when an art with a long history and tradition is introduced into a nation which is altogether a stranger to it, it takes a long time for it to take firm root. Western music in Japan has a history of only one century, and within this period it has shown remarkable progress. This was possible because Japan had already a high class music of her own.

For several years past Japan has been at war with China and now she is at war with the United States and Britain. As a result drastic changes had to be made in the vast field of Japan's cultural life. In the musical world epochal contribution is being made. A movement for the federation of musical circles was launched in 1941.

The Japan Musical Culture Association was inaugurated and the initial meeting was held with leading musicians and delegates of various musical groups under the auspices of the Information Board.

The foundation of the above mentioned Association was an epoch-making event in Japan's musical world. This association is in charge of guiding the various musical activities of Japan. The association is run on the following basis:

Those eligible for membership are:
1. Composers, performers, and music critics.

2. Those engaged in musical education.

3. The delegates of non-professional musical bands.

The Association is divided into the following departments:

1. Composition.

2. Performance.

3. Criticism.

4. Education.

5. National movement.

The Association is charged with the following work:

1. Promotion of national spirit and cultivation of sentiments through music.

2. Devising control plans and practices.

3. Development of a national movement.

4. To hold concerts, concourses, lecture meetings, and to organize bodies for scientific study for the purpose of elevating the standard of musical culture.

5. To encourage and support excellent compositions, performances, and publications.

6. To build up music-loving sentiment and to promote the spread of music among the public.

7. Promotion of welfare movement by music and training the leaders of welfare music.

8. Sponsorship of international events concerning music.

9. To adjust institutions or facilities connected with music.

10. To issue publications on music.

11. To reward deserving persons with musical accomplishments.

12. Any other work connected with music.

The Association is headed by Baron Kishichiro Okura, and Kosack Yamada as vice-president. Soichi Tsuji assumed the post of chief director, but later Shimpei Nakayama was elected to that position, in September 1942. It is only a year since the Association was organized, and much is expected of it in the future.

Since the Imperial Rescript was released on December 8, 1942, Anglo-American types of music were completely eliminated. In their place Japanese compositions appeared in concert

programs. The demand for true Japanese compositions has given a great stimulus to Japanese composers. The Orchestra Bands also selected Japanese composer's works for their annual concerts. Important events during the year under review among musical circles are as follows:

Ksack Yamada, Kiyoshi Nobutoki, Koko Ando, Keisho Imai were appointed as members of the Imperial Art Academy. They are outstanding musicians in Japan and have been so for many years past, representing different branches of music. Kosack Yamada is a pioneer among Japanese composers. The Japan Symphonic Music Association was established by Kosack Yamada which created the first purely professional orchestra in the country. Opera compositions, with Japanese themes, were presents by him to the public and were received with considerable acclaim. He was the first to introduce musical notation to the Japanese public, and also popularized national songs. His greatest Operatic work "Dawn" at once elevated him to the membership of the Academy.

Kiyoshi Nobutoki was a professor at Tokyo School of Music for many years and has trained many musicians. His composition "Umi Yukaba" ("At sea be my body water-soaked," . . .) is perhaps the greatest work representing the national sentiment. "Cantata Kaido Tosei" was the memorial music composed by him in celebration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, and made a great impression, based on a story of the founding of the Japanese Empire. Unlike Yamada, Nobutoki was for long engaged in teaching so could not achieve brilliant results in the public eye. He is however the author of innumerable national songs and has organized many choruses, having achieved a great name for himself in this field of music.

Mrs. Ando is the first violinist in this country. She had also served as teacher in the Tokyo School of Music and has trained many excellent violinists. K. Imai is a famous player of Koto (Japanese harp), and has given a new spirit to Koto music which was in decadence during the Meiji Period, and is largely responsible for the popularity of Koto today.

Musical concourse The 10th concour under the auspices of the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Newspaper was held with a new feature. In this year, composition department was separated from the performance department, and the Chief of the Information Board Prize was awarded to the best composition. The musical concours have a great contribution to the musical world in recent years, improving upon the fine tradition set up in the past and selecting many promising young musicians for the progress of music among the general public.

The other important events of musical world are as follows:

Japan Chorus (formerly Vocal Four) celebrated its 10th anniversary with the performance of Gounod's "Faust" at the Kabuki Theater, Tokyo, for three days in April 1942, and was a great success. While the operas composed by Japanese composers continued to make progress, western Opera continued to be performed successfully, showing the all sided development of Japanese music.

The Central Symphonic Orchestra changed its name into Tokyo Symphonic Orchestra, and made rapid progress in technique under the strict training of its director, Manfred Gurilt, so that it can now compare with the New Symphonic Orchestra, which is the top-ranking Orchestra in Japan.

Finally reference must be made to Welfare Music which has undergone drastic changes in the world of music this year. The problem of a national music and music for workers was being discussed a great deal for some years past, but it was only since last year that the problems were taken up in right earnest for study by various public bodies as well as government institutions.

Among musicians a movement was set afoot for the cultivation of so-called the welfare music and for the service of the service of the country through their profession, by offering musical consolation to the public. Accordingly many of the musicians stepped out to the street or make a tour of the provinces. As this movement has been launched only recently, it is too early to predict the trend of its development.

CHAPTER XXXV

SPORTS

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CHAPTER XXXV

SPORTS

Japan in the World Olympics

Stockholm and Antwerp Japan participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1912, at Stockholm, when only two athletes represented the country. They were Shizo Kanaguri, marathon runner, and Yahiko Mishima, short-distance runner, both of whom were miserably defeated. In the following Olympiad, which was held in Antwerp in 1920, 15 Japanese took part. Of these, 11 were track and field men, and the others were two swimmers and two tennis players. Neither the track and field men nor the swimmers placed. The tennis entrants won second place.

The Paris Olympiad Japan made its real debut in the Eighth Olympic Games in Paris in 1924, with 14 men participating. A third place in wrestling was the only official score, but Mikio Oda won sixth place in the hop, step and jump; the swimming team placed fourth in the 800-meter relay; Katsuo Takaiishi came in fourth in both the 100-meter and 1,600-meter free style, and Kenkichi Saito took sixth place in the backstroke event.

At Amsterdam The year 1928 found 63 Japanese competing in the Ninth Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-meter heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-meter finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 300-meter breaststroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yonétaro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Seïchiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the mara-

thon; Katsuo Takaiishi won third place in the 100-meter free style swim; Toshio Iriyê came in fourth in the 100-meter backstroke; the 800-meter relay team placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

At Los Angeles The results achieved at Los Angeles by 131 athletes were satisfactory. The delegation took seven championships, seven second places and four third places.

(1) Aquatic Meet Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result was Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest out-distanced. Only one race was won by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-meter free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in new record time. The only team race, the 800-meter relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

The Japanese swimmers produced both world and Olympic records in the Los Angeles meet. The Japanese 800-meter relay team produced a new world record with a time of 8 min. 58.4 sec. Shozo Makino set a new world mark when he swam the first 1,000 meters in the 1,500-meter free style, broke the Olympic record, 58.6 sec., set by the great American swimmer, Johnnie Weismuller, by negotiating the distance in 58 sec. flat. Others who broke Olympic records were Reizo Kolké, who won the 200-meter breaststroke in 2 min. 44.9 sec., and Katsuo Kitamura, 15-year-old boy, who won the 1,500-meter free style in 19 min. 13.4 sec.

(2) Track and Field Events In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events.

Thanks to Chuhéi Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 meters, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

The principal performances of the Japanese athletes of both sexes and their records are given on pp. 831 and 832, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.

At Berlin Japan sent a delegation of 248 athletes and officials, including 19 women athletes, to the 11th Olympic Games held at the Reich Sports Field, Berlin, for 16 days starting August 1, 1936. The delegation was the biggest Japan ever sent to the Olympics, and was an increase of more than 50 athletes compared with the number it despatched to the Los Angeles Olympiad.

The Japanese contingent participated in 13 events; men's track and field, men's swimming, soccer, hockey, rowing, gymnastics, basketball, yachting, wrestling, equestrian, boxing, women's track and field and women's swimming. Japan won six championships, four second places and eight third places, and finished 8th in an unofficial standing which was far better than its performance in the Los Angeles meet.

1. Track and Field. Of the most outstanding success for Japan was the triumph in the marathon race by Son Kitei. Son, a young Korean runner who set an unofficial world marathon record in Tokyo the previous year, won the event with a time of 2 hours, 29 minutes and 19.2 seconds, a new Olympic record. It was the first victory by a Japanese in this event. Naoto Tajima, a Kwansai student, also lived up to his fame by winning the hop, step and jump for the third consecutive time for Japan in the Olympic Games. Tajima's winning leap, 16 meters, was a new world record. Other brilliant performers for Japan were Kohel Murakoso who won fourth place both in the 5,000-meter and 10,000-meter runs, and Shunhei Nishida and Sueo Oye who tied for second place in the pole vault event,

after giving hard resistance to Earl Meadows of the United States, the winner. It was the second time Nishida placed second in the Olympic pole vault.

2. Swimming. Japan successfully defended its world supremacy gained in the Los Angeles meet by winning three championships, two second places, and five third places. Three events won by Japanese were the 1,500-meter free style, the 200-meter breaststroke and the 300-meter relay. Tetsuo Hamuro, competing in the Olympic Games for the first time, caused a sensation by winning the 200-meter breaststroke in a new Olympic record of 2 minutes and 42.5 seconds. Miss Hideko Mae-hata was the first Japanese woman to win the Olympic aquatic event. She won the 200-meter breaststroke for women and set a new Olympic record of 3 minutes and 3.6 seconds.

After the Games, the International Olympic Committee met and awarded Japan the right to sponsor the 12th Olympic Games in Tokyo in 1940. But on account of the Sino-Japanese Conflict Japan gave up plans for the proposed Tokyo Olympic Games in July 1938.

Details of the Japanese performances at the Berlin Olympic Games were given on p. 833, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.

Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the back ground. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for assimilation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

Despite their remarkable growth,

Western sports in Japan are of recent introduction, and their history is a matter of only half a century. Sixty years ago, no Western sport worth the name existed in Japan. The fact that Japan could send only two athletes to the World Olympic Games for the first time as late as 20 years ago and suffered a miserable defeat is indicative of the slight athletic progress the country had attained up to that time. Except for baseball, which was played zealously even in the earlier years, it is no exaggeration to say that Japan's participation in the World Olympics provided the real incentive for the growth of Western sports in general.

The Far Eastern Olympiad It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far Eastern Olympic Games were organized, with Japan, China and the Philippines as the participants. There is little doubt that this minor Olympics had a great deal to do with athletic development in Japan. As in the case of the World Olympics, Japan had an insignificant beginning as far as points go, but in 1930 the country so completely defeated the Philippines and China that one who was acquainted with the remarkable athletic progress in Japan doubted the usefulness of further competition in the Far Eastern Olympic Games. The first meet of this junior Olympics was held at Manila in 1913, and since then successive Far Eastern Olympic Games have been held every other year. In 1930, when the last meet was held in Tokyo, it was agreed to hold the meet every four years so that it would not clash with the World Olympics. The last Far Eastern Olympic Games took place in Manila in May 1934. In addition to the World and Far Eastern Olympic Games, there have been from time to time frequent exchanges of visits between Japanese athletic teams and those of foreign countries, which not only offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but proved good for a closer international friendship.

Traditional Sports Of Japan's traditional sports, those which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include *jujitsu* (judo), known as the art of self-defense; *kenjutsu* (kendo), or fencing; *sumo*, or wrestling, and *swimming* (native styles). All these major

sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular among them is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheater at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H.I.M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but *jujitsu* and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Japanese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Welfare. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Ministry of Welfare. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheater or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

The Meiji Shrine National Athletic Meetings

The 12th Meiji Jingu Kokumin Taikku Taikai (Meiji Shrine National Athletic Meetings) which is annually held under the auspices of the Ministry of Welfare, opened on September 22, 1941, with the swimming meet at the Jingu Pool in Tokyo, and ended in success on February 8, 1942, with the skiing at the Ohwani, Aomori prefecture. It was divided into three seasons of summer (September 22 and 23), autumn (October 7—November 3) and winter (January 24 and 25, and February 3) and winter (January 24 and 25, and February 6-8, 1942).

The summer season was devoted to swimming, yachting and other races on the water at the Jingu Pool and Yokohama Sea Race Field. The autumn season was for baseball, basketball, volleyball, tennis, track and field games, *sumo*, *jujitsu*, gymnastics, etc., mostly in the outer ground of the Meiji Shrine. The winter season was for winter sports at Hachinohe and Ohwani fields in Aomori prefecture.

The leading athletic organization in Japan is the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, with Ryozo Hiranuma as

acting president. This is the organization which controls track and field games in Japan and selects athletes for international meets. There are other similar organizations, such as the Japan Amateur Swimming Federation and the

Japan Lawn Tennis Association.

Records

Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes at the world Olympics, the national athletic meetings and other local meetings follow:

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100-meter	10:2s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1937)	10.2s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	21.2s. Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)	20.3s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1936)
400-meter	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.0s. Rudofef Harbig, Germany (1939)
800-meter	1:54.0m. Kumao Aochi (1934)	1:46.6m. R. Harbig, Germany (1939)
1,500-meter	3:56.8m. Kiyoshi Nakamura (1936)	3:47.8m. Jack Lovelock, New Zealand (1936)
5,000-meter	14:3.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	14:08.8m. T. Maki, Finland (1939)
10,000-meter	30.25.0m. Kohei Murakoso (1936)	29:52.6m. T. Maki, Finland (1939)
Marathon	2:26.42h. Kitei Son (1935)	2:26.42h. Kitei Son, Japan (1935)

Hurdles

110-meter high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1935)	13.7s. Forrest Towns, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Annu (1930)	22.6s. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter low hurdles	54.2s. Toyoji Aihara (1936)	50.6s. Glenn Hardin, U.S.A. (1934)
3,000-meter steeplechase	9:25.2m. Takio Osawa (1940)	9:3.8m. V. Isohollo, Finland (1936)

Relay Races

400-meter	41.4s. Yoshioka, Sasaki, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1935)	39.8s. Owens, Metcalph, Draper, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1936)
800-meter	1:28.0m. Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)	1:25m. Stanford Univ., U.S.A. (1937)
1,600-meter	3:16.8m. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1932)	3:8.2m. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
3,200-meter	8:20.4m. Kida, Nagatani, Hori, Hamada (1929)	7:35.8m. Hornbortel, Young, Williamson, Woodruff, U.S.A. (1936)

Walking

3,000-meter	13:13.0m. Zenichiro Yamamoto (1939)	12:23.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1936)
5,000-meter	23:45.4m. Elji Wada (1939)	21:2.8m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
10,000-meter	43:49.6m. Yoshio Hirose (1938)	43.25.2m. G. Brunn, Norway (1937)
50,000-meter	4:42.57h. Elji Wada (1936)	4:26.40h. Edgar Brunn, Norway (1936)

Jumping

High jump	2:02 mtrs. Tetsuji Akima (1940) yet to be recognized	2.09 mtrs. Melvin Walker U.S.A. (1939)
Broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	8.13 mtrs. Jesse Owens, U.S.A. (1935)
Hop, step and jump	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima (1936)	16 mtrs. Naoto Tajima, Japan (1936)
Pole vault	4.35 mtrs. Sueo Oye (1936)	4.60 mtrs. Cornelilius, Warmar-dam U.S.A. (1939)

Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. Jack Torrance, U.S.A. (1936)
Hammer throw	51.27 mtrs. Isao Abe (1935)	57.77 mtrs. D. J. Ryan U.S.A. (1913)
Discus throw	46.19 mtrs. Eljin Miyagi (1940) yet to be recognized	53.10 mtrs. Willi Schroeder, Germany (1935)
Javelin throw	68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934)	77.23 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1936)

Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932)	7,900 pts. Glenn Morris, U.S.A. (1936)
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WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORD

Event	Japan's Record	World Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuye Hitomi (1927)	6.4s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1932)
100 mtrs. run	12.2c. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	11.5s. Stephens, U.S.A. (1936)
200 mtrs. run	24.7s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	23.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
400 mtrs. run	1:1.6m. Kiyoko Itoda (1935)	57.6s. Walasiewicz, Poland (1935)
800 mtrs. run	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi (1928)	2:12.4m. Koukova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
1,000 mtrs. run	3:23.3m. Michiyo Onishi (1935)	2:52.4m. Lunn, England (1936)
80 mtrs. hurdles	11.9s. Yoshiko Yamashita (1938)	11.3s. Clordea Testoni, Italy (1939)
400 mtrs. relay	50.1s. Yamauchi, Koshiyama, Yoshino, Itoda (1938)	46.4s. National Team, Germany (1936)
800 mtrs. relay	1:49.2m. Kato, Nakajima, Ma-nabe, Itoda (1935)	1:45.8m. National Team, Germany (1932)
1,000 mtrs. relay	2:17.1m. Koya, Ueda, Nakamura, Niibayashi, Yama-moto, Okuno, Sakai, Kawashima, Kawa-hara, Takino (1935)	2:4.4m. National Team, England (1929)
High jump	1.61 mtrs. Riye Yamauchi (1939)	1.66 mtrs. Dorothy Adam, Eng. (1939)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)	6.2 mtrs. Christel Schulz, Ger-many (1939)
Shot put	12.99 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1939)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Ger-many (1934)
Discus throw	41.46 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1938)	48.31 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Ger-many (1936)
Javelin throw	44.51 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1936)	46.74 mtrs. Glindle, U.S.A. (1932)
Hop step & jump	11.66 mtrs. Riye Yamaguchi (1939)	

SPORTS

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50-meter	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	
100-meter	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)	56.4s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:9.6m. Shigéo Arai (1938)	2:7.2m. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1935)
300-meter	3:30.8m. Shigéo Arai (1938)	3:21.6m. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	4:45.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)	4:38.7m. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1934)
500-meter	6:7.2m. Gen Ishiwarada (1935)	5:56.5m. Flanagan, U.S.A. (1939)
800-meter	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino (1935)	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino, Japan (1935)
1,000-meter	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano, Japan (1938)
1,500-meter	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano, Japan (1938)

Men's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:11.3m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1940)	1:7.3m. Hough, U.S.A. (1939)
200-meter	2:39.0m. Tetsuo Hamuro (1940)	2:37.2m. Jack Kasley, U.S.A. (1936)

Men's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:7.2m. Seiji Kiyokawa (1936)	1:4.8m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)
200-meter	2:30.8m. Yasuhiko Kojima (1938)	2:24.0m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1935)
400-meter	5:23.2m. Kilchi Yoshida (1936)	5:13.4m. Adolph Kiefer, U.S.A. (1936)

Women's Free Style

100-meter	1:11.0m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	1:4.6m. Den Ouden, Holland (1936)
200-meter	2:42.8m. Kazue Kojima (1933)	2:21.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1938)
400-meter	5:43.1m. Kazue Kojima (1936)	5:6.1m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1937)
800-meter	12:31.8m. Hatsue Morioka (1935)	11:11.7m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1938)
1,000-meter	15:57.0m. Hatsue Morioka (1933)	14:12.3m. Ranghild Hveger, Denmark (1936)

Women's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:25.7m. Hideko Maehata (1933)	1:20.2m. H. Hoelzner, Germany (1936)
200-meter	3:0.4m. Hideko Maehata (1935)	2:56.0m. Lenk, Brazil (1939)

Women's Back Stroke

100-meter	2:52.1m. Misao Yokota (1932)	1:10.9m. Kint, Holland (1939)
200-meter	3:9.2m. Ai Oda (1936)	2:38.8m. " " (")

Baseball

Baseball is the most popular and most widely played game in Japan. Sumo, the Japanese style of wrestling, had been known for many years as the national game, but baseball came from the United States and caught popular

fancy. This American sport is now recognized as the de facto national game of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admitted. American professional players who have been to

Japan and played with the Japanese have said that the Japanese are good pitchers and good fielders, but poor hitters and have recommended that efforts be made to improve batting.

Its Inception Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First Higher School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Kelo University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tactics, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American 'varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

Its Development The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the leading players of the New York Giants and the Chicago White Sox to play with the

Japanese and to coach them. In 1931, a picked American professional team came under the management of Mr. Herb Hunter. Those Big League players not only impressed the Japanese with spectacular playing but also opened their eyes to the possibilities of further improvement in technique. In 1932, Mr. Hunter brought here Frank (Lefty) O'Doul and a few other Big League players for the purpose of coaching Japanese university players.

The University League The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Big Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among the universities of Waseda, Kelo, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Teidai (Tokyo Imperial University). Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Kelo series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Kelo had such keen rivalry that bloodshed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for 20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the "World Series of Japan." Each Waseda-Kelo game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 55,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays an one or two-game series with the others. The championship winners were formerly decided on the basis of the number of series won, but now on the number of games won.

The following tables show the final standing of the autumn season of 1941 and the spring season of 1942.

1941 Autumn

	Waseda	Kelo	Meiji	Rikkyo	Hosei	Teidai	Rate Gained
Waseda	X	1	0	0	0	0	80.0
Kelo	0	X	0	1	0.5	0	70.0
Meiji	1	1	X	0	0	0	60.0
Rikkyo	1	0	1	X	0	0	60.0
Hosei	1	0.5	1	1	X	0	30.0
Teidai	1	1	1	1	1	X	00.0
Won	4	3	3	3	1	0	
Tie	0	1	0	0	1	0	
Lost	1	1	2	2	3	5	

1942 Spring

	Meiji	Kelo	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Teidai	Rate Gained
Meiji	X	1	0	0	0	0	90.0
Kelo	1	X	2	0	0	0	70.0

	Meiji	Keio	Waseda	Hosei	Rikkyo	Teldai	Rate Gained
Waseda	2	0	X	2	0	0	60.0
Hosei	2	2	0	X	1	0	50.0
Rikkyo	2	2	2	1	X	1	20.0
Teldai	2	2	2	2	1	X	10.0
Won	9	7	6	5	2	1	
Tie	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Lost	1	3	4	5	8	9	

Professional Baseball There are now eight professional baseball teams in Japan, four in Tokyo, one in Nagoya and three in Osaka. They are Asahi, Kuro-washi, Nagoya, Hanshin, Nankai, Taiyo, Hankyu and Kyojin. The teams were formed during 1934 and early 1936, all possessing former leading baseball players from colleges and middle schools.

The Japan Baseball Association, a governing body for these professional teams, was founded in 1936, with leading men of each team in its official board. The league is headed by Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president of Kyojin. Each team is sponsored by leading newspaper or railway companies, and some of them are financed by a group of business men. The Kyojin (Giants) is the oldest among them, founded in the latter part of 1934, and is backed by the Yomiuri Shimbun, leading Tokyo newspaper. The team made a tour of the United States twice already in 1935 and

1936, each time their trip extending for three months. Most of the professional teams are stronger than those of the Tokyo University League and their future is very promising.

The 1941 series were divided into spring, summer, and autumn seasons with 112 games played each season, or a total of 336 games. The spring season opened on the 3rd of April at Korakuen Stadium, Tokyo and games followed at Koshien Stadium, Nishinomiya Stadium, Nankai Kumosu all in Osaka, and also at Nagoya. The series ended on the 17th of November Kyojin winning the spring season, Hankyu the summer, and Kyojin the autumn. However taking the percentage of the whole year, Kyojin came on top. The leading batter was Kawakami of Kyojin with a 338 average. Kawakami was also voted the most valuable player.

The following shows the standing for the year, and also the 10 leading batters during the season.

RESULT IN 1941

	Games Played	Kyo.	Hank.	T.	Nan.	Hans.	Nag.	Ku.	A.	%
Kyojin (Giants)	86	X	6.5	3.5	4	3	1	2	3	.732
Hankyu	85	6.5	X	6	5	5	3	4	2	.629
Taiyo	87	8.5	6	X	3	6	6	2.5	3.5	.557
Nankai	84	8	7	9	X	4	6	3	4	.511
Hanshin (Tigers)	84	9	7	6	8	X	4	6	3	.488
Nagoya	84	11	9	6	6	8	X	4	3	.440
Kurawashi (Eagles)	85	10	8	10.5	9	6	8	X	5	.335
Asahi (Lion)	85	9	10	7.5	8	9	9	7	X	.300
Won		62	53	47	43	41	37	28	25	
Tie		2	1	3	0	0	0	1	1	
Lost		22	31	37	41	43	47	56	59	

Leading Batters

Name	Games Played	Times at Bat	Hits	No. of Bases	Percentage
Kawakami (Kyo.)	86	339	105	156	.309
Shiraishi (Kyo.)	79	313	83	107	.265
Nakajima (Kyo.)	85	342	87	117	.254
Mizuhara (Kyo.)	86	340	86	107	.253
Yoshiwara (Kyo.)	72	248	62	83	.250
Tsubouchi (A.)	81	317	75	83	.237
Yamada (Hank.)	85	304	72	88	.237
Nakagawa (Ku.)	84	301	71	77	.236
Chiba (Kyo.)	82	316	74	93	.234
Hirayama (Kyo.)	84	287	67	89	.233

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programs were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 200, 400, 880 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever to come to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

Track and Field Events in 1941
Covering the different meets held within the country during 1941, and jotting down the best performances made in the various events will give the following results.

Event

100 meters: 10.6s. Shigeo Iwasaki
200 meters: 22.1s. Toshihiro Nagata
400 meters: 49.4s Kozo Yamamoto
800 meters: 1:58.1m. Seishi Nagata
1,500 meters: 4:8.0m. Akira Seguchi

5,000 meters: 15:40.6m. Masaru Yamashita

10,000 meters: 32:20.2m Masaru Yamashita

Marathon: 2:35.9h. Yoshiichi Katayama
110 meter high hurdles: 14.9s Akira Kawamura

400 meters low hurdles: 54.3s Akira Kawamura

3,000 meters steeple chase: 9:39.0m. Takio Osawa

Relay, 400 meters: 43.6s Matsuoka, Kanayama, Aoki, Iwasaki

Relay, 1,600 meters: 3:24.8m. Yamamoto, Kawaoka, Yoshida, Miki

High jump: 1:95 meters Yoshihiro Suzuki

Broad jump: 7:20 meters Teppel Yuasa

Hop step & jump: 15:82 meters Gengon Kin

Pole vault: 4:10 meters Bunkichi Sawata

Shot put: 13:1 meters Hidematsu Mizukura

Discuss throw: 41:35 meters Kyohel Honjo

Javelin throw: 48:86 meters Sadao Hiraiishi

Hammer throw: 46:50 meters Shinbu Go

Decathlon: 5765pts. Bunkichi Sawata
Women's Track Record

100 meters: 12:8s. Kinuko Hayashi

200 meters: 27.2s. Hasue Tasoe

80 meters hurdles: 13:7s. Umeko Kawagoe

400 meters relay: 52:3s. Ono, Nakamura, Shinoda, Hayashi

High jump: 1:45 meters Noriko Nishida; Umeko Kawagoe

Broad jump: 5:52 meters Rie Yamanouchi

Shot put: 9:84 meters Fumie Koyama

Discuss throw: 31:54 meters Yoshiko Miura

Javelin throw: 39:48 meters Sachie Maruyama

Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago. Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the regulation ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915,

when Ichiya Kumagai and Seichiro Kashio represented her in the Far Eastern Games held in Shanghai. Kashio dropped one singles match, but the rest were won by Japan.

Prominence at Antwerp Japanese tennis players figured prominently in the international athletic world in 1920, when the Japanese entrants in the World Olympic Games at Antwerp won second place. In the following year, the country entered the Davis Cup tournament for the first time and surprised the world by reaching the challenge round, in which, however, the Japanese dropped to the Americans and missed the honors. But this served to win for the country a high place in international tennis. Since then, the Japanese entrants have cut a good figure each year.

The Davis Cup Tournament The following tables show how each year the Japanese players advanced in the Davis Cup tournament in their attempt to win the tennis supremacy of the world:

1932 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Italy 3, Japan 2

Kuwabara beat Palmieri 6-0, 6-2, 1-6, 6-3; de Stefani beat Jiro Sato 6-3, 6-4, 6-4; Palmieri beat Jiro Sato 4-6, 4-6, 6-1, 6-2; de Stefani beat Kuwabara 6-2, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Jiro Sato and Miki beat Palmiere and Sertario 6-4, 6-4, 6-3.

1933 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Australia 3, Japan 2

Jack Crawford beat Ryosuké Nunoi 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 4-6, 7-5; Vivian MacGrath beat Jiro Sato 9-7, 1-6, 4-6, 6-4, 7-5; Jiro Sato beat Crawford 3-6, 6-3, 6-1, 1-6, 6-2; Nunoi beat MacGrath 6-4, 6-4, 6-8, 7-5. In the doubles, Adrian Quist and Crawford beat Sato and Nunoi 7-5, 7-9, 6-3, 3-6 and 6-3.

1934 (Second round of European Zone)
Australia 4, Japan 1

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9, Vivian MacGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4. Fujikura beat MacGrath, 6-4, 5-7, 6-2, 8-6. Oswald Turnbull beat Yamagishi, 6-4, 7-5, 9-7.

In the doubles, Crawford and Adrian Quist beat Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, 6-1, 6-0, 4-6, 9-7.

1935 (Second round of European Zone)
Czechoslovakia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Roderick

Menzel beat Hideo Nishimura, 6-3, 6-2, 8-6; Josef Zaska beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 8-6, 6-3; Zaska beat Nishimura, 6-2, 6-3, 6-8, 6-2; and Yamagishi beat Ladislau Hecht, 6-4, 6-1, 6-3.

In the doubles, Menzel and Josef Malacek beat Nishimura and Yamagishi, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1. All matches were played at Prague on June 6, 7 and 8.

In 1936 Japan did not take part due to poor material and lack of fund for sending players to Europe.

1937 (First round of American Zone)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Donald Budge beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-1, 6-1, 6-0; Frank Parker beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 2-6, 8-6, 6-1; Parker beat Nakano, 6-0, 6-3, 6-2; and Budge beat Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-2, 6-4.

In the doubles, Budge and Gene Mako beat Yamagishi and Nakano, 6-0, 6-1, 6-4.

1938 (First round of American Zone)
Japan 5, Canada 0

In the singles, Fumiteru Nakano defeated Wilson, 6-2, 6-3, 6-2; Jiro Yamagishi defeated A. Murray, 6-1, 6-3, 6-3; Fumiteru Nakano beat A. Murray, 6-4, 6-3, 6-0; Jiro Yamagishi beat Cameron, 6-4, 6-1, 6-0.

In the doubles, Yamagishi and Nakano beat Wilson and Watt, 6-3, 3-6, 6-3, 7-5.

(Second round of American Zone)
Australia 3, Japan 2

In the singles, Jiro Yamagishi beat P. Bromwich, 6-0, 3-6, 7-5, 6-4; A. Quist beat Fumiteru Nakano, 6-3, 4-6, 9-7, 6-1; A. Quist beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-4, 6-4, 2-6, 9-7; Fumiteru Nakano beat P. Bromwich, 1-6, 6-1, 4-6, 6-3, 12-12 default.

In the doubles, Quist and Bromwich beat Nakano and Yamagishi, 6-2, 6-4, 6-3.

Tennis Ranking in Japan Rankings are decided by a committee of the Japan Lawn Tennis Association on the basis of the results of matches played in Japan. It happens, therefore, that Davis Cup players who have had no chance to play in Japan, are barred from the ranking list. A new list is announced usually each January.

Since 1939 Japan did not enter the Davis Cup Tournament.

The ranking list for 1940 and 1941 in Japan are as follows:

Men's Singles

1940

1. Haruo Kodera (Kobe Comm. U.)
2. Yasuo Tsuruta (Keio U.)
3. Keiji Nakahara (Waseda U.)
4. Yasushi Kimura (Waseda U.)
5. Goro Fujikura (Keio U.)
6. So Taneda (Waseda U.)
7. Jiro Kumamaru (Keio U.)
8. Yasuo Murakami (Koshien)
9. Glichiro Konooka (Waseda U.)
10. Eisaburo Yamakawa (Keio U.)
11. Kiyoshi Wakamatsu (Keio U.)
12. Yasushi Washimi (Waseda U.)
13. Hiroshi Yamagata (Kansai Gakuin)
14. Fujio Yamagata (Keio U.)
15. Michihiko Kawazoe (Kansai Gakuin)
16. Tomisaburo Fudemoto (Kansai Gakuin)
17. Shin Tanabe (Keio U.)
18. Tetsuji Okazaki (Keio U.)
19. Minoru Wakida (Meiji U.)
20. Takao Fukumochi (Waseda U.)

1941

1. So Taneda (Waseda U.)
2. Goro Fujikura (Keio U.)
3. Jiro Kumamaru (Keio U.)
4. Yasuo Tsuruta (Sankyo)
5. Yasushi Kimura (Toyo Boseki)
6. Hiroshi Yamagata (Kansai Gakuin)
7. Haruo Kodera (Kobe Comm. U.)
8. Shunsuke Hirai (Koshien)
9. Keisaburo Yamakawa (Keio U.)
10. Keiji Nakahara (Toyo Boseki)
11. Shinzo Okada (Keio U.)
12. Glichiro Kondo (Waseda U.)
13. Shin Tanabe (Keio U.)
14. Tamotsu Washimi (Waseda U.)
15. Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien)

Men's Doubles

1940

1. Yasuo Murakami-Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien)
2. Yasuo Tsuruta-Fujio Yamagata (Keio U.)
3. Yasushi Kimura-Keiji Nakahara (Waseda U.)
4. Yasushi Kumura-So Taneda (Waseda U.)
5. Keiji Nakahara-Glichiro Konooka (Waseda U.)
6. Goro Fujikura-Eisaburo Yamakawa (Keio U.)
7. Hiroshi Yamagata-Michiyuki Kurokawa (Kansai Gakuin)
8. Yasushi Washimi-Takao Fukumochi (Waseda U.)
9. Shin Tanabe-Jiro Kumamaru (Keio U.)
10. Tomisaburo Fudemoto-Kenzo Tatsuta (Kansai Gakuin)

1941

1. Yasuo Murakami-Haruo Horikoshi (Koshien)
2. Kenzo Uhara-Chuji Kusumoto (Hidachi Seisaku)
3. So Taneda-Glichiro Kondo (Waseda U.)
4. Shin Tanabe-Osamu Okada (Keio U.)
5. Keisaburo Yamakawa-Shinsaburo Okada (Keio U.)
6. Goro Fujikura-Jiro Kumamaru (Keio U.)
7. Hiroshi Yamagata-Michiyuki Kurokawa (Kansai Gakuin)
8. Yasushi Kimura-Keiji Nakahara (Toyo Boseki)
9. Tamotsu Washimi-Takao Fukumochi (Waseda U.)
10. Kenzo Tatsuda-Haruo Kon (Kansai Gakuin)

Women's Singles

1940

1. Miss Sumi Sawata (Koshien)
2. Miss Junko Kamo (Denen)
3. Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien)
4. Miss Hisayo Wakamatsu (Denen)
5. Miss Toyoko Kizen (Nippon Seimei)
6. Miss Sachiko Kamo (Denen)
7. Miss Reiko Miyagi (Denen)
8. Miss Itsuko Iwata (Koshien)
9. Miss Sueko Kuwana (Denen)
10. Miss Kiyoko Edani (Koshien)

1941

1. Miss Sumi Sawata (Koshien)
2. Miss Junko Nakamura (Denen)
3. Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien)
4. Miss Reiko Miyagi (Denen)
5. Miss Keiko Tomonaga (Denen)

Women's Doubles

1940

1. Miss Junko Kamo-Miss Sachiko Kamo (Denen)
2. Miss Toyoko Kizen-Miss Sumi Sawata (Koshien)
3. Miss Sueko Kuwana-Miss Hisayo Wakamatsu (Denen)
4. Miss Toda-Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien)
5. Miss Reiko Miyagi-Miss Miyagi (Denen)

1941

1. Miss Junko Nakamura-Miss Sachiko Kamo (Denen)
2. Miss Sumi Sawata-Miss Michiko Yamakawa (Koshien)
3. Miss Naoko Oura-Miss Hisako Hara (Tokyo, Denen)
4. Miss Toyoko Mokuzen-Miss Hanako Tanaka (Koshien)
5. Miss Reiko Miyagi-Miss Akiko Miyagi (Denen)

The 19th annual national open championship tournament held at Denen courts, Tokyo, from August 28 to September 8 in 1940.

Singles: Semi-finals

Nakahara beat Tsuruta 6—3, 6—1, 6—2.

Kodera beat Kimura 5—7, 3—6, 6—0, 6—0, 6—2.

Finals

Kodera beat Nakahara 6—8, 1—6, 6—2, 6—3, 6—4.

Doubles: Semi-finals

Murakami and Horikoshi beat Nakahara and Konooka 6—1, 4—6, 6—3, 6—3.

Tsuruta and Yamagata beat Kimura and Taneda 7—9, 3—6, 6—4, 6—3, 6—4.

Finals

Murakami and Horikoshi beat Tsuruta and Yamagata 7—9, 6—8, 6—3, 6—2, 6—4.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which takes place

either in Tokyo or Osaka in November every year:

Singles

- | | |
|------|-----------------|
| 1933 | Hideo Nishimura |
| 1934 | Jiro Yamagishi |
| 1935 | Jiro Yamagishi |
| 1936 | Jiro Yamagishi |
| 1937 | Cram (German) |
| 1938 | Jiro Yamagishi |
| 1939 | Punchev (Yugo) |
| 1940 | Kodera |
| 1941 | (no game) |

Doubles

- | |
|------------------------------------|
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi |
| Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi |
| Jiro Yamagishi and Reizo Murakami |
| Cram and Henkel (German) |
| Jiro Yamagishi and Yasuo Tsuruta |
| Punchev and Kukulavech (Yugo) |
| Murakami and Horikoshi |
| (no game) |

Swimming

Swimming is one of Japan's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the people of the Island Empire had easy access to water. It was but natural that the people became adept in swimming, and swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Japan was a serious subject of study,

especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced into Japan about 1910. Since then the Japanese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Japanese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

The second Japan-America dual swim

ming meet was held on August 17, 18 and 19, 1935, at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, ending in the former's victory by a close score of 36 points to 27. Climaxing three days of thrilling competition which held capacity crowds spellbound during the meet, the Japanese aces proved their supremacy and marked themselves as foremost contenders for the Olympic water crown at Berlin next summer.

The meet was close throughout. Before the final day, the score stood 22 to 20 in favor of Japan. All predictions pointed to the final relay as the deciding event. But in the 200-meter back stroke, Taylor Drysdale of the United States who finished first, was disqualified for what the judges considered an illegal turn at the 100-meter mark, giving Eiichi Yoshida of Japan first place and the meet to Japan before the concluding event. Japan won seven events out of 12 held. Two world and three Japanese records were bettered during the meet.

The 1941 winners were:

Men's Events

- 50 meters freestyle, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo) 26:3s.
- 100 meters freestyle, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo) 58:4s.
- 200 meters freestyle, Shigeo Arai (Rikkyo) 2:11.4m.
- 400 meters freestyle, Shigeru Miyamoto (Waseda) 4:46.6m.
- 800 meters freestyle, Tomikatsu Amano (Nichidai) 10:4.6m.
- 1,500 meters freestyle, Sadao Takeuchi (Meiji) 19:43.6m.
- 50 meters backstroke, Yasuhiko Kojima (Keio) 31:0s.
- 100 meters backstroke, Yasuhiko Kojima (Keio) 1:8.2m.
- 100 meters breaststroke, Seiichiro Oura (Rikkyo) 1:15.4m.
- 200 meters breaststroke, Seiichiro Oura (Rikkyo) 2:43.8m.
- 200 meters relay, Arai, Honda, Ota, Sakamoto (Rikkyo) 1:48.8m.
- 800 meters relay, Arai, Ota, Shirayama, Homma (Rikkyo) 9:2.8m.

Women's Events

- 50 meters freestyle, Mutsuko Onishi 54:0s.
- 100 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 1:14.8m.
- 200 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 2:44.6m.
- 400 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 5:53.2m.

- 50 meters backstroke, Shitoko Kanamori 38:2s.
- 100 meters backstroke, Shitoko Kanamori 1:26.2m.
- 100 meters breaststroke, Noriko Kawano 1:31.2m.
- 200 meters breaststroke, Kimiko Kawauchi 3:17.1m.
- 200 meters relay, Kato, Ozawa, Sano, Hatano 2:21.6m.

Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japan. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no-Sukuné and Taéma-no Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yédo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheater at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in May 1942, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Futabayama and Haguroyama (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Maedayama (Ozeki, or Champion); Tamanoumi and Nayloriwa (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Akinoumi and Terukuni (Ozeki, or Champion); Dewaminato and Kasagi-yama (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

The winner was Futabayama.

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defense was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to ken-jutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsumen in a fight.

This manly art of self-defense was developed to its present popularity and importance chiefly by the late Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training gymnasium in Japan. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees chiefly from the Kodokan.

Year	Flyweight
1937	Hamaguchi (Kansai U.)
1938	Kin Jin (Chosen)
1939	—
1940	Takami (Kanto)
1941	(no game)

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagaoaka and Isogai, both holders of kudan, the highest rank, Iizuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, a rank next to the highest.

Kendo (Japanese Fencing)

Together with Judo, the study of Kendo was carried on among the Samurai and several hundred forms of fencing were propagated throughout the country. At the present time, there are about 30,000 people who are taking up this sport, if we include those in the middle schools, colleges, universities, and in private life. This sport consists in holding the sword with both hands and striking the face, forearm, or torso of the adversary.

Boxing

Records show that boxing was first introduced into Japan by foreign sailors in the early years of the Meiji Era (1868-1912) at Yokohama, where they landed and held a few bouts among themselves. It is also recorded that a foreign sailor had a dispute with a Japanese samurai on the street and knocked him down in the clash which followed. The first boxing club in Japan was organized in 1910 by Mr. Kenji Kano. In about 1920, American motion pictures sent to Japan many scenes in which boxing was employed. In the meantime, Yujiro Watanabé, trained by the noted negro fighter, Turner, returned to Japan and established a club of his own to train young men in the pugilistic game.

Japanese boxers participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1928 at Amsterdam. Of the two entrants, one lost the first tussle, but Kintaro Usuda, a welterweight, won two bouts before losing in the quarter-finals. In the Tenth Olympiad, held at Los Angeles, the Japanese boxers made an insignificant showing, not one winning a single bout. In 1931, the All-Japan Professional Boxing Association was organized to control professional boxing. Winners of amateur championship in recent years were as follows:

Bantamweight
Kin (Chosen)
Kin Mei (Chosen)
—
Horiguchi (Kanto)
(no game)

Featherweight	
1937	Inada (Kansai U.)
1938	Tei (Chosen)
1939	—
1940	Ryō (Chosen)
1941	(no game)

Welterweight	
1937	Sayama (Dai Nippon)
1938	Sai (Meiji U.)
1939	—
1940	Fumimoto (Kanto)
1941	(no game)

Lightweight	
Sai (Meiji U.)	
Kō (Rikkyo U.)	

Kō (Kanto)	
(no game)	

Middleweight	
Amano (Imperial Club)	
—	
—	
—	
(no game)	

Note: Names in parenthesis are those of bodies represented.

Football

Rugby Imported from England, this winter sport has gained much popularity during the past decade. The leading universities in Tokyo have a league, and their matches draw large crowds.

Japan and Canada have exchanged teams during the last few years. The all-Japan team which invaded Canada left a very impressive record, winning several matches and losing none.

Results of the Tokyo Inter-Varsity Rugby League in 1941 were as follows:

	Waseda	Meiji	Keio	Rikkyo	Teidai	Nichi-dai	Bunridai	Shodai	Hosei
Waseda	X	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Meiji	1	X	0	0	0	0	—	0	0
Keio	1	1	X	0	0	0	0	—	0
Rikkyo	1	1	1	X	0	—	0	—	0
Teidai	1	1	1	1	X	—	0	0	0
Nichidai	1	1	1	—	—	X	0	—	0
Bunridai	1	—	1	1	1	1	X	0	—
Shodai	1	1	—	—	1	—	1	X	—
Hosei	1	1	1	1	1	1	—	—	X
Won	8	6	5	3	3	2	1	0	0
Lost	0	1	2	3	4	3	5	4	6

Waseda won the championship.

Soccer Soccer is also fast gaining popularity here. The Football Association was organized in September 1921, in Tokyo, and since then an annual national championship game has been held. The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League,

formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions.

Results of the first class matches of the League in 1941 were as follows:

	Teidai	Waseda	Keio	Shodai	Rikkyo	Bunridai
Teidai	X	0.5	0	0.5	0	0
Waseda	0.5	X	0	0	0	0.5
Keio	1	1	X	0	0	0
Shodai	0.5	1	1	X	0.5	0
Rikkyo	1	1	1	0.5	X	0
Bunridai	1	0.5	1	1	1	X
Won	3	3	3	1	1	0
Tie	2	2	0	2	1	1
Lost	0	0	2	2	3	4

Teidai and Waseda won the pennant.

Rowing

This is one of the Western sports introduced into Japan early in the Meiji Era. The Tokyo Imperial University

took it up first. Japan's rowing team did not fare well at the Tenth Olympic Games at Los Angeles.

Prior to its participation in the Berlin

Olympic regatta, the Japanese Olympic crew, Tokyo Imperial University eight, caused a sensation in England when it defeated the Thames Rowing Club by a length and half in the finals of the Marlow Grand Challenge Cup race, held on the 1,540-yard course on the River Thames on June 20, 1936. The Japanese crew's winning time was 4 minutes 9 seconds, a new course record. It eliminated the Cambridge Varsity crew by three-quarters of a length in the semi-finals on the same day.

Later, the Tokyo Imperial University crew took part in the Henley Regatta, started on July 1, and lost to the Zurich crew in the semi-finals on July 3. The Japanese eight lost to Zurich by 6 lengths.

The national eight-oared championship meet (2,000 meters) was held on the River Sumida course, on September 23, 1940. The First Higher School team in 6 minutes 48 seconds won the championship, beating the Doshisha University eight by 11 seconds.

The winners in this annual championship meet follow:

- 1936 Tokyo University of Commerce
- 1937 Tokyo Imperial University
- 1938 Tokyo Commercial College
- 1939 Tokyo Commercial College
- 1940 First Higher School

Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutuel tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually.

Golf

Once a pastime of the wealthy, golf

is beginning to become popular with the opening of public courses. Clubs are to be found in practically all large cities and their environs. A group of Japanese golfers visited the United States in 1932 and participated in national and State tournaments. Although they failed to win any title, they made impressive records.

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Open Golf Championship tournament:

- 1937 Seisui Chin
- 1938 Mampuku Rin
- 1939 Tōchiro Toda
- 1940 Tomekichi Miyamoto
- 1941 Noriharu Nobehara

National Amateur Championship Tournament

- 1937 Glichī Sato
- 1938 Glichī Sato
- 1939 Seiji Harada
- 1940 (No game)
- 1941 Glichī Sato

National Professional Championship Tournament

- 1937 Iwakichi Ueno
- 1938 Tōchiro Toda
- 1939 Tōchiro Toda
- 1940 Tōchiro Toda
- 1941 (No game)

Skiling and Skating

Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skiling has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skiling has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1929, Hannes Schneider, prominent Austrian skiler, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skiling slopes at Akakura. Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Japan's ski lovers.

Skating is an older game than skiling in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. In 1934, Japan invited Miss Bruger, the figure skater and the Canadian Ice Hockey Team. She sent 11 skilers, 7 speedskaters, 3 figure skaters, 15 ice hockey players, and 13 others.

cials who all participated actively in the 11th Olympiad at Garmisch.

The Jingu national skiing championship meet held on February 6-8, 1942;

Distance: Kenichi Yamamoto, 18km.

1:19.52h.

Jumping: Masami Ohara (59.00, 65.00)

Skating meet:

Speed: Kin Seikel, 500 meters.

47.2s. Miss Makiko Nawate, 53.8s.

Ice hockey: The Kwanto team

Hunting

Hunting is a traditional sport of the Japanese. In old feudal days hunting on a great scale was practiced by feudal lords in the fields and mountains. Especially, hunting at the foot of Mt. Fuji in the period of the Kamakura Shogunate was most popular.

At present there are many hunting grounds throughout the country. The hunting season opens on October 15 and closes on April 15 every year. On account of its geographical position, rich in mountains and forests and extending from the frigid zone to the tropical, Japan is favored by many migratory birds and small animals, and Japanese hunters mostly go hunting on foot.

The number of hunters during past 5 years follows:

Year	Number of Hunters	Licence Fee (in yen)
1935	87,810	1,418,460
1936	88,806	1,442,835
1937	84,545	1,372,670
1938	85,877	1,435,045
1939	108,448	1,822,490

The number of important birds shot down by these 108,000 hunters reached 3,991,741, in 1939, including 2,025,705 thrushes, 811,030 wild ducks, 336,044 copper pheasants, 308,326 green pheasants, etc. That of important wild animals was 839,965, including 652,751 hares, 160,591 weasels, 17,445 wild boars, 4,391 badgers, 2,635 deer, and 2,102 foxes.

Other Sports

Basketball Basketball is very popular not only among boys but girls in secondary and higher schools. The Meiji University basketball team invaded the United States in the winter of 1932 and 1933, but it made an insignificant showing.

At the joint invitation of the Japan Basketball Association and the Hochi

Shimbun, an American all-star basketball squad of eight men headed by Clarence Anderson, assistant basketball coach of the University of Southern California, arrived in Yokohama May 5, 1935. The Americans stayed in this country for a month during which they played eight games and one exhibition match with the leading Japanese teams, winning all.

The winners in 1941 of the annual national championship games were Rikkyo University team (men's seat) and Girls' High School attached to the Tokyo Women's Higher Normal School (women's seat).

Volley-ball This sport came to Japan with basketball and is now quite popular among school girls. National championship games are held annually, but no game in 1941.

Hockey Hockey is more or less a novelty in Japan. It was in November 1920, that the first national tournament was held, when the Waseda University team captured the honors. At the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles, the Japanese team beat the United States squad and finished second behind the Indians.

The winner in 1940 of the 18th national championship game was the Keio University team. No game in 1941.

Wrestling Wrestling in Japan has not shown sufficient progress but this country has sent representatives to both the Olympiad in Paris and Los Angeles and they have left excellent records. In 1934, with the establishment of the Japan Amateur Wrestling Association, this sport has been taken up by many universities and Japan sent 2 wrestlers in the bantam weight, 3 in the feather weight, 2 in the light weight, 1 in the welter weight, and one substitute each for the bantam and the welter weight respectively to the 12th Olympiad in Berlin.

The champions for 1941 were:

Fly weight—Ueki (Waseda)

Bantam weight—Younger Michiaki (Waseda)

Feather weight—Garai (Waseda)

Light weight—Elder Michiaki (Waseda)

Welter weight—Shimatani (Nichidai)

Middle weight—Ko (Meiji)

Fencing This sport is still in the ele-

mentary stage in Jauan. With Hosei University taking the lead, teams have been formed in other universities and women fencers are increasing in num-

ber. The third national championship meet was held on November 23-24, 1940, and the winner was Sano of Kelo University.

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CHAPTER XXXVI

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

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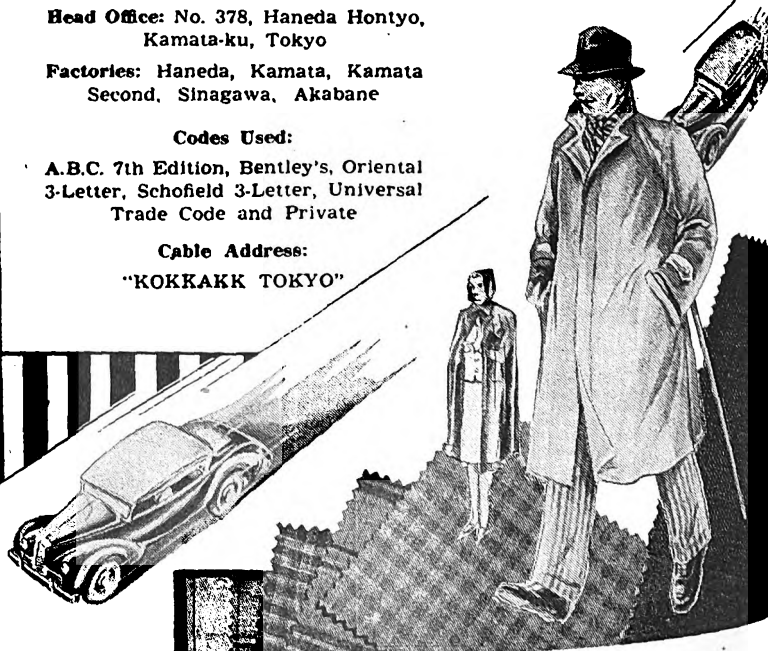
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CHAPTER XXXVI

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

AMUSEMENTS

Introductory Amusements, both Oriental and Occidental, meet in Japan as do the customs, manners, religions, beliefs and all other phases of cultural life of the East and West. And the Japanese people are blessed with the enjoyment of innumerable varieties of entertainment, old and new, including dramatic performances such as the kabuki, noh-drama, puppet show and modern drama; the "yose" or the place for story-tellers; popular music and songs; dances and sword play; cinema; entertainments through radio; horse racing; hunting; games of cards, "go," "shogi"; chanoyu; such domestic delectations as "ikebana" or flower arrangement, "bonkei" or tray landscape, "bonsai" or dwarf trees; miniature gardening; all kinds of juvenile amusements; and cormorant fishing.

To begin with, Japan has a drama all her own. The popular stage is the "kabuki," essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous color, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in olden days; but its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods. For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite, being performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture Chinese music came into favor and was introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist dance ritual and dramatic recitals made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the Noh drama, in which both actor and playwright are

subservient to the interpreter. But the common people had no part in either the religious or the Noh dance. These were exclusively for the upper classes.

Noh Drama

The Noh drama was as aristocratic as the kabuki drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are mainly confined to the upper classes. There are very few theaters or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view Noh upon payment of admission. Most Noh enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Japan, the Noh was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often performed in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom for the Tokugawa Shogun to invite the common people to Noh performances given in commemoration of some happy event. Noh was a feature entertainment on all formal state occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the Noh dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Séami, revolutionized the "Saru-gaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the Noh in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own Saru-gaku, but they drew freely from the "Den-gaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the Saru-gaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the Noh, while their comic elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same program with Noh pieces.

Unlike any other form of drama, the Noh is performed on a wooden stage of regulation size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides,

with a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another at the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached aslant a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain, to one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The Noh pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino", which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono," which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono," with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono," or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each program of the Noh, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a "kyogen" between each and generally a dance in ordinary dress in addition. The whole program is preceded by a piece called "okina," which is held in special reverence; the person acting its chief character is the okina, an old man.

The Construction The construction of the Noh piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A "waki," who plays the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks about the stage a while, singing, to suggest that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the "mayé jité" (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, describing the scenery of the place and telling of the heroes connected with it, or relating the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may be, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The "mayé jité" then suddenly retires from view. He was in reality a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or the ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While the "waki" is startled by this sudden disappear-

ance, there come on the stage common farmers or wood-choppers who give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what has already been chanted or intoned by the "mayé jité," and then retire. This allows necessary time for the principal character to change for his reappearance. While waiting, the "waki" sings, indicating a lapse of time. The song ended, the "nochi jité," the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity or the spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as though wandering at night, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the "waki" for the peaceful repose of his soul. The "shité" tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any chanting. Generally there is a chorus who intone some verses either alone or with the performers. In the Noh drama, the action is symbolic, stately and dignified.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. On the rear extension there are usually four musicians who play on the "fue" or flute, the *tsuzumi*, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers and resting on the shoulder, the *ohkawa*, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of the dancer's big sleeves. The costumes used in the Noh are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colors. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the Noh performance. There have been great masters among carvers of Noh masks, many of whose works still remain.

Six Schools Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the Noh has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hosho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later.

another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Uméwaka, also has many followers, the variation practiced by each school being but slight. On the whole, the Noh performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and artistic aspirations with many points in common, possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee but sometimes weary the uninitiated.

There are 19 Noh stages and three portable stages maintained by clubs or organizations in Tokyo.

The Kabuki

It was during the early part of the Tokugawa Shogunate that the popular stage in Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or woodblock color print, and other genre date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms of artistic expression to satisfy their taste should follow.

The germs of the popular drama may be found in society prior to this period, but they had not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed in a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, owing to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer form of dancing. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

The Beginning The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or kawaramono (river-bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their mansions and homes to enjoy it. Gradually the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor. The late Emperor Meiji's attendance of a performance by a troupe of

kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inoué improved their status immeasurably.

The introduction of the samisen, or three-stringed guitar, into Japan from the Loochoo Islands constitutes another high-water mark for the drama, for in time the musical compositions for the Noh were adapted to this instrument of the streets, and there followed the puppet show, which has survived to this day. These marionette theaters called to their aid some of the best talent in the country, musicians, playwrights and puppet manipulators collaborating in the work. The kabuki emerged from the street dancing and the puppet show and yet as a separate and distinct art of a high order.

The kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications: historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations, and music-posture plays or dances. It is often difficult, however, to assign any particular drama to one of these four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

The Technique The kabuki is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful color combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. From a purely dramatic standpoint it ranks with the best in the world. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theater is the hana michi, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exits and are extremely effective when processions are used.

Kabuki Actors The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Sons of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without

sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The onnagata, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more consistently feminine than women.

Kabuki actors are very well paid. Though the matter of salaries is kept a strict secret, it is well known that a high-class kabuki actor is given more than ¥10,000 a month. They still live and work according to the family system. A high-class actor has a troupe, all the members of which are his disciples. Only the head of the troupe receives wages directly from the theater, and he in turn divides the money among his disciples. Other feudal customs also survive among them.

Tokyo is the dramatic center of the country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Uzayémon Ichimura, Kikugoro Onoyé, Sadanji Ichikawa, Koshiro Matsumoto, Kichiyémon Nakamura, Sojuro Sawamura, Ennosuké Ichikawa and Mitsugoro Bando. The noted Osaka actors include Eniaku Jitsukawa, Fukusuké Nakamura and Kaisha Nakamura.

The largest and most famous theater is the Kabuki Theater commonly known as the Kabuki-za, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theaters in the capital are the Tokyo Theater, Meiiji-za, Shin Kabuki-za and Shimbashi Embujo. Osaka has the Naka-za and Naniwa-za, where Kabuki programs are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programs once a month, and very seldom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular program may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Program A typical

kabuki program has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, usually 4 p.m. to 10 p.m. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theater during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least inside, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

Modern Drama and Revue

Shimpa Shimpa or the new school of actors first appeared on the stage on February 5, 1891 at Sakai near Osaka. The Shimpa is quite independent of the Kabuki, and the actors, strictly speaking, were amateurs. The novelty of their enterprise, introducing something entirely new to theater goers, by presenting plays of modern life of classical events in a modern version, strongly appealed to the general public.

After passing through many trials, Shimpa has steadily cultivated its own ground and consolidated its foundation until today it has a dominion all its own. Many of the Shimpa actors are as prominent as those of the kabuki with a large number of enthusiastic fans who give them support. Shimpa depends upon male actors to impersonate feminine characters on the stage. Takeo Kawai and Rokuro Kitamura are two of the most distinguished actors who appear in feminine rôles, followed by such highly promising players as Shotaro Hanayagi and Kunitaro Kawasaka and others.

On Sept. 15, 1908, an institute for training actresses called upon those who wished to become actresses. This was the first move in this direction in the annals of Japan's theaterdom. Appearance of actresses on both kabuki and Shimpa stages has since become a commonplace affair.

Although the line between the classical and modern stage plays is drawn more or less rigidly, kabuki actors not infrequently throw in one act plays in their program that should properly belong to the Shimpa stage, while, occasionally, a troupe of young kabuki actors that had drifted away from the traditional circles would present a classical play.

The "Little Theater" movement was started about 17 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little

Theater, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation. (In regard to the present activities of Shimpa the readers are referred to Chapter XXXV, "Drama in 1939.")

The Revue The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. The largest troupe is that of the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with several hundred girls. Another one is the troupe of the Shochiku Theatrical Company. The former enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theater in 1933 at Hibiya, Tokyo, commonly known as Tōhō, and recently added boys in the troupe to give more life and variety to their performances.

The number of regular theaters in the country is 1,900.

The Puppet Show

The puppet show or doll theater, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have acquired world fame for their dexterity.

The "Joruri (Gidayu)," a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The Joruri reciter usually sits on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, played by his side. Not infrequently several reciters and samisen players perform in unison, the reciters speaking their lines for the dolls. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The Joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The Joruri or Gidayu is also sometimes recited independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

Yosé

Yosé, a sort of variety show, is an-

other form of entertainment which has survived the vicissitudes of time.

The main actors on the yosé stage are story tellers who are divided into two groups, the hanashika and koshakushi. The former tell humorous stories of everyday life, crack jokes and play pun on words. A good many of these stories are years old and the popularity or otherwise of a hanashika depends upon the skill with which he tells these stories. The Koshakushi recite the heroic deeds of warriors of old or the chivalrous virtues of famous men of the locality, with a touch of refined humor to enliven the narration.

The program at a yosé includes, as a rule, popular songs, song-recitals, dances, music, jugglery, and other amusements, but hanashika is the outstanding feature. Formerly many of the theaters used to present yosé programs consisting exclusively of koshakushi recitals but these have practically disappeared. The number of yosé, in fact, has dwindled down considerably of recent years, due largely to the gaining popularity of movie shows among the younger generation.

There are five best known yosé in the regular, old fashioned style and two with modern equipment in Tokyo. The best known hanashika and koshakushi, with a few exceptions, live in Tokyo.

Dancing

Odori "Odori" means dancing and is usually applied to the Japanese form of dancing. The classical mode of dancing, such as is performed to the accompaniment of the classical songs of nagauta, tokiwazu and other popular ditties of old, is still as popular as ever. But odori by a group of dancers is a innovation, influenced by Western dancing. The oldest and most famous of the group dancing is "Miyako Odori" which was originated in Kyoto as early as 1886. Many years later, Osaka started "Naniwa Odori," "Ashibe Odori," and "Konohana Odori" and Tokyo "Azuma Odori." These dances as a rule are performed by geisha and are intended as an annual booster of local business. Geisha dances, both classical and modern, may be viewed at private parties at any time of the year by appointment.

The Western forms of dancing such as ball-room dancing and exhibition dancing exercise a great appeal on the

public mind. There are many instructors of Western dancing, although the number of dance halls and taxi-dancers has perceptibly dwindled since the outbreak of the China Affair.

Sword Dance (and poem recital). Ken-bu or sword dance is a form of public entertainment peculiar to Japan. It is most popular among boy students and young men, and has gained a wider popularity since the outbreak of the China Affair, on account of the emphasis laid on the development of martial arts. A man in Japanese dress, with his sleeves tucked up, carrying a sword and a folding fan, performs an interpretative dance while another recites a heroic poem after the Chinese style. The recital of poems itself may be regarded as an independent art and there are many professional reciters of national fame. The recital of famous poems is considered to be a refined entertainment, and almost any Japanese knows the way it is usually recited. Sometimes, a kenbu performer and poem reciter together appear on a yosé stage.

The Cinema

Cinema houses are to be found in all parts of Japan, both in urban and rural districts, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. The number of regular cinema houses in Japan is about 1,700 with 300 million paid admissions, per annum.

The government institutions, schools, newspaper companies, and public organizations, are giving free shows for purposes of propaganda, education and entertainment.

Domestic and Imported Films According to the report of the Police Bureau, Home Ministry, the number and length of new films inspected by the Bureau in 1938 were as follows:

DOMESTIC AND IMPORTED FILMS INSPECTED IN 1938

	No. of New films	Aggregate Length (In meters)
Japanese	42,250	22,609,175
American	3,560	2,388,534
British	77	125,024
German	498	454,894
French	194	254,926
Italian	68	90,615
Russian	5	2,732
Others (European)	38	44,748
Total	46,690	25,920,648

Of the total, plays numbered 11,007, and news pictures 28,585.

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are the Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Shinko Elga Company, Toho Elga Company, Japan Motion Picture Company and in addition the foreign, especially American, companies have their own offices in Japan.

On October 1, 1939, a new Cinema Law was put into force for strengthening the State control.

In 1941 the importation of foreign films has practically stopped on account of the gravity of the international situation and the State control of the production of Japanese films is further strengthened.

Radio

Introduced in 1925, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of entertainment in Japan, the other being the cinema. At the end of January 1940, 4,743,667 families in Japan proper had already become listeners in which means that one home in every 3 has a receiving set.

Complex Program It is said that Japanese radio programs are more complex than those anywhere else in the world. The old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programs, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed heavily to satisfy everyone daily. The divergence in taste is most marked in musical programs. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in a manifold form through many centuries and appeals to the older people in particular. It must be admitted that the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people who understand it generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood.

Broadcasting in Japan is monopolized by the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, activities of which are mentioned in Chapter XXIII, "Radio."

Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred stud-horses and horse racing began to be encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As a result a craze

for horse racing suddenly set in. At that time pari-mutuel tickets were sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweeps were allowed. The result was that many people became bankrupt and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse races at which pari-mutuel tickets were sold were prohibited.

But it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racing had an adverse effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country.

Ten years later, the Horse Race Bill was passed in the Parliament and became law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari-mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, payment being made on wins only, not on places. The number of pari-mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one sheet. The dividend was also limited to ten times the cost of the ticket. The race courses permitted under the law are eleven in all, the names and locations of which are as follows:

Name	Race Club	Location
Sapporo		Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodaté	" "	Suburb of Hakodaté, Hokkaido
Fukushima	" "	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata	" "	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama	" "	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Tokyo	" "	Fuchu-machi, Tokyo Prefecture
Nippon	" "	Yokohama City, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hanshin	" "	Naruo-mura, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto	" "	Yodo-machi, Kyoto Prefecture
Kokura	" "	Suburb of Kokura City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Miyazaki	" "	Miyazaki City, Miyazaki Prefecture

All of these clubs are corporate judicial persons. These eleven race clubs hold race-meetings twice a year, in spring and autumn, each of which lasts from six to eight days. The money paid to the government, the commission on sales, and the surplus money are all used for the improvement and propagation of horses in the country as well as for the importation of the thoroughbred, Anglo-Norman and Arab horses. Since the losses of the betterers were large with "win" alone, "place" payments were allowed by a change in the Horse Race Law, and horse-racing has been carried on now on that basis since 1931. In all horse-races in Japan, clubs themselves undertake the sales of pari-mutuel tickets by the totalizator and do not allow bookmakers. Horse-racing is operated under the complete control of the Agriculture and Forestry ministry.

The above are the so-called officially-recognized horse-races, or horse-races operated under the Horse Race Law. In addition to these, there are local horse-races operated under the local horse-race regulations.

There are 113 local horse-races permitted in the country. A pari-mutuel ticket costs ¥1. per sheet. Some of these are being operated on the combined basis of "win" and "place" tickets.

The Derby in Japan The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932

by the Tokyo Race Club, is modelled after the Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 meters, the horses entered being both males and females of four years old. The prizes offered are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first horse, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are paid about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥4,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third horse in stakes.

In the horse racing in Japan, flat races, steeple-chases, and trotting races behind sulkies are held at each meeting. There is a distinction between non-subscription and subscription horses. Subscription horses are those horses which are distributed to those members of the clubs by lot, each member paying comparatively a small fixed sum for it. This was a system established in Japan at the time when the interest of the people in horse racing was not as keen as it is now, with a view to increasing the number of the people who own horses.

As to weights, the system is to fix it according to the amount of the prize. One kilogram is added to each non-subscription horse in a flat race for every ¥3,000, while for a subscription horse one kilogram is added for every ¥2,000. In each instance, the horse is withdrawn

from the meeting if the weight exceeds 77 kilograms.

For a trotter a handicap of from 30 to 40 meters is placed for every ¥1,500.

Indoor Games

Go Go, often with little appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as Goban or Gobang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally be met with. Go may with justice be considered a more difficult game than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibino-Mabi, commonly known as Kibi Daijin, who lived in the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724—756). In the middle of the 17th century, a noted player, called Hon-imbo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time onward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

Go is played on a square wooden board. Nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one mé, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black *ishi* or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of mé.

This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called *seimoku*, supposed to represent the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called *talkyoku*, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees or classes of proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes

the black and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset.

A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable.

Renshu Renshu is more popularly known as "gomoku narabe." It is played with the black and white stone pieces the same as the regular Go games. The winner in this game is the one who sets his stones in such a way as to have five in one row, while preventing his opponent from achieving the same purpose. There are three organizations in Tokyo with a number of title holders. Seemingly much simpler than the regular Go game, Renshu, nevertheless, calls for much skill and foresight and the ease with which even a child may play it makes it a most popular game. This game is played with 50 pieces of stone by each player and the less skilled, as in Go, starts the game with the black stones.

Shogi Japanese chess (*shogi*) was introduced from China centuries ago, and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the Japanese and Chinese games still have one feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, called *hisha* and *kaku* by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called *kin* in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on the *fers* or *visir* of the Persian *Shatranj*, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears either in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are 81 squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with 20 pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or color, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in the most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in

Japan. O is the king, keima the knight, hisha the rook, and kaku the bishop—or pieces having movements like them. Fu is the pawn. The movements of the yari also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. Gin (silver) and Kin (gold) are not found in Western chess. Gin moves one square diagonally only. The kin, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The fu advances one square forward, and captures as it moves.

When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a kin. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the hisha and kaku to which the movements of the kin are added.

As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the fu is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stalemate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to check-mate the king.

Card-Play

Hyakunin Isshu This is a collection of 100 Japanese poems of 31 syllables, written by 100 different people of prominence of olden days. On 100 cards are printed the first half of the stanza and on another 100 the second half. Cards containing the second half are divided among the players. Then a "reader" taking up the cards with the first half of a stanza, starts reading them slowly and aloud. As he reads the first half of a stanza the one who has the card containing the second half of the stanza will produce it. If one has not the particular second half of the stanza among his own cards, he may pick it out from among his neighbor's cards, and give him any of his own card in return. The winner is the one who clears his cards earlier than the others. One who is an expert in the game would pick up the corresponding second half of the stanza the instant the reader utters the first one or two words. There is no reason why this card-play should not be enjoyed at any time of the year, but as a

rule, it is played only during the New Year holidays. It has become an indispensable part of New Year entertainments. It is participated in by all the members of the family, old and young, and serves as ideal amusement at a time when all the family members and friends meet together. There are many clubs that make a systematic study of this game and hold public contests.

Hanagaruta (Flower-Cards) These cards number 48, and every four of them make a set presenting a flower. That is, there are 12 sets of fours presenting 12 different flowers or plants, as follows: young pine, plum blossoms, cherry blossoms, wistaria, iris, tree peony, lespedeza, grass hill, chrysanthemum, maple leaves, willow, and paulownia, one for each month of the year in the order given.

There are several ways of playing games with Hanagaruta: *solitaire*, *hachi-hachi* or "Game of Eighty-eight," "Six hundred," *Sudaoshi*, *Mushi* and *Kabu*. But the most popular and the most interesting of these is *hachi-hachi*. As in the case with bridge, the game may be played according to quite simple or elaborate rules.

Theoretically, a party of from two to six can play the game. It is most enjoyable when there are three to half a dozen players are at the table.

Twelve rounds complete one set and each round is sometimes referred to by the name of the month following the natural order. Twelve months or one year can be played in 20 minutes or less.

These flower-cards developed from the classical "flower contests" which were originated far back in the 9th or 10th century A.D. by the elegance-loving ladies and gentlemen of the Kyoto Imperial court. At first the game was played by each contestant choosing a spray of some flower and writing a 31-syllable poem on a piece of colored paper in praise of this flower and tying it to the twig. Then the flowers were collected and judged from the point of view of the beauty of the flower, the literary quality of the poem and from the general effect.

These sprays of flowers came later to be represented in pictures, and probably under the influence of the Western card games introduced to Japan by the Portuguese during the 16th century, the flower-cards came into being. They present sprays of various flowers

in the simplest but the prettiest design and coloring so characteristic of the art of the Tokugawa period, but at the same time they preserve all the poetic sentiments and associations of the courtly game of the flower contests.

Cha-no-Yu

Japanese people drink tea during and after each meal and it is customary to serve a cup of tea to callers at any time of the day. Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony is, however, a peculiarly artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests according to strictly-formulated rules of etiquette. A fine powder of choice green tea is used for it. The powdered tea is put in a bowl much larger than an ordinary tea cup and hot water is poured over it, and the mixture is beaten by means of a bamboo whisk. A party of guests are invited to enjoy this drink. They assemble in the "yoritsuki," a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and conducts them to the tea-room.

They walk along a garden path to the tea-room, which is about 20 feet away. At a basin filled with fresh water they wash their hands before entering the tea-room. This is usually four and a half mats in area, about three meters square, and is provided with a stationary hearth or portable firebrazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to stoop to enter.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the tokonoma or alcove, and admires the kakémono or hanging picture or inscription on the wall of the alcove, and the tiny incense-holder on a side shelf. Then refreshments are served as soon as the guests are properly seated. It is called "kaiseki" and consists of the simplest dishes. The host waits on the guests himself and does not eat with the guests. After the "kaiseki" sweets are served, the first part of the ceremony is concluded.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong announces that the host is ready to serve the tea above mentioned. The formality of purification at the basin is repeated and the guests enter the room. The hanging scroll is gone and a flower arranged in a vase is in the alcove. The receptacles

for fresh water and the tea-caddy are placed in position before the host enters with the tea-bowl. The tea-whisk, tea-cloth and teaspoon are also brought in. The host retires once more to the adjoining room but soon reappears, this time with the receptacle for waste water, the dipper and a stand for the cover of the kettle or the dipper. All these articles are valued treasures which the host is proud of, and the guests are supposed to pass compliments on them in a proper way.

The host puts three spoonfuls of powdered tea in the bowl, then he puts the dipper deep into the kettle and takes it out brimful of hot water. About one-third of the hot water is poured over the tea-powder in the bowl, two-thirds being returned to the kettle. The mixture is vigorously stirred or beaten with the bamboo whisk until it becomes frothy. The host places the bowl of tea thus prepared in front of the principal guest. The guest makes a bow to his fellow-guests and puts the bowl on the palm of his left hand. Supporting one side of the bowl with the right hand he takes one sip, complimenting the host on the excellent flavor, right consistency and so on. After he has taken two or more sips the bowl is passed on to the second guest, thence to the third, and so on until all have partaken. When the bowl comes to the last one, he takes it to the principal guest who then returns it to the host. Then the chief articles of cha-no-yu, the bowl, caddy and spoon, are inspected and their workmanship admired by the guests, and when they are finally returned to the host in the prescribed fashion the cha-no-yu entertainment is over. When the party breaks up and the guests are gone the serious-minded host returns to the tea-room and sits alone in front of the kettle which is now his sole companion and listens to the sound of the boiling water. The whole procedure will take about four hours.

Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony began with Shukō in 1483. In the north-eastern end of Kyoto there is the famous villa where Yoshimasa, 8th Shogun of the Ashikaga line, indulged in æsthetic pursuits. The historic tea-room built as specified by Shukō, father of the tea ceremony, is still preserved in sound condition in the villa which is called Ginkakuji, better known to foreign visitors as the Silver Pavilion.

The principles of tea-ceremony taught by Shukō were more concretely set forth by Jōwō (1503-1555), and then his mantle fell on Sen-no-Soyēki (1521-1591) who is better known by his court name, Rikyū, granted through the influence of his patron Hidēyoshi Toyotomi. The formula and etiquette instituted by Rikyū still remain the basic practices as taught by the various schools of cha-no-yu that have sprung up since his death in 1591. Many utensils bearing the stamp of his genius have come down to the present day, and those who lay out tea-rooms and gardens still adhere to the canons left by him. There are many schools of tea-ceremony represented by various tea-masters, but one is little different from another in their essentials. Harmony prevails, therefore, when persons of different schools meet at a cha-no-yu party.

Cha-no-yu was a pastime for warlords, monks and courtiers, but now it is enjoyed by all classes of people and taught to young girls in schools by private tutors as one of the best means for training them in Japanese etiquette, because it enables them to cultivate poise, grace, tranquillity and urbanity, all qualities making, for refinement in manners.

Flower Arrangement

Japanese flower arrangement is the art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet the requirements of Japanese taste in decorating their sitting rooms and parlours. The *raison d'être* of this Japanese floral art is the satisfaction of their instinctive love of nature by a scheme of decoration best fitted for the interior of Japanese homes. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

The Japanese style of architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese influence in the 14th century, and the comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 14th century under the Ashikaga régime, preparer favorable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the refined mode of life of the upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

The Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion, which was built in the latter half

of the 15th century, in the outskirts of Kyoto, is said to have been the birth-place of Japanese flower arrangement as an art, as well as that of the tea ceremony. Shogun Ashikaga Yoshimasa who lived at the Ginkakuji had several attendants, "chabōzu" or "tea-priests" who looked after the tea ceremony and flower arrangement for him. Among these attendants of Yoshimasa the one who was best versed in the art of flower arrangement was Sōami. One of the oldest documents on the floral art "Gojō Shikimoku" is attributed to his authorship, and it is most likely that the primitive flower arrangement which had been already in vogue took a definite shape with Sōami and schools of the art began to be established.

After Sōami came Ikēnobō, priest of a temple called Rokkakudo, also located in Kyoto, who later so distinguished himself as priest and master of flower arrangement that he became the founder of the priesthood at Rokkakudo and the school of floral art, both bearing his name. The Ikēnobō school of floral art has existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and probably the largest number of students throughout the country.

During the 17th century the Emperor Gomizunowo took great interest in the floral art, and courtiers, nobles and high officials gathered together at court for the study and occasional exhibitions of flower arrangement. A hall was provided in the court for the tea ceremony to which guests were invited and an exhibition of flowers arranged in vases by different hands was often held for them in a building which was temporarily built for that purpose in the palace garden. Such exhibitions of flower arrangement were held frequently during the following centuries.

There have developed many schools of flower arrangement in Japan during the past four centuries, but they may be roughly grouped into two; one is the "rikka" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nageire" group which is more natural. The former was in the past regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter was considered heretic or auxiliary. But today both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and distinctive qualities of its own.

In Japan girls are taught the floral

art in schools and under private tutors as one of the accomplishments for women and carefully keep their certificates of graduation in the art in the "tansu" or Japanese chest-of-drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable pieces of furniture which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese women find occasions for escaping from their household duties and chatting with their friends in attending flower arrangement parties, for as a rule they rarely go out for picnics or to dances.

Men, young and old, occasionally take up the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership in almost all schools of the art. It is no longer a monopoly of the aristocracy, and visitors to Japanese homes are charmed with the sight of flowers and leaves artificially yet most naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or alcove shelves. On festival days passers-by are entertained by exhibitions of flowers most skilfully arranged and set in rows in the front rooms of houses facing the streets. Modern department stores attract customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

Bonkei. As its name indicates (bon, tray; kei, scenery), bonkei is a miniature landscape scenery produced on a tray by means of fine grained sand and a few suitable sized rocks. Two or three rocks on a black lacquered tray, with a dash of snow-white sand arranged with a brush to resemble the rippling waves, would present a most attractive paraphernalia in a reception hall or a corner of a hallway. It calls for training under professional instructors but the technique is fairly easy to master, and many girls are skilful in the art as in flower arrangement or tea ceremony.

Bonsai. Bonsai is better known among people abroad as dwarf trees. The art is peculiar to Japan. Many kinds of trees, full grown, are of small size. A real connoisseur of dwarf trees often has a large collection of quaint, charming variety of pines, bamboos, plums and so forth, their total value amounting to a fortune. At a public exhibition in Tokyo of rare dwarf trees some years ago, there was one pine tree barely two inches high, fully matured, reported to be 20 years old, which could easily be placed on one's palm. It is a necessary part of the decoration

in a Japanese parlor, especially on formal occasions.

(See "Dwarf Trees" by Shinobu Nozaki, Book Review section, Contemporary Japan, April (1940) number.)

Hakoniwa Hako-niwa (box garden) is one of the most popular pastimes among the Japanese. Even young children enjoy making them. A box of any size may be filled with pebbles, soil or any other material to represent a garden or a country scenery. A rivulet running through a village, dotted with thatch-roofed cottages, together with several farmers, peddlers, anglers, is one of the commonest type. Houses, bridges, stone lanterns, boats, people in various styles, are available at any shops, while small sized trees may be obtained cheaply from any plant-shop. The size and scheme of the box-garden depends upon one's fancy and the amount one is prepared to spend on it. With proper care, a box-garden will last for a year or more, with the tiny trees growing luxuriantly.

Popular Songs

The variety of popular Japanese songs may roughly be divided into the following five:

(1) Those of the pre-Restoration days; (2) those of Meiji era; (3) military songs; (4) school songs, and (5) those which may be termed modern.

(1) Pre-Restoration Songs, in this category are included those songs which have come down from the days before the Restoration. One characteristic of these songs is that they are suitable for being sung at small gatherings and at banquets to the accompaniment of samisen. They are not suited for being sung by a large group. The most favorite of them that have survived the vicissitude of years, even now sung to the accompaniment of a violin or harmonica and other western musical instruments, are: Otsue, Tateyama-bushi, Tango-no-Miyazu, Kochae, Nogeno Yama-kara, Fukagawa-bushi, Kappore, Yakko-san, Yarisabi, Yoneyama Jinku and Konpira-Fune. The most lively of these airs are Kappore and Fukagawa-bushi while Yarisabi is a quiet and tranquil tune.

(2) Meiji Era Songs: Songs of the pre-Restoration days continued to appear after the Restoration. The influence of the romantic sentiment that surrounds these songs remained fairly strong, although many popular ditties

In the later period of Meiji distinctly revealed the western influence in tune and rhythm. Some of the most famous of these songs, popular even today are: Enkaina (1873), Suteteko (1880), Oppeke (1887), Suiryō-bushi (1888), Kyo-no-shiki (The Four Seasons in Kyoto, 1895), Sanosa (1899, a variety from the famous Chinese tune Kiu Lien Kuan or Nine Linked Rings), Strike-bushi (1900), Rappa-bushi (1904), High Coliar-bushi (1909), Don-Don-bushi (1911) and Suto-ton (1924), Oryokuko-bushi (The Yalu River song, about 1919). It became popular in Dalren, in early 1912's and when brought to Japan in 1919, swept over the country. The tune is clearly modified further from Sanosa above referred to.

(3) Military Songs; Military songs may really be said as having blazed the trail for all popular songs of modern type. The very first military song, Miya-San Miya-San (1868) was a most crude affair as a musical piece, both in tune and composition, but it inspired men marching against the Shogunate forces. The best known military song is Battotai (1884). Equally well known is Tekiwa-Ikuman (1891). Michi-wa 680-ri (1892) was widely sung among young people and the Genko (1893) was a great hit among youngsters, one of the most stirring songs that dwelt on the heroic fighting of the samurai against the invasion of Kublai Khan. Hoto-no-Tatakal (the Battle of Fengtao), Roel-no-Yume (the Dream of a Camp), Kokai-no-Taisho (the Great Victory of the Yellow Sea) and Yuki-no-Shingun (Marching Through the Snow) which were most popular in 1894-95 at the time of the Sino-Japanese War, are well remembered.

The Russo-Japanese War inspired a large number of songs that stirred the patriotic fervor, their names being too numerous to mention.

(4) School Songs; By school songs is meant the songs that are sung primarily by pupils and students. The oldest and the most familiar among them is Hotaru-no Hikari (The Light of Fire Flies). The tune is borrowed from Auld Lang Syne and its words express the sentiment of school days and the song is regularly sung at the formal farewell party when boys and girls at a primary school send off their graduating friends in March every year. From about 1888 songs primarily intended for pupils at lower grade and students at higher

schools began to appear, and some of the military songs as a matter of course were adopted in schools. Hundreds of school songs have been produced, suitable for the different grades of schools, including those for kindergartens.

The ones that caught the popular fancy and maintained popularity for years were Minato (1900), the Song of the Railway (1900), the Beautiful Nature (1900) and the Round the World (1901). Minato or the Port describes a moonlight scene at a port and the Song of the Railway is a description of the scenic spots and historical landmarks along Tokaido (Tokyo-Kyoto). Minato is more delicate in tune and words than the Railway Song and was favorite among all classes of people; the Railway Song won lasting public favor on account of the novelty of the theme and simplicity of tune.

(5) Modern Songs: One distinct feature of all popular songs that may be classed in this category is their decidedly western aspect. All are accompanied by an orchestra and their tune is practically that of western songs. A large variety has appeared and those that won enthusiastic reception everywhere were the Dotonbori March (1928), the Tokyo March (1929). Kobe came out with a March of its own but failed to catch up with the two in popularity. Then the Tokyo Ondo and Osaka Ondo competed for public favor and both gained a warm reception.

Colleges and schools have all their own songs which are yelled out at stadiums in boosting their respective teams or sung at meetings of fellow students or other public functions where the students gather. Some of them were taken up by the public outside the colleges and the songs of the dormitory of the First Higher School in Tokyo were especially prominent. The college songs of Waseda and Kelo Universities are some of the most familiar among them.

Mention should also be made about the juvenile songs. They are in great demand and excellent pieces have been produced by composers of national fame who specially devote themselves to composing songs that best appeal to the little folk.

It may be added here that the most well known popular songs with foreign titles were the following:

The Sinking of the Normanton (1887), an expression of national indignation over the inhuman attitude of Captain

Drake and crew of the British freighter *Normanton* (3,000 tons) which ran aground off Shionomisaki, Wakayama prefecture, October 24, 1887. The Japanese passengers, 25 in all, were left on board the sinking vessel while the captain and crew safely escaped ashore. The Japanese all perished. Washington (1897) that plays up the heroic struggle of the "Original 13," paying homage to the leadership of George Washington; *The Ripples on the Danube* (1902); *Song of Katusha* (1914) when Tolstol's Resurrection was much in prominence; the *Song of Gondola* (1915), the *Song of Carmen* (1918) in the days when operas were in great favor. The *Boatmen's Song of Venice* (1924), *Valencia* (1927), *Mon Paris* (1927) and the *Song of Arabia* (1928).

Of these the one about the English freighter was more like a military song while "Washington" was a school song. Others should be classed among those of modern category.

A large majority of those popular songs of the pre-Restoration days and Meiji era originated in the rural areas. Strictly speaking, they are folklore songs, favorite among the rural people. There are many of these folk songs of the olden days that are still in popular favor such as *Oiwake*, *Sado-Okesa*, *Yasuki-bushi*, *Kiso-bushi*, *Iso-bushi*, *Kushimoto-bushi*, *Ohara-bushi* and *Ise-ondo*. These represent, incidentally, the key provinces from north to south; *Sado*, *Yasuki*, *Kiso*, *Kushimoto*, *Ohara* and *Ise* are the names of either towns or provinces.

As example of a popular song which has a strictly religious appeal may be mentioned *Goeika*. The whole is a series of a number of short songs in praise of Buddhist virtues and benevolence. It is usually sung by pilgrims that make a round of visits among the 88 temples as traditionally designated. A pilgrim, chanting this *Goeika* in a slow drone, timing the chant with a tiny bell, makes a somber picture. The custom of singing *Goeika* is studiously preserved among the devotees.

The China Affair brought about a radical change almost overnight. Every phase of life showed a wartime aspect. Songs that cheered "boys" at the front and steeled those proceeding to the front became popular. It should be noted that there is not a single song that expresses hatred of the enemy. Among those that became the rage of the day

were the "Message from Shanghai," "My Pet Horse March" and the "Song of Camping." Simple and straight in wording, lively and pleasant in rhythm, "Thank You, Mr. Soldier," captivated the soldiers at the front and the folks at home. It is destined to enjoy a record popularity.

Juvenile Amusements

The question of juvenile amusements is claiming the most serious attention of the authorities concerned. This is especially true in regard to urban centers where the problem of physical welfare of children is regarded as of the utmost importance, on account of the various forms of mental and physical tension to which children are subjected in city life.

All parks and public gardens in Tokyo and other cities of any size in the country have playgrounds with as many facilities for recreation as possible. Zoological gardens, museums, "Juna" parks and other amusement quarters in and around the cities are as much for the benefit of children as they are for that of grown-ups. Boys and girls under 14 years of age are not admitted to a movie show that caters to the adult patronage, and there are movie halls that screen films officially approved as suitable for minors.

The time-honored *Hina-matsuri* (the Dolls' Festival) for girls (March 3) and *Tango-no-Sekku* (the Boys' Festival, May 5) are still popular. The joy of flying a kite in the New Year season has long been denied the boys in cities on account of the net-work of telegraph and telephone wires overhead. However, quite a number of boys may be seen enjoying this fascinating pastime on the open grounds at the parks. City girls do not fare any better in playing the age-old battledore games during the same season because of the danger from traffic.

Minors share the joy of almost everything that their elders enjoy, only in a more or less modified form. They are conspicuous in hiking, swimming, and in most other sports.

A new feature in the line of juvenile amusement was introduced in recent years in the shape of *Kami-Shibai* (paper-theater). An itinerant showman goes round alleys and side streets, carrying a frame of about 1½ x 1 ft. on a tripod. On the frame is put a num-

ber of pictures in succession, describing a series of exciting scenes of some well-known story. As the showman tells the story, he puts on the pictures one by one, illustrating the story. Each child pays a penny to the showman at the end of the show.

The Kami-shibai appealed to the youngsters so much (especially those in urban districts) that the authorities had to consider its moral effect upon the young people, and since the outbreak of the China Affair, it is put under strict control, many of these showmen disappearing to enter better occupations.

Cormorant Fishing

Cormorant-fishing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each boat. One at the stern manages the craft. In the bow stands the master called ujo, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than 12 trained birds with the skill and coolness that have made this fishing method on the Nagara river so world famous. Amidships is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only.

Between them is the fourth man, called kako, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them by shouts and cries, looks after spare apparatus, etc., and is ready to give aid if required.

At the base of the neck of each cormorant is a metal ring, drawn tight enough to prevent marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body

is a cord, with a short strip of stiffish whale-bone attached at the middle of the back by which the bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fiber, 12 feet long, in preference to a string so as to minimize the chance of entanglement.

When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his 12 birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds; the kako starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking toward the blaze of light.

The master must handle his 12 strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially, he must be on the look-out for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect.

Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity and quickness that the 11 birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand.

CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. An actual knowledge of them, especially their origin will reveal most of them to be delightful. In spite of the modern garb Japan wears today the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism.

Below is given in chronological order a list of important annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances. (Dates of festivals of representative shrines are given in Chapter. XXIX, Religion.)

January

January 1st. New Year's Day—New Year's Day means as much to the Japa-

ese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both inside and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called Shihohai (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shin-to rites. The Emperor officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the four most important national holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration, Kigensetsu, commemorating the founding of the Empire (Feb. 11) and Meijisetsu, in honor of the birthday of Emperor Meiji (Nov. 3).

The time-honored custom of worshipping the New Year's sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring good luck. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

2nd. Beginning of Work—This day is known as 'shigoto hajimé' or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year.

On the night of the second day, people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream. This custom has almost practically disappeared.

3rd. Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of

the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijubashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th. Functions Resumed—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Isé and the other government-managed shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th. The Shinnen Enkai, or New Year Banquet, is held at the Homéi Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the Suitengu shrine at Ningyo-cho. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Japan reveals itself.

6th. Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the Nijubashi for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fireladders. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in olden days in Yedo to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger. This firemen's parade is no more.

Cold Season begins—The so-called 'kan,' or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of 'shokan,' or lesser cold, and the period of 'daikan,' or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favorite temples, having the traditional belief that divine

power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before nightfall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

7th. The Seven Herbs—On this day, known as 'nanakusa' (seven herbs), people eat rice gruel mixed with seven kinds of herbs. This custom originated in the days of the threatened Mongolian invasions under Kublai Khan. The herbs were deemed to give strength to the Japanese soldiers, and they are now supposed to give strength to all consumers against the nation's enemies. This custom is fast dying out.

8th. Military Review—The Emperor reviews the troops of the Imperial Bodyguard at the Yoyogi parade ground. The public may witness the review.

The 8th day of each month is set aside as the "Tai-Sho Hōtai Bi" or the "Day of Commemoration of the Imperial Rescript" of December 8, 1941, granted in regard to the declaration of war against the United States and the British Empire. The nation read the Imperial Rescript and renew their determination to fight the war through for the complete victory, holding prayerful gatherings at individual homes or in public.

10th. The Kompira Shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at Toranomon in Shiba, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is a fair at which many talismans are sold.

Festival of Ebisu. Ebisu is one of the seven deities of luck and very popular among the merchant class. The festival takes place at the Ebisu shrines in Kenninji Temple, Kyoto, at Imamiya, Osaka, and other places, and shops hold special bazaars.

Second Sunday The Kodokwan, the celebrated judo training institution in Koishikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year.

The greatest experts in the art of self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

12th. Sumo (Japanese wrestling)—The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugikan amphitheater at Ryo-goku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. (See Chapter XXXV.)

15th and 16th. Extra holidays for apprentices and servants called "yabu-iri" (return to country homes)—in old days apprentices and servants were given only two day's holidays a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month by law, but in addition the old holiday-dates are still adhered to.

February

February 1st. There are people, usually in the country, who adhere either to the lunar calendar or one called "one month behind," and those observing one month behind calendar celebrate their New Year this day.

3rd or 4th. 'Setsubun,' or change of season, on which date winter comes to an end theoretically and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. 'Mamémaki,' or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th. Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B.C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homéi Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

March 3rd. Hina Matsuri or Girls' Doll Festival is sometimes known as the

peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. All families place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature Court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are very valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls for some weeks before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1199-1207).

6th. The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-sétsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

10th. The Army Day, the memorial day of the victory of Japanese forces at the Battle of Mukden in 1905.

18th-24th or 19th-25th. Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist families. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tombs and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various vegetable foods specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. In Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

21st or 22nd. Vernal Equinox Festival—On this national holiday, which is called Shunki Koré-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. Shinto ritual services in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses are offered at the Imperial Sanctuary.

April

April 3rd. Anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Jimmu, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Emperor Jimmu, who

reigned over the country for 76 years. The Emperor performs an appropriate ceremony at the Imperial Sanctuary.

8th. Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, kept as the anniversary of the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples arrange parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist families and hold memorial services in honor of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

29th. Emperor's Birthday—Commemorating the birthday of the 124th Ruling Emperor of Japan. A service is held at all elementary and second grade schools in Japan. At the Imperial Court the Emperor and Empress hold special ceremonies at the Imperial Sanctuary, offering prayers to the spirits of the Imperial ancestors for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. After the function, the Emperor reviews the army at the Yoyogi Parade-ground. An Imperial banquet is held, to which high officials of the government and foreign diplomats are invited.

30th. Semi-Annual Festival of the Yasukuni Shrine on Kudan hill, Tokyo, dedicated to the spirits of the officers and men of the army and navy and others who died fighting for their country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration, lasts for 3 days, beginning on April 30.

May

5th. Boys' Festival—This day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this classic festival. Appropriate dolls are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families, the festival being intended to bring health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and originated in a desire to encourage a martial spirit in boys. Large paper or cloth carp, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

15th. Aoi Matsuri in honor of Kamo Shrines in Kyoto. The procession starts from the Kyoto Imperial Palace and is famous as representing one of the oldest types of festivals in Japan.

27th. The Navy Day, the memorial

day of the victory of the Imperial Navy at the Battle of the Japan Sea in 1905.

June

June 1st. Ayu fishing season—The seasonal ban on Ayu fishing is formally lifted on this day. Anglers in Tokyo flock to the Tama and Sagami rivers to catch ayu, or sweet trout, a fish noted for its fragrance and delicious taste. A feature of the season is the picturesque cormorant fishing on the Nagara near Nagoya. (See "Cormorant Fishing" at the end of the section "Entertainments.")

17th. Annual Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé, Miyé prefecture, and the Itsukushima Shrine at Miyajima, Inland Sea.

July

July 1st. Season for climbing Mount Fuji—A service is held at the Sengen Shrine on top of the sacred peak.

7th. Feast of Tanabata—This evening the Weaving-Lady identified with the Star Vega meets her lover the Cowherd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way) on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although the custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

13th—15th. O-Bon Festival—During the 'o-bon,' or feast of lanterns, tradition says that the spirits of the family ancestors and other dead members of the family visit the family, and due welcome is given them according to Buddhist rites. The family tombs are visited and vegetable sacrifices are offered. People make small bonfires of stripped hemp stalks at their house fronts, and light lanterns to guide the spirits of their ancestors into their homes.

Bon Odori, or dance of the 'bon' season, is a simple folk-dance which is given in the compounds of temples or elsewhere in the rural districts, under the light of lanterns.

15th and 16th. Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—Semi-annual holidays are given apprentices and servants on either of these two days, as on January 15 and 16.

17th. Annual fête of Gion Shrine in Kyoto, a picturesque shrine festival, lasts for a week. This fête is characterized by an animated procession bearing "Yamahoko" (procession cars) of all

sorts of shapes and designs decorated with old draperies.

Last Saturday. On a Saturday in the latter part of the month, Ryogoku Kawabiraki, or the celebration of the opening of the River Sumida in Tokyo takes place at Ryogoku Bridge. A grand display of fireworks attracts hundreds of thousands of spectators.

August

August 4th. Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.

16th. Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyoï in Kyoto.

19th. Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

September 1st. Memorial services for those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 are held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Honjo on the bank of the Sumida River, Tokyo.

13th. Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa Shrines in Tokyo.

17th and 18th. Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé and the Toyokuni Shrine in Kyoto.

20th. Week of the equinox begins—the autumn 'higan' begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week, Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

23rd or 24th. Festival of the Autumnal Equinox—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, a national holiday.

26th. Moon-viewing Festival—The day of moon-viewing falls on or around this date (August 15th by the lunar calendar). Before twilight sets in, the house-wife brings a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spreads upon it a feast in honor of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers are be placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

October

October 10th. Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine at Kotohira, Kagawa prefecture and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.

13th. Anniversary of the death of St. Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held on the evening of the 12th, and the following day at the Hommonji temple

at Ikégami, Tokyo, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—One of the most elaborate Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and others march in groups to the temple, many beating drums so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho-Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

15th. Hunting season—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted until April 15th of the following year. The ban on hunting pheasants is opened from November 1 to the end of February.

17th. Kannamesai (first harvest festival) on this national holiday the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Great Shrine of Isé and to the Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor despatches a messenger to the Great Shrines to offer prayers on his behalf.

22nd. Festival of Yasukuni Shrine—its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days, begins.

Festivals of the Heian Shrine are held on April 15 and on this day. The shrine is dedicated to Emperor Kammu, founder of the present city of Kyoto. The festival held on this day is known as "Zidai Matsuri" in which a parade of men dressed in costumes of different periods of Japan's history passes through the streets of Kyoto.

November

November 1-12. Festival of Oh-tori shrines—the annual shrine festival known as 'tori-no-ichi,' is observed on the "Tori no Hi," or the day of birds, that may fall on one of the first 12 days according to the old calendar which counts days by the names of 12 animals, at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere. There are the second and third 'tori-no-ichi' in the month.

3rd. Meijisetsum, the Emperor Meiji's Birthday—a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honor of the great Emperor, and the week is celebrated as a national athletic week.

8th. Festival of Bellows—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the

like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari Shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

15th. Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age known as "shichi-gosan (7, 5, 3) festival." On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who have attained 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the shrines of their tutelary deities, in their best clothes, and worship is offered at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

23rd. Niinamé-sai—The Emperor observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient Court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and the Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Emperor and his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

28th. A religious fête in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism, is celebrated at the Honganji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

December

December 14th. The Gishi-sai, or the annual festival of the celebrated "Forty-seven Ronin," is held at Ako in Hyogo prefecture and at the Sengakuji Temple, Tokyo. During this month many theaters in Tokyo and elsewhere stage the drama depicting the cause, the development and the finale of the gallant undertaking carried out by the forty-seven ronin in 1702.

25th. Anniversary of the death of the Emperor Taisho, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

25th. Christmas—Although at first it was regarded by the general public as an event entirely foreign to Japan, it has now become a season of rejoicing for children in large cities, and the day is a regular annual feature, included in the Japanese calendar as such.

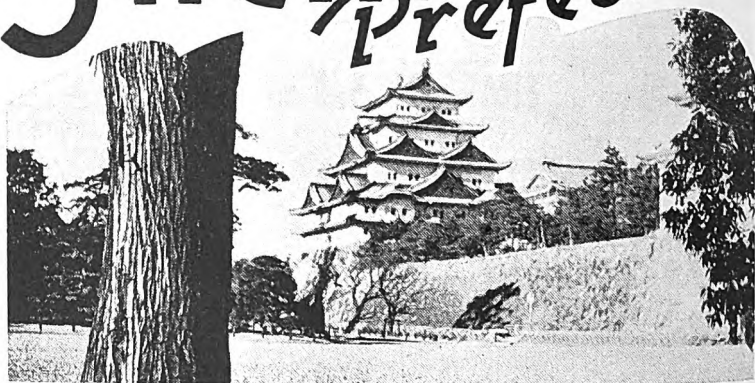
29th. Close of official business—All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

31st. Eating of noodles on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

CHAPTER XXXVII

PRINCIPAL CITIES AND NOTED PLACES IN JAPAN

AICHI Prefecture



Nagoya Castle with gold dolphins stands high, kissing the heavens

Industries in General:

Having the plains of Nobi extended far and wide within the boundary, this prefecture is noted for the rich agricultural produce.

Chemical as well as mechanical industries are active and brisk in the cities of Nagoya, Okazaki, Toyohashi, Seto, and Tajimi, where motorcars, bicycles, machine-tools, porcelains, etc. are being manufactured in large quantities. The city of Ichinomiya is famed both in Japan and abroad for textile manufactures, whose output being reputed highest in this country.

Scenic Spots:

Horai gorge, Horai temple, Karan gorge, Gama-gori beach, etc. Above all the Chita peninsula is noted for the wholesome climate and abounds in many scenic spots.

GIFU PREFECTURE

Staple Products and Sightseeing

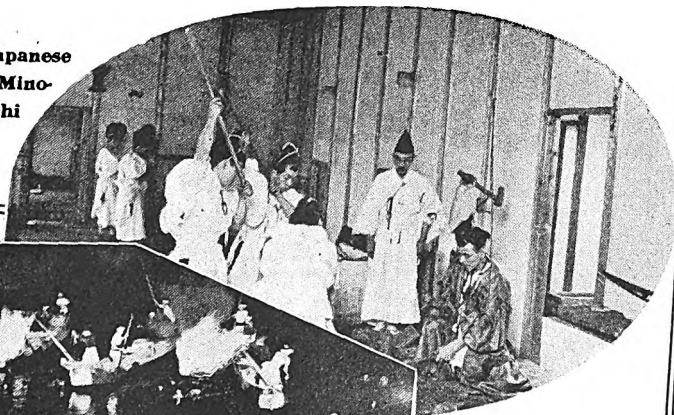
Textile Manufactures: Gifu crepe, Silk cloth (undegummed), Pongee, Velvet, Woollen textiles, etc.

Chemical Products: Japanese paper (Mino size), Foreign paper, Medicine, etc.

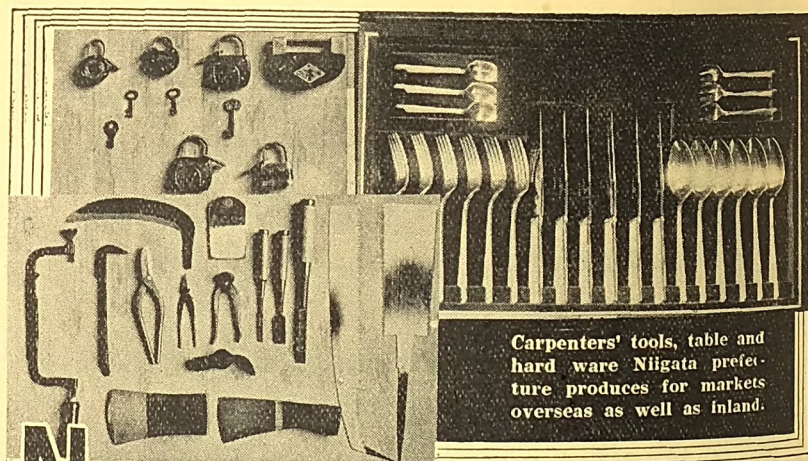
Industrial Arts: Porcelain, Paper umbrella, Paper lantern, Unfolding fan, Cutlery, Tableware, Marbles, Woodenware, Japan work, Agricultural produce, etc.

Sightseeing: World-famous cormorant-fishing, Nippon Rhine, Ena Gorge and many others.

A forge of Japanese
swords in Mino-
seki-machi



A night scene of
cormorant-fishing



Carpenters' tools, table and hard ware Niigata prefecture produces for markets overseas as well as inland.

NIIGATA PREFECTURE

Wealthy in Natural Resources the District Abounds In Important Industries

Rivers, large and small, which flow from the mountain ranges lying in the southeastern part of the prefecture and run through the Echigo Plain make the area fertile, giving rise to many industries: engineering, agriculture, marine, mining, sericulture, agriculture, textile, etc., each realizing for the prefecture a big annual turnover.

Blessed by natural conditions in addition to a plentiful supply of electric power and man-power, the prefecture offers many items of industrial importance for export, and this situation has been made all the more active and smooth by pertinent policies of encouragement and promotion adopted by prefectural authorities for the extension of markets for the many articles manufactured within the prefecture.

Metallic articles including agricultural implements, cutlery, locks, and cigarette lighters are manufactured together with carpenters' tools and implements, kitchen utensils, scissors, nail clippers, can openers, etc., which are all of good quality and marketed abroad, and inland.

Perhaps most attractive among the prefectural products is the Japanese ware including cigarette-boxes, service trays of varying kinds of materials and shapes of all kinds.

There are many items made either of wood or bamboo, mostly along the line of furniture: chests-of-drawers, both of Japanese and foreign style, small cabinets, coat-racks, desks, tables, chairs, etc., as well as bamboo baskets for flower arrangement and those for kitchen use and toys.

What makes the prefecture unique and outstanding perhaps is the output of bulbs of various flowers, which are being cultivated along the banks of the Shinano River.

CHAPTER XXXVII

PRINCIPAL CITIES AND NOTED PLACES IN JAPAN

YOKOHAMA

Yokohama is the fifth largest city in Japan with a population of 968,000 and an area of 66.8 square miles, being one of the foremost trade ports of the country, situated on Tokyo Bay. It is here that travelers to Japan from America get their first view of Oriental life as most of the trans-pacific liners make Yokohama their first port of call. Yokohama is also a terminal, or port of call, for steamers from Europe, Australia, India, South America, South Africa and South Seas ports, China, Manchoukuo and Siberia.

When opened to foreign trade in 1859 as the result of the treaty with America and other European countries, Yokohama was a mere fishing village of about one hundred families or 350 people, but its situation as an important port and as a gateway to the capital of the country established it during the following 50 years as one of the two foremost trade ports of Japan.

Hotels: Hotel New Grand, Bund Hotel, Center Hotel, Bluff Hotel.

Nogeyama Park, a hill near Sakuragicho Station, commands a wide view of the city and harbor. The temple close by is dedicated to Fudo-myoo, a Buddhist deity. The official residence of the mayor and the Earthquake Memorial Hall stand at the entrance of the park. On Kamonyama hill, a short walk from the Fudo temple, stands a bronze statue of Lord II Kamon-no Kami, premier of the Tokugawa Shogunate, who played an important rôle in opening Yokohama to foreign trade which led to his assassination in 1860.

The Silk Conditioning House and the Yokohama Commercial and Industrial Museum are interesting to those who are concerned with Japanese products. The Silk Conditioning House may be inspected upon presentation of a card of introduction from the Japan Tourist Bureau, the latter being open to the public.

Negishi, at the farther end of the bluff, is famous for its horse-races held yearly in the latter part of May and in early November. Golf links are situated inside the circular track.

Sankei-en Garden, reached after a short walk from the Hommoku tram-car stop, or by motorcar, is noted for its historic buildings, lotuses and flowering shrubs, being open to the public by its owners, a wealthy family. Hommoku bathing beaches are much frequented in the season. Hodogaya golf course, 15 min. by motorcar from Yokohama Station, is open to any visitor who is introduced by a member of the Hodogaya Country Club.

En Route to Tokyo: The principal places of interest on the way are: the Sôji Temple, at Tsurumi, the headquarters of the Sôtô sect of Buddhism; Daishi Temple, 5 min. by electric car from Kawasaki Station, is associated with the celebrated priest, Kôbô Daishi; The Honmonji Temple at Ikegami, one mile from Kamata Station, is a famous temple of the sect founded by Nichiren, the Japanese Luther.

TOKYO

From Yokohama Sakuragicho Station, Tokyo is reached in 30 min. by electric trains running every 3 min., or in 20 min. by frequent express and other trains from Yokohama Station.

Tokyo, the capital and the largest city of Japan, is situated at the head of Tokyo Bay, about midway between the northern and southwestern ends of the Pacific side of the Main Island. With a population of 6,800,000 and an area of 206.6 square miles, Tokyo ranks the second largest city in the world. The entire city is well served by trams, electric railways and motor buses running on asphalt roads, and a subway. A trip through streets affords glimpses of the daily life and the varied activities of the people whose number comprises nearly 10 per cent of the population of Japan proper.

may be mentioned the **Inokashira Park**, historically famous with a pool which was the reservoir or spring of the water which supplied drinking water to the Yedo Castle at the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and the **Asukayama Park** noted for cherry blossoms. The **Shinjuku Imperial Garden** is one of the best cared for gardens noted for cherry blossoms, chrysanthemums and other flowers, although it is not open to the public, except on special occasions. **Korakuén**, located near Suidobashi Station on the Tokyo-Shinjuku line, is a typical Japanese home garden, being the site of the Tokyo residence of the Lord of Mito. **Shokubutsuen** at Koishikawa, the botanical garden of Tokyo Imperial University, has a great variety of flowering plants.

Kiyosumi Landscape Garden, at Fukagawa, is one of the best landscape gardens in Tokyo, particularly celebrated for its rocks which were gathered from all parts of Japan.

Ryogoku Bridge across the Sumida is the scene of the most beautiful display of fire works in June which is a customary event taking place every year from the days of Yedo.

Okutama Valley, with its beautiful narrow gorge and Mt. Mitaké, is one of the best places around Tokyo for an outing and picnic. By electric train from Shinjuku to Mitaké, changing cars at Tachikawa, 1.5 hours.

Imperial Mausoleum at Tama. The remains of the Emperor Taisho are buried at Tama near Asakawa Station on the Chuō Line, 1.25 hours from Tokyo. About two miles east of the Imperial Tomb rises Mt. Takao, noted for its autumnal tints. Cablecar available.

Murayama Reservoir, about 15 miles northwest of Tokyo, is the main source of the water supplied to Tokyo. With its scenic beauty, the lovely artificial lake has become a popular holiday place for Tokyo people.

Ōshima Island, located at the entrance to Sagami Bay, first welcomes the steamships which steer up to Yokohama, often capped with clouds even on a clear day, for these clouds are smoke formations emanating from Mt. Mihara, an active volcano, in the island. A good two days' trip may be made from Tokyo, taking a special steam boat of the Tokyo-wan S.S. Co., from Reigan-

jima to Motomura of the island, then proceed via Yuba to climb up Mt. Mihara, where the live crater may be viewed. Descending from the mountain one might stop over for the night at the port of Habu. On the next day from Habu to Motomura, either on foot or by boat. This island is most popular with Tokyo folks on account of its volcanic scenery and easy accessibility, its cherry-blossoms and crimson camellias, and the country mood peculiar to the lone island in the open sea.

KAMAKURA

Kamakura, 20 min. by express electric train from Yokohama, abounds with historical remains of the Kamakura Period as it was the seat of the first Shogunate established by Minamoto-Yoritomo at the end of the 12th century A.D.

Hotels: Kaihin Hotel, on the seashore called Yuiga-hama, a summer resort.

Daijutsu, or Great Buddha, a superb, silently eloquent bronze image, erected in 1252. It was originally enclosed in a building which was damaged by a storm and finally carried away by a tidal wave in 1494, from which time the image has remained in the open. Its dimensions approximately are: height, 42 ft. 5 in., circumference at the base, 97 ft.; length of face, 7 ft. 7 in.; width of eyes, 3 ft. 4 in.

Hasé Kwannon Temple, near the Daijutsu, contains, at the back of the altar, a gilded image of Kwannon, the Goddess of Mercy, 30 ft. 3 in. high, which is said to have been carved from a huge camphor tree.

Hachiman Shrine, less than half a mile from Kamakura Station, stands in one of the most beautiful shrine precincts in Japan, and stores ancient swords, armour, and other relics of the Kamakura Period (1192-1337).

Tomb of Yoritomo, on a hillside, near Hachiman Shrine, is marked by a small moss-covered stone pagoda.

Kamakura Shrine, erected by Imperial order in 1869, is dedicated to Prince Morinaga, the son of Emperor Godaigo, who died an unfortunate death in 1335.

Engakuji and Kenchōji, are great Buddhist monasteries.

Miura Peninsula. A motor ride around the peninsula, visiting Uruga, Kurihama which is known as the place-

of landing of Commodore Perry, Aburatsubo where the Marine Life Research Laboratory of Tokyo Imperial University is situated, and other places en route, is a good one-day outing.

Enoshima, an island with picturesque cliffs and inlets, is reached by tram, 4 miles, from Kamakura Station to Katasé, thence across a wooden bridge. An interesting visit may be made to the Dragon Cave, or the Benten Cave, reached by a broad path across the island. Near the Katasé car stop is the Ryūkōji Temple, built to commemorate the miraculous deliverance there of Nichiren, founder of the Hokkē Sect, from the executioner's sword. Zushi, 2.4 miles by rail from Kamakura, is a summer resort with fine bathing beaches and affords a beautiful view of Mt. Fuji in the blue sky beyond Sagami Bay. Hayama, 3 miles farther along the coast, is also good for bathing. The Imperial Family sometimes stays at the Imperial Villa there,

Yokosuka, 7 miles from Kamakura, is an important naval station. Here are the memorial tombs of Will Adams and his Japanese wife. Adams, a pilot, was the first Englishman to come to Japan (1600).

Uraga, 10 min. by electric car from Yokosuka, is the port into which Commodore Perry sailed with his expedition on July 8, 1853. On Kurihama beach, 2 and half miles farther down the coast from Uraga, is a monument marking the spot where on July 14, 1853, the representatives of the Shogun received the letter of President Fillmore to the ruler of Japan proposing the opening of the country to American intercourse and commerce.

HAKONE

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné District, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of interest. Reached by train from Yokohama to Odawara within 35 min., then by motor car to Miyanoshita, the center of the district, passing through the hot-springs, Yumoto and Tōnosawa. The district, popularly known as Mt. Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. The Fujiya Hotel at Miyanoshita, with its hot-spring baths, superior cuisine and service, is the objective point of the majority of foreign visitors. From Miyanoshita, walking or motor-car trip can be made

to every part of the district.

Lake Ashinoko, alt. 2,386 ft., 13 miles in circumference, a crater lake, is famous for its reflection of Mt. Fuji under clear heaven. The route is through Kowakidani and Ashinoyu, both noted for their sulphur springs, and along the lake shore the road runs through a noble cryptomeria avenue, leading to the site of the ancient Hakoné barrier gate, where in olden days the passports of travelers were carefully examined and the purpose of their journey ascertained.

Within short walks from Miyanoshita are many hot-springs scattered in the beautiful valleys. From the crest of the ridge of Owakidani can be had a superb view of Fuji and of Lake Ashinoko with Ubako hot springs half way down the slope. Otomé Tōgē, or Maiden Pass, and Nagao Tōgē, or Long-tail Pass, are other places for a magnificent view of Mt. Fuji.

ATAMI

Atami is a favorite, all-the-year-round hot-spring resort well patronized by foreign residents. Here the climate is quite salubrious and the scenery is fine, with the Tokyo Bay in front and the Hakoné mountains towering behind. It can be reached by train within 2 hours from Tokyo. Atami is also reached by motor-bus from Moto-Hakoné, on Lake Ashinoko, over an excellent mountain road via the Jukokoku Tōgē, or Ten Province Pass, 14 miles, in an hour. Itō is another prosperous spa on the eastern coast of Izu Peninsula. From Atami to Itō is a delightful 16 mile drive along winding and picturesque coast.

MT. FUJI AND LAKES

Mt. Fuji is known all over the world for its peerless beauty. Its perfect cone rises singly to a height of 12,467 ft. above sea level and constitutes the center of the Fuji and Hakoné National Park. Fuji is one of the easiest mountain to climb, and thousands of men, women and children climb it every summer. The summit commands a magnificent view, and the scene of sunrise above clouds is markedly impressive. There are six trails to the top, the Gotemba on the Gotemba Line, and Yoshida reached via Ōtsuki on the Chūō Line, being the most popular. Two to three days are required for the round trip from Tokyo. Stone huts,

some holding 200 persons, are available along all the routes. Foreign visitors should better hire a *gōriki*, or mountain guide, available at moderate charges, who will carry a pack up to 25 lbs. Horses are available for varying distances up several trails.

Tour of the Five Lakes of Fuji. A trip to Fuji Five Lakes, Yamanaka, Kawaguchi, Nishino-umi, Shōji and Motosu, is enjoyable in all seasons, except winter. This excursion is best made from Gotemba. The Shōji Hotel on Lake Shōji is generally the objective point. Hotels: Fuji View Hotel, Kawaguchi-ko Hotel, first and second.

CHUBU-SANGAKU NATIONAL PARK (The Japan Alps)

The title "Japan Alps" dates back to 1896 when the Rev. Walter Weston published his work "Mountaineering and Exploration in the Japanese Alps." It consists of three lofty ridges, in Nagano prefecture, called respectively Southern, Central and Northern. The Northern Range, the most popular of these three ranges and deservedly selected as a national park, **Chūbu-Sangaku National Park**, comprises more than 100 peaks, 40 of which are over 8,000 ft. The range extends for a distance of 98 miles, with a breadth of 37 miles, and is dotted with volcanoes, both active and extinct. The principal peaks are those of Shirouma (9,620 ft.), Yari (10,450 ft.), Hotaka (10,208 ft.) and Tateyama (9,814 ft.). Among the spas on the slopes or in the valleys, Kamikōchi, about 28 miles up from Matsumoto, is most popular due to its location on a scenic mountain plateau, called Kamikōchi.

Kamikōchi, 4,725 ft. above sea level, is surrounded by lofty peaks and extends like a broad belt for a distance of about 10 miles from E. to W., with a maximum breadth of 1 mile from S. to N. The Kamikōchi Hotel stands in such a picturesque ravine of the plateau that visitors are able to appreciate the wild mountain scenery and the beautiful lakes lying nearby.

Among several routes to the Northern range, the most popular one is from Matsumoto, 156 miles from Tokyo, or 117 miles from Nagano, from which the base for the ascent is reached by motor or tramcar.

NIKKŌ

"Don't say 'kékkō' (splendid) until you see Nikkō," is a Japanese proverb.

Indeed, a trip to Japan is not complete unless Nikkō is visited. Nikkō, one of the great beauty spots in the Orient, is always included in the itinerary of well-informed foreign visitors. The magnificent shrines and temples of the Tokugawa Shogunate, the cryptomeria avenue, beautiful mountains, lakes, waterfalls, numerous walks and places of interest there are acclaimed by both foreigners and Japanese. The district is now made the Nikkō National Park. In May red wild azaleas adorn the countryside, while from late September to mid-October fall foliage shows a brocade of brilliant colors. In summer when the climate is temperate it is a favorite resort of those who are freed from regular pursuits in summer vacation.

Nikkō is about 91 miles from Tokyo, 2.40 hours trip from Ueno Station. Another route is via the Nikkō Line of the Tōbu Railway Co., which has frequent services from Asakusa Kaminarimon Station.

Hotel: Kanaya Hotel, one of the best resort hotels in Japan with an excellent skating rink open during winter.

The shrines, temples and the mausolea of Iyeyasu (1542-1616), founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and of Iyemitsu, his grandson and the third Tokugawa Shogun, are located here, presenting the skill of Japanese architect. Annually on June 1 and 2 the medieval shrine processions are held. Shinkyō, or Sacred Bridge, red lacquered, spans the Daiya River, in a graceful curve, on the way to the shrines. Gamman-guchi is a deep pool in the Daiya, about 1 mile upstream from the sacred bridge. On the river bank are rows of stone images of Amida Buddha.

Lake Chūzenji. The mountain walk to Lake Chūzenji, alt. 4,194 ft., is much favored by Nikkō visitors and is preferred to ascent by vehicles, because of the wonderful views one obtains by this means. Kégon waterfalls, the outlet of the lake, is one of the most beautiful sights in the district. The Lakeside Hotel caters for foreign visitors.

Nikkō hot springs, alt. 5,088 ft. The Chūzenji trip may be continued to Lake Yunoko where an overnight stay can be made at the Namma Hotel, with private hot-spring baths. Kinugawa spa, 4 miles by rail from Nikkō to Imaichi, thence 8.5 miles by electric tram or motor-bus. The six mile motor drive along the beautiful gorge of the Kinu.

gawa River up to Kawai spa is splendid.

Motorcar drive from Nikkō to Shiobara, one of the noted mountain spas, 50 miles, is recommended during October on account of the beautiful autumn foliage.

BŌSŌ PENINSULA

Easily accessible from Tokyo, the Bōsō Peninsula is a favorite resort at all seasons of the year; in spring for shell-gathering on shores at the low tide, in summer for its bathing beaches and in autumn for its scenic effects, and at all times for its shrines and temples.

Among many summer resorts in the peninsula, the most popular are Katsura and Kamogawa on the east shores and Hota and Hōjō on the west. Of the shrines and temples, Narita-Fudō is most celebrated as fortune giver and attracts over a million pilgrims every year. Both Katori and Kashima Shrines, the oldest and holiest in the district, are reached from Sawara, 59.5 miles from Tokyo.

KARUIZAWA

Karuizawa in Nagano prefecture, with its invigorating climate and scenery, was first opened by Christian missionaries as a favorite summer retreat, then became a country town of foreign residents in general, but, in recent years, well-to-do Japanese began to take part in passing comfortable summer days with foreigners. During the season many conferences and conventions are held on church mission and educational or cultural subjects. Sports are prominent, including tennis, baseball, cricket, track and field events and golf.

There are many delightful walks, picnic and excursion points about Karuizawa, and it is the departure point for the climb up Mt. Asama, the largest active volcano on the Main Island whose smoke clouds are frequently seen, often with powerful explosions.

Hotels: The Mampel Hotel, Mikasa Hotel, Karuizawa Hotel, Green Hotel, New Grand Lodge and Park Lodge.

IKAO SPA

From Uēno, Tokyo, to Shibukawa, 76 miles in 2.5 hours by rail, thence motor-bus or electric tram.

Ikao, alt. 2,800 ft., one of the noted hot-spring and summer resorts near

Tokyo, offers a wide choice of scenery in neighboring districts.

MITO

Mito, 3 hours by rail from Uēno, Tokyo, is the old city of Tokugawa-Mitsukuni, the celebrated lord who ordered the compilation of the "Dai Nippon Shi," or A History of the Great Nippon, and was most loved and revered by his own people for his high personality, and whose story is staged oftener than any other historical stories of the Tokugawa Period, except that of the "47 Ronin." The city and vicinity abound with historical places and buildings connected with Mitsukuni and other Mito lords and Fujita-Tōko, a famous Japanese scholar. The city is divided into two parts, the Upper and Lower (or Down) Towns; the former being the section where the castle and retainers' residences were located, the latter the section of artisans and merchants, this demarcation being maintained to a large extent even to the present day. With the River Naka, Lake Senba and Tokiwa Park, Mito is one of the most beautiful castle cities. Tokiwa Park being the first park of plum blossoms in Japan. A day's trip from Mito to Ōarai is worth a trial: Mito down to Kominato by a river boat on the Naka, thence to the north along the sea coast to Hiraiso, a summer resort, then back to the south via Kominato to Ōarai Shrine by motor-bus, then return to Mito by electric car or bus. The whole coast line, with rugged rocks washed by the white waves of the Pacific presents a picturesque view of pine hills and breezy sea in summer.

MATSUSHIMA

Matsushima, or Pine Islands, so named from the hundreds of pine-clad islets in Matsushima Bay near Sendai, is one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan" in their singularity of the handiwork of Nature,—the others being Amanohashidatē and Miyajima. The best season is from April to October, when the Park Hotel is open.

In the bay, 249 of the islets have been charted, some of them quaint and fanciful, and each has been given a name.

Radiating from the hotel, the places of interest, other than going around the fanciful islets on boats, are Zuijō Temple, Oshima, Kanrantel and Gaidō.

During the season express trains stop at Matsushima Station, 231 miles north from Ueno, Tokyo, thence 2.5 miles to the park. It is an interesting diversion, however, to change cars at Sendai for Shiogama, and then proceed by steamer, motor boat or sampan, 5 miles to the park through the welcoming islets. The park is also accessible in 50 min. by tram from Sendai.

SENDAI

Sendai, with a population of 238,000, the largest and most important city in North-eastern Japan, an educational center, the home of the renowned Daté-Masamuné (1566-1636), is of interest to sightseers who desire to visit the mausoleum of that celebrated Daimyo, the site of his castle, the grave of Hasékura-Rokuémon who, as an ambassador of Lord Daté, made a remarkable voyage to Rome in 1613 on board the first Japanese-manned craft to cross the Pacific, the parks, the Tōhoku Imperial University and the Tōhoku Gakuin. The Sendai Hotel stands opposite the station.

Near Hirazumi, 47 miles north of Matsushima, in olden days called the "Nara in North-eastern Japan," is the Chūsonji Monastery, once a large temple group, one mile from the station. Its few remaining structures, timeworn, but still showing traces of their original decorations, are of great interest to students of art. About half a mile from the station are the two remaining edifices of the Mōtsuji Temple.

LAKE TOWADA

Three routes are available. One from Furumaki on the Tōhoku Main Line, 194 miles north of Sendai, by motor-bus to Nénokuchi, 33 miles, on the east shore of the lake, along the Oirase River. Another route is from Ōdaté, on the Ōu Line, to Kémanai by rail and thence by motor-bus to Ōidé, 18 miles, via Ōyu spa. Ōidé is connected with Nénokuchi by motor-bus. Aomori, the terminus of the Tōhoku Main Line, is also the starting point for the tour of the lake, motor service between Aomori and Wainai on the lake, 49 miles, being maintained by the State Railways.

Lake Towada is a beautiful freshwater lake, high up in a mountainous region on the boundary between Akita and Aomori prefectures. It is the largest of the Japanese mountain lakes, having an area of about 23 square

miles. The main features of the lake are the wealth of vegetation around its shores and surrounding mountains which are covered with woods of various plants of different botanical zones, on account of their different altitudes, the picturesque promontories and islets and exquisite beauty of the autumnal tints. In addition, the delicate sylvan beauty of the mountain stream, the Oirase, outlet of the lake, with its many waterfalls and rapids, is an attraction in all seasons. The district has been named the Towada National Park. The famed Wainai trout, with which the lake is stocked, is a constant lure for anglers. There are good Japanese inns on the shores of the lake.

HOKKAIDO

A trip to Hokkaido, the northern island, the home of the Ainu, is very interesting for foreign visitors to Japan. In its topographical formation the island of Hokkaido, 30,499 square miles in area, is more like that of continental countries than any other part of Japan. Express trains, operated between Uéno, Tokyo and Aomori, 457.5 miles, 12 hours, then from Aomori to Hakodaté by the well-equipped steamers of the State Railways across Tsugaru Straits, 4.5 hours.

The principal cities in Hokkaido are Sapporo, Hakodaté, Muroran, Otaru and Asahigawa. After landing at Hakodaté, foreign visitors are advised, for a rest, to proceed by motor-bus to Yunokawa, a noted hot-spring resort. Inns at Hakodaté are Gotōken and Katsuda.

Hakodaté Park, south-west of the main station, from which can be had a comprehensive view of the city and bay.

Lake Ōnuma, the "Matsushima of Hokkaido," is picturesquely dotted with islands, large and small. Mt. Komagataké, 3,625 ft., towers on the far side. Railway from Hakodaté, 17.5 miles—a charming one-day trip. Inn: Kōyōkan.

Otaru is the most prosperous commercial center in Hokkaido its location and facilities enabling it to command a steadily increasing sea trade with northern regions. By rail it is about 1 hour from Sapporo, 5.5 hours from Hakodaté. Inns are Etchūya and Hokkai Hotel.

SAPPORO

The city of Sapporo, the administrative center of the Hokkaido Govern-

ment, is laid out in blocks and streets like a modern American city. The principal places of interest are: Nakajima Park, Botanical Garden and Museum, and Hokkaido Imperial University.

Hotel: Sapporo Grand Hotel.

Jōzankel, a sequestered and popular hot-spring resort, is easily accessible from Sapporo. Inns: Jōzankel Hotel, Shikanoya Club, etc.

DAISETSUZAN

Daisetsuzan, or Great Snow Mountain, represents a wide range of mountains, also called the Ishikari range, lying in the central part of Hokkaidō. It includes Mt. Asahidake, 7,511 ft., the highest mountain in the island and several other peaks, all snow-capped and possessing altitudes not below 6,500 ft. Mt. Asahi attracts numerous climbers every year because of the wonderful views obtainable from its summit and the abundance of rare alpine plants which grow on its slopes.

The River Ishikari, one of the longest rivers in Japan with a length of 250 miles flowing along the northern foot of the range forms a grand gorge called Sōunkyo Canyon, about 15 miles in length. The cliffs on this canyon, sometimes rising sheer from the river in columns and pinnacles, but more often with a gradual slope, are covered to the top with a thick growth of timber.

Daisetsuzan National Park includes the Ishikari range, Sōunkyo Canyon and other scenic points in the vicinity. The park is reached from Asahigawa, 86 miles from Sapporo, whence two routes, to the north and south of Mt. Asahi, lead to the peaks, the north route via Sōunkyo spa lying on the way to the canyon, and the south route via Matsuyama spa.

NOBORIBETSU

Noboribetsu, the most famous hot-spring resort in Hokkaido, should be visited by every foreign travelers to Hokkaido. The sight of a huge crater on the side of Mt. Noboribetsu filled with rounded mounds of sinter, the hot water spurting and bubbling, and the clouds of steam will live long in the memory. Access: by railway from Hakodaté or Sapporo via Iwamizawa, or from Muroran; from Hakodaté, 128.6 m., 5 hrs. by express; from Muro-

ran, 15.9 m., 40 min.; from Noboribetsu Station, by motorcar or electric train to the spa. Inns: Daiichi Takimoto, Daini Takimoto, etc.

Shiraoi is the easiest available place on the island to see the life and customs of the Ainu, the aboriginal people of Japan which the Japanese Government is doing its best to preserve. By rail it is 11.7 miles from Noboribetsu Station and if journeying via Sapporo the village may be visited on the way to Noboribetsu.

Lake Tōya, 24 miles in circumference, with three attractive islets in the center, is a picturesque tourist resort in Hokkaido. It is reached by electric tram from Abuta Station on the short cut line between Hakodaté and Muroran.

LAKE AKAN

Lake Akan reposes in between the two peaks of Mé-Akan (4,960 ft.) and O-Akan (4,524 ft.) rising to the northwest of Kushiro, the district being designated the Akan National Park noted for its scenic grandeur and sublimity. The lake, 1,120 feet in altitude and 16.5 miles in circumference, is surrounded by thickly wooded hills and contains 4 wooded islets. Boats are available and there is good fishing for a species of salmon-trout.

Lake Kussharo, 35 miles in circumference and **Lake Mashu**, 12.5 miles in circumference, are also included in the national park, and both are celebrated for their noticeable features. There are several hot springs on or near these lakes, which are connected by a good motor road.

The usual route to Lake Akan is to Shitakara from Kushiro by the Yūbetsu Railway, thence to the lake by motorbus.

KARAFUTO

If it is desired to extend the journey farther north, Karafuto, or Japanese Saghalien, is now easily accessible from Wakkanai, at the northern end of Hokkaido, by the steamers of the State Railways, in 8 hours to Odomari, the principal port in the island, from where a railway runs to Toyohara, the administrative center, 1,080 miles north of Tokyo.

KŌFU AND MINOBU

Kōfu, on the plateau of Kōfu where the River Fuji-kawa gathers waters, 3

hours from Shinjuku, Tokyo and 7.5 hours from Nagoya, is an old castle city of Lord Takeda. The Kōfu Plateau grows grapes in abundance, the history of grape cultivation there beginning in early Kamakura Period (1192-1337). In the Meiji Era, American and Italian grapes were transplanted and crossed with old ones to give the fame of the Kōshū grapes and wine. The site of the old castle, the Takeda Shrine and the tomb of Lord Takeda-Shingen are the chief places of interest in the city.

Mitaké Shosen-kyo, gorge of naked granite rocks along the clean stream of the Arakawa, can be reached by motor-bus 5 miles from Kōfu.

Along the Minobu electric railway from Kōfu to Fuji station on the Tōkaido Main Line, there are the Kuonji Temple and the Fujikawa valley for a good excursion. The Kuonji Temple in Mt. Minobu, the head temple of the Nichiren or Hokkē Sect, located at the side of the mountain, is one of the most sacred places of Buddhism and draws thousands of pilgrims from all parts of Japan; the main building is reached by a high flight of 300 stone steps in a thick wood of old cryptomerias. The beautiful temple garden is a representative work of the middle Yedo Period. The River Fuji is one of the three rapid streams of Japan and its valley is full of picturesque points. The excursion down-stream from Kajikazawa to Iwabuchi at the mouth of the river by Japanese river boats has become a story, but the Minobu Line serves with its 3 excursion boats for the convenience of sightseers.

ALONG THE CHUŌ MAIN LINE

Leaving Kōfu, the Chuō Main Line of the State Railway runs to the northwest to Shiojiri, in Nagano Prefecture, through the valleys of the Japan Alps. At the western foot of Mt. Yatsugatake there are many mountain spas, among which Tadashina is best known for its medical efficacy and good accommodations, 8 miles northwest of Chino Station by motorcar.

Lake Suwa, at Kami-Suwa, alt. 2,489 feet, 11 miles in circumference, is noted for skating.

Kiriga-miné, 4 miles northeast of Kami-Suwa, comprises a beautiful plateau of green grasses, commanding a grand view of Fuji and the Japan Alps. It has a popular skiing ground

and draws, in combination with Lake Suwa, thousands of winter sportsmen from Tokyo. Kiriga-miné has become more popular in recent years as the best drill ground for the gliders.

Okaya, on the west shore of Lake Suwa, constitutes, together with adjacent towns, the center of the Japanese silk industry.

The Tenryu Valley, in between the peaks of South Japan Alps and the Kiso mountain range, is famous for its picturesque gorge, near the city of Iida, with granite rocks, rich foliage and mountain azaleas. Japanese boats on the rapids of the River Tenryu will carry you down to the towns near the mouth of the river, through numerous scenic spots. The beauty of the Tenryu Valley was first discovered by Sakatani-Rōro in 1847.

At Shiojiri, the Chuō Main Line turns southwest, and running along the River Narai enters a ravine, goes through a tunnel under the Torii Pass to turn south along the eastern bank of the famous River Kisogawa and reaches the town of Fukushima in the Kiso Valley. The district is renowned for its forests, owned by the Imperial Household, one of the three most beautiful forest areas in Japan. Here thick woods of cypress, oak, fir, pine, beach, etc., grow in abundance the most stateliest being the cypresses, hundreds of years old.

Nézaméno-toko, about a mile south of Agématsu Station, accessible by motorcar, lies in the streams of the River Kisogawa, consisting of black granite rocks which are naturally arranged in the form of bedsteads to give it the name of "Nézaméno-toko" or the Sleepy Bedstead. The stone beds are surrounded by stone walls that stand 21 feet high, on both banks of the Kisogawa the lower reaches of which comprise the part called the "Rhine of Japan."

KUROBE GORGE

Kurobé Gorge, in Toyama Prefecture, starts in the mountains a little northwest of Mt. Yurigadake in the Northern Japan Alps and runs down 40 miles northward to Unazuki hot springs, south of Mikkaichi Station on the Hoku-riku Main Line which runs along the Japan Sea. The gorge is the longest and deepest of the kind in Japan, being created by waters from the high moun-

tains of the Northern Japan Alps. The trip may be better started at Unazuki and proceed up-stream to Kanetsuri spa, Sarutobi, Babadani hot-springs, along a good road or by electric car for 12 miles to Aso-hara, then up to Hirano-goya through Shimo-rōka, the gem of the Kurobé Gorge. Three days are required to complete the trip from Unazuki to Hirano-goya; the safest season is July-October. Daring alpinists may continue the trip to climb the ravine up to Harinoki Pass and end the thrilling excursion at Ōmachi on the South Ōito Line. The entire course, especially the scene at Shimo-rōka ravine at the foot of Mt. Tateyama, impresses one with the mystery of Nature which leaves one with the most enduring memory.

ALONG TOKAIDO MAIN LINE (Tōkyō-Kōbé)

The Tōkaidō Main Line of the State Railways starts from Tōkyō and passes through Yokohama, Kōzu, Atami, Shizuoka, Nagoya, Kyōto, Osaka, until it terminates at Kōbé. At Kōzu, there runs a branch line and meets the main line at Numazu via Gotemba, the principal departure point for the ascent of Mt. Fuji. Beyond Atami a long Shimizu tunnel is bored through the Hakoné mountains to a point near Mishima, one of the entrances to the historic Izu peninsula with a group of hot springs.

Izu Peninsula. Numazu is another entrance to the peninsula. From Shuzenji, which is connected by a private railway to Mishima and Numazu, motor-buses run via Itō and other noted hot-spring resorts to Shimoda, historically associated with American effort to make contact with Japan, from where a motor service over excellent roads is maintained along the eastern and western coasts of the peninsula.

Shizuoka, the largest city between Yokohama and Nagoya, is the center of a large tea growing district, the tea being exported from Shimizu, its port. Historically, the city is associated with Iyeyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, who here passed his last years in retirement. The resplendent temple on Mt. Kunō is the small model of some of the Nikko temples.

Bentenjima is a small island in Lake Hamana, on which is enshrined an image of the goddess, Benten.

Gamagōri is a noted sea-bathing resort facing Atsumi Bay, with picturesque views seaward. A comfortable trip is made from here to Toba across the Bay of Isé.

Hotel: Gamagōri Hotel.

NAGOYA

Nagoya is the third largest city in Japan with a population of 1,300,000 and the industrial center between Tokyo and Osaka. Of interest to sightseers are the **Nagoya Castle**, one of the best remaining examples of these feudal structures in Japan, celebrated for the two gold dolphins on its roof; the former Imperial Detached Palace in the grounds, the Commercial Museum, Honganji temples, Nissenji Temple, Gohyaku Rakan near by, and Ōsu Kwanon in the center of an amusement quarter.

Atsuta Jingū in the southern part of the city, modelled on the Isé Shrines, is held sacred because of its treasure, the sacred sword forming a part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan.

From Nagoya, the one hour trip by express tram to Inuyama, noted for the white castle, and the **Kiso River**, the "Rhine of Japan," where the pleasure trip up and down the river can be made in 4 hours, is worth while. Cormorant Fishing may be enjoyed in the river during the season, June-October.

Hotels: Mampel Hotel, Nagoya Hotel and Inuyama Hotel.

From Nagoya a railway runs to Ujiyamada where are the Grand Shrines of Isé, the most venerated shrines in Japan, to Futami-no-ura, with the famous "Wedded Rocks," and to Toba, noted for its magnificent views and cultured pearl fisheries near by—a one day trip, although it is advisable to spend two days, staying overnight at Futami, proceeding thence to Nara via Ujiyamada.

The Grand Shrines of Isé consist of the Nai-Kū, or Inner Shrine, dedicated to the Sun Goddess who is regarded as The Ancestress of the Imperial Family, and the Gē-Kū, or Outer Shrine, dedicated to the Goddess of Farms, Crops, Food and Sericulture. In the former is enshrined the Sacred Mirror, one of the Three Sacred Treasures, which forms another part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan. It is one of the dearest wishes of every Japanese to visit the Isé Shrines once in his lifetime, so that millions of devotees make a pilgrimage

to the sanctified spot every year. The two shrines are 4 miles apart the distance being covered by tram, motor-bus or ricksha.

Continuing on from Nagoya, Gifu is noted for its paper- and bamboo-wares and its cormorant fishing in the Nagara River, a sport and industry practised there for over 1,000 years. Here the rail line runs westward to Maibara, the junction for Tsuruga and other places along the Hokuriku Line, thence along the shore of Lake Biwa. At Ōtsu steam boats are taken for the trip to the "Eight Sights of Biwa-ko."

Hotels: Nagara-gawa Hotel at Gifu, Biwako Hotel at Ōtsu.

KYOTO

For over a thousand years until 1869 Kyoto was the Capital of Japan. The city and vicinity are rich in historical associations with the mediaeval life of the Empire, and the hundreds of old temples and shrines still remaining attest the glory and splendor of those days. The city now comprises about 1,200,000 people and is the fourth largest city in Japan.

Kyoto is the center of a vast recreation region and there are countless spots of interest, of which Mt. Hiei, Lake Biwa, Hozu Rapids, Momoyama and Uji are the favorite haunts of sightseers and pilgrims. It is the city of the fine art industries of the country and the home of famous painters and artists, old and new, its hand-made products being renowned: lacquer, silk embroidery, "Tsuzure-no-Nishiki," brocades, kimono, cloisonné, damascene, porcelains, bronzes, fans, dolls, bamboo wares, etc. Some of the shops selling these artistic goods invite inspection of their factories and the processes of manufacture.

Kyoto is the second educational center in Japan, next to Tokyo, with Kyoto Imperial University, Doshisha College, Buddhist colleges, colleges for art education and other schools.

With so many shrines, few days in the year pass without a festival being celebrated somewhere in Kyoto or vicinity. The quaintest spectacular festivals are the Aoi-Matsuri on May 15, Gion-Matsuri on July 16-17, and the mediaeval Jidai-Matsuri (historical pageant) on October 22.

The beautiful Miyako Odori, or Cherry Dance, is given yearly in April and Kamogawa Odori in May.

The Palaces: The old Imperial Palace, the home of the Imperial Family down to the Restoration of 1868, is situated in the northern part of the city. The park outside the palace is open to the public. Niijō Detached Palace with its interior elaborately decorated, dates from 1569. It was the abode of the Tokugawa Shoguns when in Kyoto, but, at the time of the Restoration movement, Yoshinobu, the last Shogun, left Niijō for Osaka on December 12, 1867, never to return. Katsura Palace and Shūgakuin Palace are celebrated for their excellent gardens and rare works of old Japanese architecture.

In the northern and eastern part of the city:

Shimo-gamo and Kami-gamo Shrines: The shrines are noted for their chief festival "Aoi-Matsuri" (Hollyhock Festival), held on May 15, the origin being traced back to the 6th century. It is a court festival conducted in purest Shinto style.

Ginkakuji, or Silver Pavilion, modeled on the Kinkakuji, or Gold Pavilion, as mentioned later, was built by Shogun Ashikaga-Yoshimasa in 1479 as a place of retirement. Its landscape garden is one of the best in Japan.

Heian Shrine, in Okazaki Park, a replica of a part of the first Imperial Palace, is noted for its buildings and attractive garden.

Butoku-Den, or Hall of Martial Virtues, near Heian Shrine, is a training institution for Japanese fencing, jujitsu, archery, etc., open every day except Sundays and holidays.

Commercial Museum, Public Library, Zoological Garden, all in Okazaki Park.

Nanzenji, one of the five head temples of the Rinzai Sect, possesses valuable paintings and other art objects.

Shōrén-in, or Awata Palace, had, down to the Restoration, a prince of the blood as its abbot, the last of these prince abbots being the grandfather of the present Empress. The garden was laid out by Sōami and Enshū, famous landscape designers.

Chion-in, a great Buddhist monastery, is the head temple of the Jōdo Sect, and its furnishings, paintings and decorations are most interesting for the lovers of the Japanese arts.

Maruyama Park, Kyoto's principal park, is particularly celebrated for its "Shidaré-Zakura", or willowy cherry tree, over 400 years old, which, when in bloom, is illuminated at night with torches and colored lights. Throngs crowd Yasaka Shrine in the park, when on New Year's eve the priests hand out straw rope lighted at the holy fire, for the purpose of starting the good luck fire on which in individual homes is cooked the customary New Year's dish, Ozōni, a sort of broth containing mochi, or rice-cakes, and vegetables.

Kiyomizu Temple commands a fine view of the city and adjacent country. Its approach is along a street lined with crockery shops, known to foreigners as "Tea-pot Lane." The cherry blossoms and the maples below the temple are beautiful in their season.

Municipal Museum, originally erected by the Imperial Household and donated later to the municipality, contains rare and valuable art objects.

Sanjūsangen-Dō, or 33 ken Hall, so called because of the spaces between the front pillars of the temple measure 33 (sanjūsan) ken (ken=5.95 feet), is celebrated for its 1,001 images of the Goddess Kwannon.

In the southern part of the city:

Nishi Honganji, headquarters of the influential Shin Sect and **Higashi Honganji** of another branch of the same sect. The buildings and gardens of the former are quite old, while the latter was built in Meiji Era, though the latter is much grander than the former. Both temples contain priceless art and religious objects, and are splendid examples of Japanese Buddhist architecture.

In the north-western part of the city:

Kinkakuji, or Gold Pavillion, built in 1397 by the Ashikaga Shogun, Yoshimitsu, is so called because its interior was once entirely covered with gold foil. On its upper story, part of the foil, restored in 1906, still gives evidence of its past glory. Its garden is celebrated for its natural beauty.

Myōshinji and **Ninnaji** temples, and **Kitano Shrine**, all in the vicinity of the Kinkakuji, are historic edifices, noted for their art treasures and paintings.

Arashiyama, or Mist Mountain, at the foot of which runs the Ōi River, is much visited for its cherry blossoms in

dark green pine woods in spring, shady groves in summer, brilliant tints in autumn and snow scenery in winter. It is reached from Saga Station, or by electric cars from Kyoto in 20 minutes.

Out-of-town trips:

Shooting the Hozu Rapids, from Kameoka to Arashiyama, 7.5 miles in 1.5 hours. The charming country scenery is enjoyed throughout the whole journey. Train to Kameoka, then 10 minute walk to the river.

Lake Biwa, motorcar or tram to Ōtsu, where steamers start for the round of Chikubu-shima and other islets on the lake or the "Eight Sights" along the lake shore. Lake Biwa is the largest of the Japanese fresh-water lakes, with a circumference of 146 miles.

Mt. Hiei, alt. 2,799 ft. Take tramcar from Demachi-yanagi to Yasé, thence cable railway up to the peak. From its summit there are wide views over Kyoto and Lake Biwa. After visiting Enryakuji Temple, the descent may be made by another cable line to Sakamoto on the lake and return to Kyoto by electric car via Ōtsu. An interesting half-day trip.

Mausolea of Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken at Momoyama by railway or electric tram.

Takao, **Makino-o** and **Togano-o** lie close together along the ravine at the foot of Mt. Atago on the northwestern outskirts of Kyoto. They constitute the historic places for maples which are the glory of the hillsides and dales in autumn.

Uji, where grows the choicest green tea, is a popular spot for excursion from Kyoto by motorcar. The Phoenix Hall of the Byōdō-in Temple, built in the 11th century, stands on the Uji River as a sample of the best religious architecture of the period when the Fujiwara Family was in its glory.

KYOTO TO SHIMONOSEKI by San-in Line

The country traversed by rail between Kyōto and Shimonoséki along the Japan Sea, a distance of 422.5 miles, has numerous places unfrequented by the general traveller, called the "Holidays Land" because of its excellent sea, lake and hot-spring resorts, its fishing and sailing and other diversions including mountain climbing. From the

trains are picturesque views of the bold coast-line, rocky islets, small bays and sand beaches in succession.

Among numerous spas along the railway line, Kinosaki, the first spa reached from Kyôto, has been known since the 7th century for the curative efficacy of its hot mineral water. Near the spa stands Genbudo, the famous grotto, 78 to 100 ft. in depth, and filled with thousands of basalt pillars, giving the cave the appearance of a colossal beehive.

Matsué, on the east bank of Shinjiko Lake, is the largest city in the region; it was in the Matsué Middle School that Lafcadio Hearn first taught in Japan; the house in which he stayed for about two years is preserved in his memory.

The Daisen National Park and the Great Shrine of Izumo are in this region.

AMANO-HASHIDATE

Amano-hashidatê, or Heavenly Bridge, one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan", a sand-bar about 2 miles long, covered with pine trees, which extends from the mainland into Miyazu Bay, on the Japan Sea, has been famous from time immemorial as a scenic point, the combination of pine-trees, white sand and blue water appealing strongly to the esthetic nature of Japanese. Reached by rail from Kyoto, Kobé, or Osaka to Amano-hashidatê Station.

MT. DAISEN

Daisén, alt. 5,693 ft., selected as a National Park, is best reached from Hôki-Daisén Station on San-in Main Line, 199 miles from Kyoto, 10 hours. Bus available from the station up to the mountain side where stands the famous Daisénji Temple. The ascent from the temple is a severe one, taking 3 hours to cover only 4 miles. An extensive virgin forest of beech trees belting the upper half of the mountain constitutes a special attraction.

Great Shrine of Izumo, 244.7 miles from Kyoto, 12 hours, one of the oldest shrines in Japan, dedicated to Prince Okuninushi who founded a state which he surrendered into the hands of the Imperial Ancestors. The present shrine, built in 1874, is approached by an avenue of magnificent pine trees. It is built in the earliest style of architecture known in Japan and on that account the most dignified.

NARA

Nara was an ancient capital of Japan during seven reigns, from 710 to 784, regarded as the period in which Japanese arts, crafts and literature were born and during which were compiled the first written histories of Japan. The temples and shrines in its eastern part have remained, in spite of the ravages of fire and time, practically as they were originally, and in Nara are found many rare old treasures. Visitors enjoy the quiet and restfulness of the old capital, and foreign visitors miss much if they omit Nara from their itinerary.

Hotel: Nara Hotel.

Nara Park, the largest of city parks in Japan, about 1,250 acres in area, and richest in classical memories, contains most of the relics of the ancient city. In the park there are the Shôshô-in Museum (see Chapter on Literature, Arts and Music), Imperial Household Museum with rich collections, Industrial Bazaar, Mt. Wakakusa, Uguisu Waterfall, and the ancient Kasuga Shrine situated in a grove of old cryptomerias. Deer strolling in the park are the favorite of all visitors.

On the way from the railway station to the hotel, the first pond noticed is Sarusawa-no-iké, fringed by willow trees. Kôfukuji, above the pond, is conspicuous with its two pagodas. Other temples and shrines near by are Tamukeyama Hachiman Shrine, Sangatsudo and Nigatsudo minor temples, Todaiji Temple, one of the seven great temples of Nara, noted for its big bell, beyond which is roofed the colossal bronze image of Daibutsu, or Great Buddha, 53.5 feet high. It was cast in 749 A.D. and is the largest of its kind in Japan.

Hôryûji, 3 miles from Nara, built about 1,300 years ago, is the oldest existing Buddhist temple in Japan, some of its buildings being probably the oldest wooden structures in the world. It contains priceless art treasures, best seen in the treasure house.

Among the other noted old temples and shrines in the vicinity are Hôkkéji, Saidaiji, Tôshôdaiji, Yakushiji, Hasadera Temple, Oniwa Shrine, Shigisan Temple, the Mausoleum of Emperor Jimmu, the founder of the Japanese Empire, and Kashiwara Shrine dedicated to him.

OSAKA

Osaka, the second largest city in

Japan with an area of 72.3 square miles and a population of 1,850,000, is the largest commercial center of the Empire, its industrial activities embracing many lines of business. Located at the mouth of the River Yodo and on the coast of Osaka Bay it is interlaced with numerous canals and is known as the city of canals and bridges.

Hotels: Hotel New Osaka, Osaka Hotel, Dōbil Hotel, Takarazuka Hotel.

Osaka Castle, built in 1585 by Toyotomi-Hideyoshi, was one of the greatest and strongest castles in this country. Most of the old structures having been destroyed by fire, there now remain the elevated site and two deep moats with stately stone walls. The huge donjon has recently been rebuilt on the former site to revive the old glory of the castle.

Tennoji, or Shi-Tennoji, a temple founded in the 6th century, is noted for its architecture. From Tennoji, Sumiyoshi Shrine can be reached in 20 min. by electric railway.

Dōtombori and Sennichi-mae, near Minatomachi Station, are amusement quarters with theaters and other places of entertainment. The **Bunraku Theater**, noted for its historic puppet show, should not be missed. Shinsaibashidori, running north from Dotombori, is the best shopping quarter of the city.

Sumiyoshi and Hamadera Parks, both favorite sea-bathing resorts of Osaka residents, are reached from Namba Station by electric railway running to Wakayama.

Mino-o Park is noted for its landscape beauty, water-falls and colorful foliage in the fall.

Takarazuka, 40 min. by electric railway, is noted for its mineral baths, and the "Paradise Hall," a large theater where operatic and other performances are given by the famous Takarazuka team of girl players.

Mt. Kōyasan, alt. 2,833, 2.5 hours by electric railway from Osaka, is celebrated for the great Buddhist monastery founded in 816 by Kōbō-Daishi. The holy precincts, surrounded by magnificent trees, cover about 24 square miles.

KII PENINSULA

Kii Peninsula, its south-western portion in particular, best reached from Osaka by O.S.K. steamers, or by combined service of railway and motor-

buses, is considered one of the best tourist points in Japan, owing to its mild climate, beautiful coast views, numerous spas, ancient temples and shrines. The **Kumano district** of the peninsula and some of the Yoshino mountains in Nara prefecture have been designated as a National Park.

Nachi Waterfalls, the highest in Japan running down 430 feet, is within easy reach from Katsuura, a pretty seaport. Doro Gorge, on the upper reaches of the River Kumano, is considered the finest of the kind in the country. Reached from Shingu by boat, 28 miles in 3 hours.

YOSHINO-KUMANO NATIONAL PARK

Yoshino and Kumano districts extend over the three prefectures of Nara, Wakayama and Mié and cover an area of 168,560 acres. Yoshino was the seat of the Imperial court for some 60 years, in the 14th century, under the Emperor Godaigo and his successors. It is therefore associated with many romances, heroic and tragic, which make the spot particularly famous. There is, moreover, the surpassing beauty of cherry blossoms which almost entirely cover the valleys and mountain-sides in the season, usually April 10-25. Yoshino is best reached from Osaka by electric railway in 2 hours. Among the peaks of the Yoshino mountain range, Sanjō (Ōminé), Shaka and Bukkyo are most prominent. The first named Ōminé is a sacred mountain with a temple on its summit. To the east of Ōminé stands Mt. Ōdaigahara which affords a wonderfully extensive view, including, on a clear day, even Mt. Fuji about 150 miles to the east. These peaks and historical places attract a vast number of pilgrims and excursionists not only in cherry time but in all other seasons.

Kumano is a sacred region in South Kii Peninsula, embracing the three holy places of Hongū, Shingū and Nachi; the last being noted for the Nachi waterfalls mentioned above. Kumano's claim, however, for its celebrity mainly lies in its attractive scenery; especially of Doro and other gorges, coastal views around Kushimoto, Katsu-ura, etc., and because of its rich vegetation found in the district in profusion, some being found only in the semi-tropical regions. Doro Gorge is situated on the upper reaches of the River Kumano which rises in the Yoshino mountains and

empties into the sea at Shingū. The clearness of its water, fantastic rock formation and mountain scenery combine to display ever-changing views for several miles, the beauty culminating in May and June when azaleas and rhododendrons in bloom on the cliffs are reflected in the liquid mirror below. For about 17 miles upstream from Shingū boats are available. The coastal views of Kumano are of exquisite beauty, especially in the vicinity of Katsu-ura, a picturesque harbor with many islets adorning the mouth. A group of hot springs around Katsu-ura Bay is comfortably reached by motor-boat from the pier. Kumano is not so conveniently situated as Yoshino, but the well-accommodated steamers of O.S.K. will take one comfortably from Osaka to Katsu-ura in less than 15 hours.

KOBÉ

Kobé, the sixth largest city in Japan with a population of over 967,000, situated on the Inland Sea and landlocked by the Rokkō hills at the back, is one of the two greatest trade ports of the country. Kobé is also a travel center, railway and steamer services radiating from it in every direction. All the wares of the Orient can be purchased here.

Hotels: Oriental Hotel, Tor Hotel, Kōshien Hotel.

Suwayama Park, on the hillside close to the Tor Hotel, is sometimes called "Venus Hill", from the story that a Frenchman in 1873 made observations of the transit of Venus at this spot.

Nunobiki Waterfalls, the celebrated twin falls located in a thickly wooded hill, are favorite objectives of the citizens' outings.

Ikuta Shrine, near Sannomiya Station, is said to have been founded by the Empress Jingō in the 3rd century.

Minatogawa Shrine, near Kobé Station, dedicated to Kusunoki-Masashigé, a loyal hero of the 14th century.

Mt. Rokkō, alt. 3,062 ft., reached from Kobé by one hour's drive, or by cable line or ropeway from the foot, is a favorite summer resort for foreign residents of Kobé, many of whom have cottages there.

Arima, a well-known hot-spring resort, is reached in about 1.5 hours by motor-car through strikingly beautiful scenery via Mt. Rokkō, or directly from

Kobé by electric railway in 45 minutes. Arima is of great antiquity and has a delightful location. Various kinds of mineral water are noted for their medical efficacy.

Suma, Maiko and Akashi. A delightful motor trip can be made to these seaside resorts over a splendid road. They are charmingly situated along the Inland Sea with fine sand beaches and parks embowered in aged pine trees.

INLAND SEA

(Séto Naikai)

The Inland Sea, or Séto Naikai in Japanese, extending for about 230 miles along the south-western coast of the Main Island, from Kobé to Shimonoseki, is dotted with 950 islands of all shapes and sizes, and the seascape view is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. The sea varies 8 to 40 miles in width in between the Main Island and Shikoku Island or Kyushu Island. On a bright day, the daylight steamer trip through it from Kobé is a memorable event. Another worthwhile trip is on board special steamers from Osaka to Beppu Spa in Kyushu. Most of the trans-Pacific liners cross the sea. Occasional glimpses of its beauty can be seen from the trains running between Kobé and Shimonoseki. The district extending from Shōdoshima Island on the east to Tomo and Tadotsu on the west, in which are many beauty spots, has been selected as a National Park.

Okayama Among many cities and towns on Sanyo Main Line from Kobé to Shimonoseki, Okayama is particularly noted for its castle and historic landscape garden, the Kōrakuen. Okayama has been the educational center in the district west of Kyoto since feudal days. On the way from Kobé to Okayama, another castle must not be missed. It is the Hakuro Castle, or Snowy Heron Castle, of Himeji, which has a singular beauty of its own among the Japanese castles.

Hiroshima is the largest city in this part of the Main Island; its beautiful landscape garden, the Sentel, owned by Marquis Asano, is open to the public.

SHIKOKU ISLAND

Shikoku, one of the four greatest islands of Japan Proper, has many places of interest, including Ritsurin Park at Takamatsu, an attractive landscape

garden; Yashima, off which a great naval battle was fought between the Taira and Minamoto clans in the 12th century, Kotohira Shrine, venerated by the seafaring people; all lying in or not far from Takamatsu which is reached by steamer from Uno, a short railway ride from Okayama on the opposite coast. Dōgo Hot Springs are reached by steamer from Onomichi or from Ujina, near Hiroshima, to Takahama, thence 6 miles by railway and electric tram, or directly from Takamatsu by rail.

MIYAJIMA

Miyajima, or Shrine Island, one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan", is considered one of the most beautiful shrine sites in Japan, and reached by ferry from Miyajima Station. It is widely known for its Itsukushima Shrine which at high tide appears to float upon the water, for its singular torii in the sea, and for the crimson richness of its maple foliage in the autumn. With its cool nights, sea-bathing, delightful sylvan walks and retreats, abundant pines, good drinking water, disintegrated granite soil and untilled land, the island is an ideal summer resort.

The Shrine, an open square in shape, is a unique sight at night when its lanterns are lighted. Kagura, or sacred dances, are performed by shrine maidens for a stipulated offering to the shrine. Tame deer wander freely about the precinct. Senjō-kaku is a time-worn building dedicated to the shrine by Toyotomi-Hideyoshi in the 16th century, who is said to have built the structure out of the wood of a single camphor tree. Mt. Misen, the highest point on the island, is easily climbed in less than 2 hours. From the top there is a splendid view of the Inland Sea. Circuit of the island by motor launch in about 2 hours is an interesting excursion.

Hotel: Miyajima Hotel.

SHIMONOSEKI

Shimonoseki, situated at the western end of the Inland Sea and the Main Island, is the gateway through which the majority of travelers from the Asian continent enter Japan via Fusan in Chosen. It is an important railway and steamer center, being the terminal of the Main Island system of railways along both the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts, and the terminal or port of call for many steamship lines, including the State Railway steamer service to

Fusan. A frequent ferry service is operated between Shimonoseki and Moji, 2 miles in 15 minutes.

Hotel: Sanyō Hotel, located on the station premises.

Akamagō, a shrine dedicated to the infant Emperor, Antoku, who drowned in the desperate sea-fight between the Minamoto and Taira clans off Dannoura in 1185. Dannoura, is the left beach along the shore.

Chōmon-kyo Valley, 2.5 hours by the Sanyo Line, changing cars at Ogōri, is celebrated for its scenic beauty, peculiarly shaped peaks, fantastic rocks, ravines and tumbling streams.

Shūhōdō, 18 miles from Ogōri, is the second largest stalactite cave in the world to be fully 1.2 miles long.

KYŪSHŪ

Kyūshū, the westernmost of the four large islands forming Japan Proper, was the first to be settled by the Japanese race, and contains much that is of historic interest.

Off Hakata, now a part of the city of Fukuoka, the great Mongol fleet sent by Kublai Khan in 1281 to subjugate Japan was completely defeated, civilization in the Asiatic continent entered into Japan through Hirato and Hakata in North Kyushu in olden times, while Western civilization gradually filtered into Japan through Nagasaki in South Kyushu for several hundred years down to the restoration of 1868. In North Kyushu are the largest coal mines in Japan. Some of the Kyushu hot-springs Unzōn, Obama, Aso, Beppu, Kirishima, etc., are visited by many foreigners resident in China and other overseas countries.

Moji. Together with its sister city, Shimonoséki on the opposite side of the channel, Moji is a most important travel center, being an open port for steamship lines and the terminal of railway lines on Kyūshū Island. The expansion of the coal mining industry in the island assisted its growth, and together with Wakamatsu and other neighboring cities, Moji constitutes the largest manufacturing center in Kyūshū.

Fukuoka, the largest city in Kyūshū, 2 hours from Moji by rail, lies on the head of Hakata Bay. Hakata now forming a part of the city is the oldest port for foreign trade in Japan. The city is the center of the famous Hakata silk

weaving industry and the manufacture of Hakata dolls. Sumiyoshi Shrine, Ōhori Park, the site of Lord Kuroda's castle in the park, etc. are places of interest in the city. The site of Dazafu, or the government seat of Kyushu of old, famous for its connection with the loyalist scholar Sugawara-Michizané, may be visited by motor-bus from Futsukaichi southeast of Fukuoka, on the Kyūshū Line.

Kumamoto, 2.5 hours from Fukuoka to the south, or 4 hours from Kagoshima to the north by rail, is one of the oldest castle cities in Kyūshū. The Kumamoto Castle was built by Katō-Kiyomasa, one of the most powerful generals under Toyotomi-Hideyoshi, in 1601-1607. It is the castle which the Major-General Tani-Tateki of the Imperial Army defended in a deadly battle against the sieze by the forces of General Saigo in the Southwestern Civil War in 1877. Other places of interest are Hanaoka Hill noted for its connections with the history of the Protestant Church in Japan, the Udo castle, the Katō Shrine, the Honmyō Temple, the small, but beautiful Suizenji Park, 3 miles by electric car from Kumamoto, etc.

NAGASAKI

From Moji, 150 miles, express 5 hours; reached also from Kōbé by N.Y.K. express steamers of the Kōbē-Shanghai service—a charming daylight trip through the Inland Sea each way. Hotel: Hotel du Japon.

Nagasaki has the distinction of being the first port of the Empire to be opened to foreign trade, being one of the best harbors in the country. It is the first port of call in Japan for steamers from Australia and China, and overland travelers leave their ships here. The city is famous for its annual fêtes: Suwa Shrine Festival, October 7-9, Bon-matsuri, or all souls' day, July 13-15, and Hata-agé, the kite-flying festival, held for several days in April.

Suwa Park, the Commercial Museum and Suwa Shrine, adjoining the park, are to be visited. The Catholic Cathedral at Urakami is the largest in Japan and contains many relics associated with the Christian persecution in the 17th century.

Among the many delightful trips in the vicinity are those to the waterfalls of Takino-Kwannon, to Mogi, a seaside

town on Chijiwa Bay, to Michino-o, a little spa much resorted to by Nagasaki folk, and to Obama, a well-known hot-spring resort at the foot of Unzén.

UNZEN

The renowned sulphide hot-springs of Unzén, alt. 2,400 ft., discovered in 1661, annually attract many foreigners and Japanese. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyūshū and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in May, its tinted foliage in the fall, and for its celebrated Silver Thaw in winter when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice. The Unzén district has been selected as a National Park.

Hotels: Kyūshū Hotel, Yūméi Hotel, Shinyu Hotel, Unzen Hotel, Midoriya Hotel, Takaki Hotel, Unzén Kanko Hotel.

Access: From Nagasaki, rail to Isahaya and thence by motor-bus to Unzén via Obama, or by motor-car all the way from Nagasaki. From Kumamoto, rail to Misumi, steamer connection to Shimabara, thence motor-car or bus to Unzén.

BEPPU

Natural hot water is so abundant at Beppu that it is provided at the railway station for travelers' hand-washing, and besides baths in many private houses, bathing facilities are installed in almost every school, police station, and even in the prison. Extraordinary sights are the ten or more solfataras or pools of boiling water in the district which bubble and steam. The sand baths are also renowned for their miraculous cures.

Hotel: Kaménoi Hotel, and Japanese inns.

Besides the hot-springs in the city of Beppu there are six spas in the district. The largest pools of boiling water, popularly called Jigoku, or Hell, are Umi, Chinoiké, Bōzu, Hachiman and Kōya.

Yabakéi is known for its fantastic rocky heights and varied vegetation, which, with the meandering stream, form gardens of striking beauty. Train, Beppu to Nakatsu, 43 miles, change to Rakanji, 10 miles, thence bus, ricksha or on foot for the views.

MT. ASO

Mt. Aso, alt. 5,238 ft., recently selected as a National Park, is a general name for 5 volcanic peaks, of which

Nakadaké is active. Its original crater, over 70 miles in circumference, is the largest in the world. The shortest and easiest ascent is made from Bôchû on the Ôita-Kumamoto Line, thence motor-bus to the summit. Other routes are via the Kagoshima Main Line and from Nagasaki. The trip to Mt. Aso, with its wonderful active crater, the hot-springs in the district and natural beauty in the valleys, will live long in the memory.

KAGOSHIMA

From Moji, 248.5 miles, express 8 hours; from Beppu, may be reached by railway running for the most part along the east coast of Kyûshû Island.

Kagoshima, the picturesque southernmost city of Kyûshû, is noted as the birthplace of Takamori Saigô and many other statesmen, generals and admirals renowned in the modern history of the nation. The city and vicinity produce the famous Satsuma porcelain.

Sakurajima, a volcano in Kagoshima Bay, once an island but now a peninsula, is reached in 30 minutes from the city.

MT. KIRISHIMA

Mt. Kirishima is a collective name for the two volcanic peaks, Takachiho and Karakuni, facing each other. In the vast area around the peaks, selected as a National Park, are found all the features of volcanic mountain scenery; wonderful craters, lakes, cascades, forests, hot-springs, rare trees and flowers. These peaks have associations linked with the dawn of the Empire. Kirishima hot-springs are 9.7 miles from Makizono Station, 29 miles from Kagoshima.

TAIWAN (Formosa)

The foremost port of the island is Keelung, 990 miles from Kôbé, thrice weekly steamer service via Moji being maintained by the O.S.K. and other steamships.

Taihoku, 18 miles from Keelung, the seat of the Government-General, is the political and economic center of the island. Among places of interest are the Museum, Botanical Garden, Central Research Institute, Taihoku Imperial University, the Market and the Taiwan Shrine dedicated to Prince Kitashirakawa.

Hotel: Taiwan Railway Hotel.

Hokuto and Sozan are delightful spas in the vicinity of Taihoku.

Jitsugétsutan, a beautiful mountain lake, 10 miles in circumference, is best reached from Gaishatéi on the Shushu Line.

Mt. Niitaka, or Mt. Morrison, is the highest mountain in Japan with an altitude of 13,000 feet.

At Kagi, the center of the sugar industry in Taiwan, is handled a large quantity of timber from Mt. Arisan. 21.8 miles by train from Kagi. The heart of the mountain is Numano-taira, alt. 7,500 ft., a favorite resort of foreign visitors. The ascent of Arisan, with its scenic grandeur, is quite enjoyable.

CHÔSEN (Korea)

Fusan, a thriving seaport, is the southern entrance to Chôsen.

Tôrai is the finest hot-spring resort in the peninsula and is reached from Fusan in half an hour by motor-car.

Kaiundai, not far from Tôrai, is a delightful seaside resort.

Taihyû is a flourishing commercial and industrial city. Exceptionally interesting is a big fair held in spring and autumn, when the city is thronged by tens of thousands of people from neighboring districts.

Kéishû had its glorious days over 1,000 years ago as the capital of Shiragi, the most powerful of the three kingdoms of Korea. Today, the pagodas, mausolea of kings and other historic edifices are of antiquarian interest. Bukkokujû, 7 miles by rail from Kéishû, is an ancient Buddhist temple noted for its architectural beauty. Sekkutsuan, the "Cave Temple", on the hill at the rear of Bukkokujû, contains many stone images of Buddha, masterpieces of the Shiragi period.

Keijo, or Seoul, is the seat of the Government-General. Flourished as the capital of Yi Kings for over 5 centuries, the city has many places of historic interest. Keifuku-kyû Palace has many magnificent buildings such as the Hall of Administration, the Audience Hall and the Banquet Hall. Pagoda Park is a charming little park on the north side of Shôro Street. Shotoku-kyû Palace, in the northeast of the city, is the private residence of Prince Yi. The beautiful gardens in the residence, and

the Botanical Garden, the Zoological Garden and the Museum, in the adjacent enclosure, are worth a visit. Nansan Park is a pineclad hill on the southern city boundary, where stands the Chosen Shrine, a memorial shrine dedicated to Emperor Meiji.

Hotel: Chosen Hotel.

Kaijō, an important town between Kéijō and Héijō, is the producing center of ginseng. The city was the metropolis of the Koral, or Kouli, Kingdom for nearly five hundred years until 1393.

Héijō is the second largest and most picturesque city and the industrial and religious center in Chosen. Chinnampo is the nearest port to Héijō, at the mouth of the Daidō. Those who have an archaeological interest will be repaid by a visit to the old Kōsél tomb and the Rakurō ruins, both near the city.

Kongo-san, or Diamond Mountains, is situated in Kōgén province near the eastern coast and is part of the great mountain range forming the backbone of the peninsula. The mountain, about 50 miles in circumference, consists of a large cluster of countless rocky peaks reputed from of old to number "twelve thousand." All the peaks are very

rugged and fantastic in form, towering sharply into the sky from a wild growth of primeval sylvan vegetation below, and embrace numerous ravines and canyon through which run crystal waters amid huge rocks of grotesque shape.

The mountains are divided into three sections. The western side facing inland is called Inner Kongō, the eastern side looking toward the sea Outer Kongō, while the extension jutting into the sea in broken masses near Kōjō is known as Sea Kongō.

The mountains have been famous in Chinese literature for nearly 2,000 years, though their history has only been known since the arrival of the 33 sages who settled at Yūtenji in the 4th century, which temple still retains the title of principal monastery and is indeed still the largest. The name Kongō is taken from the Buddhist "Diamond Sutra," the gospel most read in Far Eastern Buddhism.

The routes to Kongōsan are: To Outer Kongō, Kéijō to Sotokongo via Anpen by rail, 193 miles. To Inner Kongō, Kéijō to Chōganji via Tetsugen by rail, 140 miles. The best season to visit there is from May 1 to October 31, during which period the hotels, motor-bus, etc. are operated.

TOURIST INDUSTRY

The tourist industry in Japan may be classified under the following three heads:

1. Publicity
2. Tourist accommodation
3. Handling of tourists

By publicity is meant the making known abroad of various features Japan possesses, which are attractive to prospective tourists in foreign parts, so as to induce their travel to this country.

In the inducement of foreign tourists, the first thing to be done is the development and improvement of tourist points. Though well favored by nature and enjoying modern accommodation, a tourist point will fail to attract foreign tourists unless it has adequate special provision for them. Means of transit must also be improved to facilitate access to tourist points. Again, hotel accommodation at tourist points and elsewhere has to be amplified and made more efficient. The improvement of

these provisions covers an extensive scope and involves various activities. And the carrying out of the improvement has an important bearing on the inducement of foreign tourists.

By "handling" is meant direct service to foreign tourists. It is one of the important points in the inducement of foreign tourists that people in general should treat them in a spirit of hospitality so that they may forget that they are strangers in a strange land.

The Board of Tourist Industry of the Government Railways frames the fundamental policy for the guidance, direction and support of the triple activities of the tourist industry. This central tourist organization forms part of the Government Railways for practical convenience. For the full functioning of the central organization the Kokusai Kwanko Inkai (a Committee for the Tourist Industry), has been organized with persons prominent in the public eye as its members. There are

organizations that act as executives for the Board of Tourist Industry. Publicity work is assigned to the Kokusai Kanko Kyokai (Japan Travel Publicity Association), while the work of affording travel facilities is in the hands of the To-A (East Asia) Tourist Bureau, formerly known as the Japan Tourist Bureau.

Thus, in the three sister organizations, the Kanko Kyokai takes charge of the work of general publicity; the To-A Tourist Bureau, the work of affording travel facilities; and the Board of Tourist Industry, the work of direction, control, and support of the tourist trade. With a view to the harmonious and efficient working of the three organs, the director of the Board of Tourist Industry is at the same time a director of the Kanko Kyokai and also of the To-A Tourist Bureau, while the managing director of the To-A Tourist Bureau is also a director of the Kanko Kyokai, and connected with the committee for Tourist Industry in the capacity of an executive secretary.

The To-A Tourist Bureau organized

in March 1912, is a juridical person, maintained by a fund contributed by its members, about 180 all told, including the Government Railways, the principal private railway companies, shipping companies, automobile companies, cities and towns, chambers of commerce and industry, tourist associations, hotels, theaters, banks, and firms. The business is conducted by officials selected from among the members, as well as by the Bureau's employees.

The headquarters are at Marunouchi 1-chome, Kojimachi, Tokyo and in front of Kanda Station with branches in Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima, Moji, Niigata, Sendai, Sapporo, Keijo, Mukden and Taihoku. Besides these are 57 offices in the principal cities of Japan proper (including four summer offices), 13 in Chosen, four in Taiwan, 35 in Manchoukuo, and 21 in China. It also has offices in Los Angeles, New York, Paris, London, Hongkong, and Manila. In addition to these are 29 agencies scattered through the chief cities in Europe and America.

FOREIGNER'S ENTRY TO JAPAN

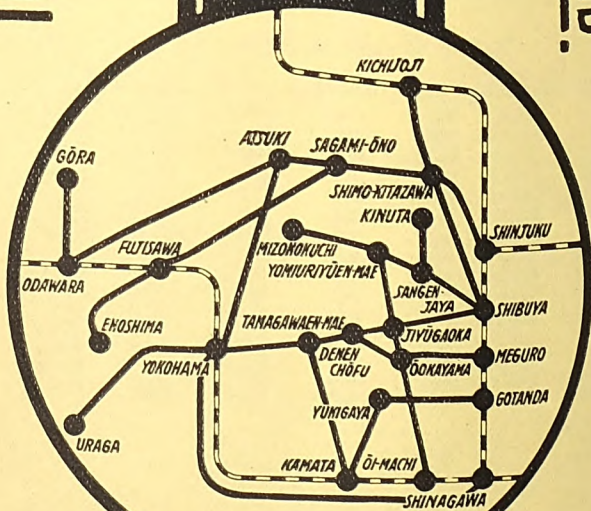
Year	British	American	German	French	Russian	Chinese	Others	Total
1912	2,411	3,382	1,087	375	2,120	5,502	587	15,964
1916	3,604	4,225	9	242	4,803	6,236	759	19,908
1921	2,857	3,772	363	245	2,983	13,082	1,839	25,041
1926	3,624	6,704	536	429	849	10,977	1,587	24,706
1930	3,705	7,586	746	378	1,139	14,160	1,888	29,605
1931	3,103	6,739	735	457	851	8,866	1,841	22,492
1932	3,586	5,075	697	496	963	7,039	2,220	20,076
1933	5,515	6,091	1,154	705	1,060	8,167	3,766	26,455
1934	6,882	8,030	1,325	939	1,315	10,499	6,208	35,198
1935	7,293	9,111	1,523	894	1,280	14,260	8,268	42,629
1936	6,992	9,655	1,446	920	1,315	11,398	10,842	42,568
1937	6,097	10,077	1,816	882	1,562	8,275	11,593	40,302
1938	3,209	5,148	1,861	511	1,648	4,021	11,674	28,072
1939	4,012	6,711	2,585	532	157	7,325	15,922	37,244
1940	3,189	5,983	5,442	550	444	9,963	17,859	43,433

CHAPTER XXXVIII

T O K Y O

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CHAPTER XXXVIII

TOKYO

Historical Sketch

In 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto (See Chapter III, Kamakura Period) established a military régime at Kamakura, 56.33 kilometers south-west of the present Tokyo, and it was at this period that the name of Yedo was recorded in the report of a local war in which a son of Lord Shiro Kanetsugu Yedo took part, and the name seems to have been given before he became the lord of the district. Yedo literally means "entrance to the gulf."

After the fall of the Yedo family the district was occupied by a feudal lord called Sadamasa Uyesugi; and Dokan Ohta, one of his retainers, discovering the strategic importance of Yedo constructed the Yedo castle which was completed in 1457. After changing hands a few times, it fell, in 1590, into the possession of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, who settled down there to be the over-lord of the eight provinces of Kanto. From that time it gradually expanded until it became not only the capital of Kanto but the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate during 15 generations. During the 268 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate the obscure village of Yedo became a thriving town and it is said that 2 million people lived there in the height of its prosperity in the Bunsel (1818-1830) and Tempo (1830-1844) eras.

In 1869 the Emperor Meiji transferred the Imperial capital to Yedo and renamed it Tokyo, or Eastern Capital. Then came still further growth and prosperity. Contact had just been made with Western countries and as Tokyo was serving as the gateway for Western civilization much attention was given to building the city on modern lines.

The 50 years of Tokyo culture met with a terrible catastrophe in September 1923, when earthquake and fire, unprecedented in history, dealt the city an almost fatal blow. Nearly one-half of the entire city was completely reduced to ashes. But with hard work and the enthusiastic support of the whole country and the citizens of Tokyo, as well as the sympathy of the world, a new

and better Tokyo has arisen from the ashes in but a decade.

Location and Climate

Tokyo is situated at the south-east corner of Kanto plain in 35° 31' 59"—48° 50" N. latitude, 139° 33' 56"—55° 22" E. longitude. The climate of the city is generally mild; the annual mean temperature is 13° 9' C (57° F); the mean temperature in July is 24° 2' C (75° 5' F), in January 3° 1' C (37° 5' F); the annual average precipitation is 1,555 mm.

Population and Area

Growth of Population According to the 1940 census the population of Tokyo was 6,778,804 at the time when the census was taken on October 1. It increased 903,137 or 14.6 per cent during past 5 years, and represents 9.2 per cent of the total population in Japan proper.

Year	Population	Household
1878	813,400	235,943
1888	1,298,661	287,833
1898	1,425,366	316,527
1908	1,626,103	376,428
1920 (census)	2,173,200	456,816
1923 ¹	1,527,489	340,278
1924	1,926,310	417,833
1925 (census)	1,995,567	429,852
1930 (census)	2,070,913	414,710
1931	2,103,880	421,620
1932	5,314,700	1,112,640
1933	5,495,460	1,138,470
1934	5,682,370	1,164,890
1935 (census)	5,875,667	1,191,939
1936	6,025,800	1,236,500
1937	6,274,000	1,275,800
1938	6,457,600	1,313,400
1939	6,581,100	1,339,100
1940 (census)	6,778,804	—

1 Earthquake year.

Buildings and Dwelling Houses At the end of 1938 there were 1,057,921 buildings and dwelling houses in the city, of which dwelling houses numbered 692,751, shops 223,552, governmental

offices 8,924, and schools and libraries 6,078.

Area The total area of the city of Tokyo in January 1939, was 535,668 square kilometers. The classified ownership in January 1939, follows:

Ownership	Area (In square kilometers)
Total	535,668
Imperial household	6,397
State	78,795
Tokyo prefecture	1,161
City	14,617
Private persons	434,695

Tokyo Enlarged

The development of modern Tokyo is best endorsed by the giant growth of the adjoining towns and villages.

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 32 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000, within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enormous difficulties due to the existence of over

80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great cities, a large number of people living in adjoining towns enter the city to earn their living. They are placed on exactly the same footing with the citizens in so far as the utilization of metropolitan facilities is concerned. Besides, as most of them are salaried men belonging to middle or intelligent class, to let them stand aloof from city government means an enormous loss to both.

It was after taking into careful consideration all these practical phases of administration that in October 1932, new Tokyo was founded by amalgamating 20 more wards. The newly annexed suburban towns then had 3,211,580 inhabitants and 469,029 sq. km., a density of 9,034 persons to the square kilometer.

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 570,337 square kilometers divided into 35 wards.

Commerce and Industry

Retail Business At the end of July 1939, the number of retail shops in the city was 156,831. Sweetmeats shops numbered 14,887, rice shops 7,768 and vegetables and fruits shops 6,536. Retail price index numbers based on the prices of December 16, 1929, as 100 follow:

RETAIL PRICE INDEX NUMBER IN TOKYO

(Of 100 Kinds of Commodities)
(The average retail price on Dec. 16, 1929 taken as 100)

	Foodstuffs	Clothing, etc.	Fuel	Building Materials	Miscel- laneous	Gross Average for Tokyo	Average for 13 Cities
1935	90.0	87.7	92.3	100.7	89.7	90.4	90.5
1936	96.2	89.5	93.4	103.9	89.2	94.5	94.8
1937	98.1	105.8	108.6	147.7	105.4	104.7	104.2
1938	110.3	135.5	124.6	179.1	125.2	122.9	121.0
1939	125.2	148.9	125.6	174.3	135.6	133.8	138.7
1940	—	—	—	—	—	157.6	162.2

Wholesale Price The wholesale average price index number for 100 kinds of commodities in 1940 was 173.1 against

100 of the average wholesale price index of December 1929. Below are given detailed figures:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX NUMBER

	Food- stuffs	Textile Goods	Metals	Building Materials	Chem- icals	Fertili- zers	Fuel	Miscel- lane- ous	Aggre- gate Aver- age in Tokyo	Aver- age in 13 Cities
1935	96.0	96.6	109.2	93.0	87.0	99.3	90.1	115.9	98.7	97.4
1936	103.0	98.8	114.8	96.1	72.3	103.8	93.9	118.0	102.3	101.2

	Food-stuffs	Textile Goods	Metals	Building Materials	Chemicals	Fertilizers	Fuel	Miscellaneous	Aggregate average in Tokyo	Average in 13 Cities
1937	107.4	117.4	193.7	122.5	97.0	126.5	114.3	158.8	128.2	123.8
1938	116.1	135.7	227.8	137.3	127.0	132.0	140.9	163.9	145.1	140.2
1939	141.1	134.8	192.0	166.6	123.0	164.8	145.1	167.5	153.9	153.7
1940	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	173.1	165.2

Banks At the end of 1938 there were 24 banks domiciled in Tokyo and 331 branch offices. Three were special banks, i.e. semi-governmental banks. The number of ordinary commercial banks was 16, with 259 branches in the city. Savings banks numbered 5 with 65 branches. The aggregate capital of the special banks was ¥250,920,000 of which the amount paid up was ¥211,796,062. The aggregate of deposits was ¥985,521,000 and the aggregate amount of advances and discounts was ¥2,902,988,000. The aggregate capital of the ordinary banks was ¥510,488,500, the amount paid up was ¥341,147,000, deposits ¥6,615,213,000 and advances and discounts totalled ¥4,203,631,000. The aggregate capital of savings banks was ¥15,535,000 of which ¥11,922,500 was the total sum paid up, deposits ¥1,238,589,000 and advances ¥171,783,000. In 1937 there were 95 branches of banks domiciled in other cities, and the total number of banks and branches in the city was 355, with aggregate deposits of ¥4,695,687,698 and advances of ¥3,333,170,808.

Industry At the end of 1938 there were, in Tokyo, 30,154 small working shops, where less than 5 operatives were employed, with 48,240 workers, and 15,419 factories, where more than 5 operatives were employed, with 482,939 workers.

FACTORIES IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1938)

Kind of Industry	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Textile	2,490	39,513	189,563,000
Metallic	6,127	81,331	731,546,000
Machine and Tool	9,195	238,123	1,153,492,000
Ceramics	769	10,123	32,316,000
Chemical	2,354	50,963	603,614,000
Sawing and Wood-work	3,200	13,817	52,603,000
Printing and Book-binding	3,243	29,031	136,679,000
Foodstuff	13,935	23,590	245,653,000

Kind of Industry	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Gas and Electric	4	737	14,062,000
Others	4,256	43,951	168,376,000
Total	45,573	531,179	3,327,907,000

Companies At the end of 1938 there were 18,239 companies in Tokyo, with an aggregate capital of ¥14,954,279,000.

COMPANIES IN TOKYO CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

(At the end of 1938)

Industry	Number	Aggregate Capital (In Yen)
Agriculture	115	116,178,000
Aquatic	27	196,170,000
Mining	511	1,759,919,000
Manufacturing	7,445	7,542,091,000
Commercial and Banking	9,654	4,516,915,000
Traffic	487	823,007,000
Total	18,239	14,954,279,000

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total mileage of public roads in the city was 8,710,055 meters covering an area of 51,210,737 square meters or 8 per cent of the total city area.

Railway Service In the fiscal year 1937, ending March 31, 1938 there were in aggregate 446,803,432 boarding passengers and 444,279,442 alighting passengers at 65 different governmental railway stations in the city, and the earnings in these 65 stations totalled ¥66,717,384 which was ¥6,893,886 more than in the previous year. The business results of 15 private railway companies in the year under review, exclusive of their bus services, were: the aggregate number of passengers, 331,221,292 and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥21,475,607, and the total length of lines in operation 235.9 kilometers.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF STATE RAILWAYS FOR TOKYO

Fiscal Year	Stations	Passengers who got in	Passengers who got off	Earnings (In Yen)
1932	63	335,659,845	334,105,799	47,353,680
1933	66	359,549,090	357,644,525	51,364,964
1934	65	374,591,543	373,084,109	54,050,989
1935	65	394,021,234	393,414,451	56,503,686
1936	65	420,627,220	419,349,144	59,823,498
1937	65	446,803,432	444,279,442	66,717,384

Tramway Service The business results of municipal tramways in the fiscal year ending March 31, 1938 over the average daily mileage of 352.742 kilometers were: the total number of pas-

sengers, 402,704,000 or 68,040,311 more than in the previous year and the aggregate amount of earnings ¥23,839,000, a gain of ¥3,801,863 as compared with the previous year.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF THE MUNICIPAL TRAMWAYS

Year	Passengers	Daily Average	Fees (In Yen)	Daily Average
1934	287,459,000	789,000	18,024,000	49,381
1935	294,189,758	803,000	18,475,817	50,479
1936	309,841,146	848,880	19,079,203	52,272
1937	334,663,689	916,887	20,037,037	54,895
1938	402,704,000	1,103,000	23,839,000	65,211
1939	451,656,000	1,234,000	26,654,000	72,827
1940	507,526,000	1,390,000	30,031,000	82,278

Motor Bus Motor bus service in the city is being rendered by 36 firms be-

sides the Municipal Bus Service and Tokyo Bus Company.

BUS SERVICE IN TOKYO

(1937-38)

	Mileage in K.M.	No. of Buses	Passengers	Fees (in Yen)
Municipal	192.4	1,032	109,311,909	6,995,779
Tokyo Bus	67.0	553	77,429,625	4,714,143
Others	876.2	1,272	162,476,369	9,533,783
Total	1,135.2	2,857	349,217,903	21,243,705

Underground Railway The urgent need of a high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic has long been felt necessary. A private company opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very center of the city to Shinagawa. It completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometers. The construction of the underground railway between Shibuya and Shimbashi was completed in the spring of 1939 by the hand of the Tokyo High Speed Railway Company and the traffic

was opened on April 1, the mileage of the new tube is over 6 kilometers.

Bridges The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 239 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the cooperation of the Reconstruction Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of March 1937, there were 5,193 bridges in Tokyo, 1,126 of which were of stone, 469 concrete, 1,061 reinforced concrete,

537 iron, 5 iron and wood, and 1,990 wood.

Rivers and Canals The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. At the end of 1933 there were 65 rivers with the total length of 85 kilometers.

Harbor At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April 1935. The length of

the reinforced concrete Hinode-cho pier is 564 meters and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 meters and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbor is 8,591 square kilometers. Steamers outgoing from and incoming to Tokyo and goods carried out from and into Tokyo follow:

INCOMING OF VESSELS IN TOKYO HARBOR

(In 1937)

Kind	Number	Tonnage
Steamers	17,854	6,649,578
Sailing Vessels	250	22,061
Total	18,104	6,671,639

GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

(In metric tons)

Outgoing Goods

Year	By Railways	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	2,647,049	102,415	61,960	2,811,424
1934	2,967,012	105,437	64,874	3,137,323
1935	3,385,452	62,773	69,002	3,517,227
1936	3,583,885	1,634,327	95,330	5,313,542
1937	3,815,000	—	131,000	3,846,000

Incoming Goods

Year	By Railways	By Steamers	Through Rivers	Total
1933	6,342,816	58,675	57,306	6,458,797
1934	6,573,974	90,054	79,642	6,743,670
1935	6,614,397	55,619	81,844	6,751,860
1936	7,380,876	9,086,196	107,409	16,574,481
1937	8,539,000	—	419,000	8,958,000

Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was 20 years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic meters while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic meters. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,324,000 cubic meters. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at

any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic meters. The total number of hydrants in Tokyo in March 1937, was 863,400, and the total quantity of water distributed during 1936-37 was 333,740,073 cu. m. In March 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage

system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

In 1937 there were 594,055 square meters of undergrounds in use for the laying of iron pipes and the aggregate length of iron-pipes laid down was 1,791,092 meters. Moreover, 203,315,911 cubic meters of sewerages were the aggregate volume that were siphoned in the year under review and the water volume disposed of totalled 160,528,573 cubic meters.

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1937)

Area covered in sq. m.	594,055
Length of sewers in m.	1,791,092
Sewerage siphoned in cu. m.	203,315,911
Sewerage disposed in cu. m.	160,528,573
Sewerage washed out in cu. m.	1,474,785

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than

in other cities in Japan because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September 1923.

In January 1938, Tokyo had 143 parks with an area of 3,284 square kilometers.

In the old city area there are three large parks: Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hibiya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000 sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining for the most part elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

Education

In the fiscal year 1937 there were 315 kindergartens in Tokyo of which 124 were in the old city limits. The number of elementary schools was 633, of which 218 were in the old city limits. Schools equivalent to elementary grade numbered 79, of which 44 were in the old city limits; blind, deaf and dumb schools numbered 9; middle schools 53 and girls' high school 78. Various schools of middle grade numbered 32; business and technical schools 139, normal schools 3, young people's schools 258 and various private schools 307. As for higher education there were 2 higher normal schools, 3 business teachers' institutes, 72 professional schools (colleges), 5 higher schools, and 22 universities.

KINDERGARTENS, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1937

	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Graduates
Kindergartens	315	947	19,425	11,896
Elementary schools	633	16,237	790,869	148,227
Elementary evening schools	79	133	6,277	2,124
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	9	189	1,329	294
Middle schools	53	1,452	41,163	6,635
Girls' high schools	78	1,926	53,254	9,539
Other schools of middle school grade	32	556	16,360	2,970
Vocational, business and technical schools	139	2,622	72,078	15,809
Young people's schools	258	356	48,696	15,842
Normal schools	3	103	1,745	548
Various private schools	307	3,502	67,203	42,660
Total	1,996	28,023	1,118,399	56,844

SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

March 1, 1936

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Higher Normal schools	2	156	1,597	417
Temporary teachers' institutes	3	5	282	77
Temporary teachers' institutes	33	5	282	77
Professional schools	72	4,299	54,267	14,658
Higher schools	5	340	3,712	1,019
Universities	22	3,798	47,444	14,491
Total	104	8,598	107,302	30,662

Public Libraries There are 32 libraries in Tokyo, of which 28 are owned by the city, 1 by the Government and the rest by private persons. In the fiscal year 1939 the number of books held in all those libraries was 2,343,015 of which 908,005 were held by the Imperial Library at Ueno and 590,738 by the 28 municipal librareis.

Religion (See p. 839, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Administration and Government

History In July 1868, the Emperor Meiji granted an Imperial message on the proposed removal of the capital to Tokyo. It was the beginning of the regeneration of Tokyo. At the same time the downfall of the Shogunate régime was announced and new Japan was born.

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later these wards were abolished and 15 smaller wards established. In 1879, as the governor of the prefecture saw that these 15 wards were firmly established, he issued a decree concerning the formation and functions of ward assemblies, and thus instituted the first representative government system in this country.

Legislative Body To control municipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with a mayor as the head. Further, there are several

departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term of service being 4 years. The membership at present is 144, but owing to resignation of and death of members, the actual membership at the end of 1934 was 139. The principal functions of the council are the enactment and reorganization of city regulations, decisions as to finance, approval of settled accounts, imposition and collection of city taxes; and the right of proposing any bill, except the budget for annual revenue and expenditure. The board of aldermen of Tokyo once was the executive body, but in 1911 it became a legislative body. It is composed of 15 honorary aldermen to whom the mayor is added as chairman. The functional powers include the right of proposing any bill or expressing opinions on other matters.

Executive From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo prefecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city counsellor, a treasurer, directors of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows:

THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY**Sections**

Private secretariat
Personnel
General secretariat

Functions

Secret matters, keeping of seals, ceremonies and reward
Personnel administration
General affairs, municipal research, elections, legal affairs, etc.

Sections Bureaux	Functions
Supervising	Supervision and inspection of municipal affairs
Finance	Budget, loans, public land, taxation, purchasing, etc.
Industrial	Industry, promotion of industry and commerce, agriculture, fisheries and stock raising
Education	Management of schools; education, libraries, museums, etc.
Social Work	Protection and correction. Management of lodging houses, housing, labor exchanges, commercial training, etc.
Public Health	Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, park and playgrounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.
Water Works	Water supply and extension
Public Works	Roads, bridges, harbors and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.
Electric	Supply of light and power: electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.
Divisions	
Harbor	Care of Tokyo harbor
Municipal Office Building	Building the City Hall at Tsukishima
Miscellaneous	
Central Wholesale Market	Wholesale of provisions
Poor Asylum	Protection of helpless persons, aged or young
Hygiene Laboratory	Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.
Electric Laboratory	Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.

Finance

The 1941-42 municipal budget was ¥406,776,539 for revenue and ¥406,776,539 for expenditure. The following

table shows the settled accounts for 1934-35 to 1936-37 and budgets for the following years. Among the enterprises tramways, bus, gas and water works are included.

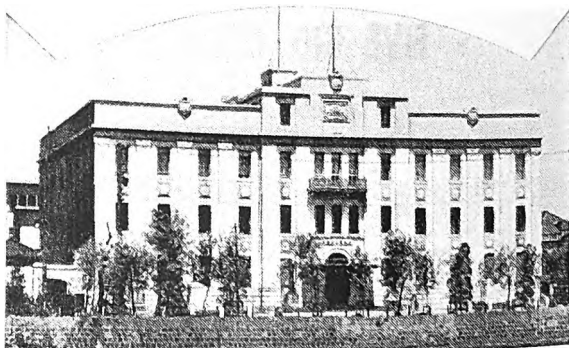
REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF TOKYO

Fiscal Year	(In Yen)			
	Total		Ordinary Account	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1934-35	210,754,644	215,615,254	108,255,864	70,971,473
1935-36	196,497,423	180,086,912	107,457,241	78,877,884
1936-37	221,397,619	210,281,781	104,334,055	78,764,403
1937-38 (Budget)	239,728,780	238,455,096	124,657,897	97,942,072
1938-39 (Budget)	267,408,145	268,301,506	148,717,857	119,281,544
1939-40 (Budget)	256,394,000	256,003,000	132,108,000	101,348,000
1940-41 (Budget)	386,871,230	386,871,230	143,254,000	143,254,000
1941-42 (Budget)	406,776,539	406,776,539	127,440,000	127,440,000
Fiscal Year	Enterprises		Others	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1934-35	94,383,118	89,649,688	8,115,662	54,994,093
1935-36	81,370,835	36,590,431	7,669,347	64,618,597
1936-37	103,684,809	49,474,800	13,378,755	82,042,578
1937-38 (Budget)	97,501,889	61,983,377	17,568,994	78,529,647
1938-39 (Budget)	102,993,656	67,769,892	15,696,632	81,250,070
1939-40 (Budget)	95,114,000	67,783,000	29,172,000	86,872,000
1940-41 (Budget)	243,617,230	243,617,230	—	—
1941-42 (Budget)	279,336,539	279,336,539	—	—

CHAPTER XXXIX
FIVE BIG CITIES

OSAKA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE & INDUSTRY

OSAKA, NIPPON



President: DR. Y. KATAOKA

Vice-President: MR. C. YUKAWA

Vice-President: MR. M. SUGI

Director: MR. K. HAMANO

***The City of Osaka is the Commercial
and Industrial Center of Nippon***

**Enquiries regarding merchandise made in
Osaka will be promptly attended to.**

CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

OSAKA

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka was founded 1,600 years ago and is situated approximately in the center of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains in the valley of the Yodo River. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometers to the northeast, and the city of Kobe lies 32 kilometers to the west. The River Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa, Dojimagawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous

canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

Area The area of the city of Osaka is 187.37 square kilometers which means it ranks third so far as the area is concerned exceeded by Tokyo and Kyoto, but in point of population it is the largest, next only to Tokyo. Its city limits were extended twice in its history, the first time in 1897 and the second in 1925. The city is divided into 15 ku (wards) which are: Kita, Nishi, Minami, Higashi, Konohana, Minato Taisho, Tennoji, Naniwa, Nishiyodogawa, Higashiyodogawa, Higashinari, Asahi, Sumiyoshi, and Nishinari.

Population The census population of Osaka was 3,252,340 on October 1, 1940, an increase of 262,474 or 8.7 per cent over the figures of 1935 census. The comparison of the last 6 years follow:

Population, 1935-1940

October 1,	Men	Women	Total	Households
1935 (Census)	1,594,151	1,395,716	2,989,866	630,232
1936	1,654,900	1,447,000	3,101,900	653,900
1937	1,715,100	1,497,900	3,213,000	677,800
1938	1,773,500	1,547,700	3,321,200	700,100
1939	1,812,900	1,581,300	3,394,200	—
1940 (census)	—	—	3,252,340	—

Each of the 15 ku (wards) is inhabited by a population of more than 100,000, with the Minato-ku 361,400, Higashinari-ku 372,500 and Sumiyoshi-ku, 348,900 among the largest.

The population of Japan could be dividable in 1935 between 22,666,307 (32.7%) of urban districts and 46,587,841 (67.3%) of rural districts and the population of Osaka was 13.2% of the entire urban population.

In 1938 births numbered 76,919 (23.2 per 1,000 of population) of which 39,649 were male and 37,270 female, a decrease of 10,225 (11.7%) and of 3.9% in the rate of birth in comparison with the previous year. In the same year deaths numbered 48,735 (14.7 per 1,000

of population) of which 26,103 were male and 22,632 female.

In the same year still-births totalled 5,075 (1.53 per 1,000 of population) of which male numbered 2,754 and female 2,228.

As for the causes of deaths, 96.4% were illness and 1.2% suicide. Of the diseases 13.0% were pneumonia and 12.8% tuberculosis.

Residents from Overseas Territories and Foreign Countries. Chosenese residing in Osaka at the end of 1937 were 234,188 (137,250 being men and 96,938 women), an increase of 9,439 over 1936. Taiwanese numbered 263 (173 being men and 95 women). Foreign nationals in 1939 run as follows: Man-

choukuo 93; China 2,207; British India 21; the United States 80; and others 96; totalling 2,498 and Chinese occupying 88%.

Industries

Osaka is an important industrial and

commercial center in Japan surpassed only by Tokyo excelling the latter in many respects. The aggregate 1938 production in all factories, excluding those where less than 5 operatives are employed, was valued at ¥2,541,680,000. Further particulars follow:

FACTORIES IN OSAKA AT THE END OF 1938

Principal Industries	No. of Factories	No. of Employees	Production (in ¥1,000)
Textile	1,591	25,879	189,025
Metallurgical	2,879	74,823	959,395
Machinery	4,013	102,395	617,688
Ceramics	371	13,370	53,113
Chemical	1,005	28,205	297,843
Milling and wood work	1,007	9,081	45,158
Printing and book binding	785	11,048	45,158
Foodstuffs	1,013	11,318	87,960
Gas and electric work	10	1,025	—
Miscellaneous	3,003	29,655	123,739
Total	15,677	316,799	2,541,680

Commerce

Business Companies At the end of 1939 there were 9,462 business companies domiciled in Osaka, an increase of 222 from the previous year. The aggregate paid-up capital amounted to ¥4,142,320,000 against ¥3,770,509,000 of the previous year, an increase of ¥371,811,000. Of these companies 4,689 (49 %) were commercial companies and 4,196 (44%) industrial companies.

Banks At the end of 1938 there were 8 banks domiciled in Osaka, and 95 banks domiciled in cities other than Osaka were found represented in the city by their branches. The aggregate paid-up capital of the 8 Osaka banks was ¥167,075,000, the aggregate deposits ¥4,464,387,000 and advances ¥2,293,546,000. Bills cleared at the Osaka Clearance House in 1938 amounted to ¥28,535,903,000, an increase of 0.6% over 1937.

Exchanges In Osaka there are 4 exchanges, viz., Osaka Stock Exchange, Osaka Dojima Rice Exchange, Osaka Sanpin Exchange and Osaka Sugar Exchange. The Osaka Stock Exchange is a rival of the Tokyo Stock Exchange in the transaction of stocks. The Osaka Rice Exchange is the forerunner of rice exchange business in Japan. In the Osaka Sanpin Exchange were cotton yarn and raw cotton only could be transacted, in February 1938, artificial silk was admitted for the clearance

transaction. But the transaction of cotton yarn was stopped for a while since March 27, 1939.

The Osaka Sugar Exchange is operated upon membership basis, but the other three are joint stock companies of limited liability. Transactions made at the Osaka Stock Exchange in 1937 were valued at ¥15,886,705,000. Rice was transacted up to 27,889,000 koku for ¥918,602,000. Cotton yarns were contracted up to 10,710,000 bales valued at ¥2,680,049,000. Rayon was transacted for 1,416,000 bundles against ¥113,621,000. Sugar dealings were booked for 12,350,000 sacks valued at ¥248,826,000. Transactions made at any of these Osaka Exchanges in 1936 exceeded those in any of the 5 other big cities.

Warehouses At the end of 1937 stocks in all the warehouses belonging to the 7 leading warehousing companies were found to be 6,332,251 units valued at ¥190,137,000, stocks brought in during the year being 27,597,090 units valued at ¥871,014,000 and those taken away 26,300,510 units valued at ¥808,050,000.

Commodity Movements The aggregate quantity of commodities taken away from Osaka in 1937 was 15,863,000 tons for ¥5,436,889,000 and those brought into 27,539,000 tons for ¥5,243,506,000. The net result was the excess of influx in quantity by 11,67%.

000 tons but the excess of out-going movements by ¥193,383,000. The following table shows this trend in the 5 classified leading commodities:

PRINCIPAL INCOMING & OUTGOING COMMODITIES

1937

	Outgoing		Incoming	
	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	956	217	2,878	552
Raw materials	3,678	555	13,236	738
Manufactures as				
raw materials	4,397	1,005	7,025	1,561
Finished manufactures	6,767	3,653	4,200	2,360
Others	64	10	200	34
Total	15,863	5,437	27,539	5,244

Central Wholesale Market The aggregate amount of sales made at the Osaka wholesale market in 1938 was valued at ¥100,447,000, the average daily sales being ¥286,993. This market was inaugurated in 1931, and it deals only in daily necessities of life such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits, and there are 7 more central wholesale markets in the whole country.

Municipal Retail Markets There are 53 retail markets operated by the Municipality. Sales made at these muni-

cipal markets in the whole city of Osaka in 1938 totalled ¥24,298,289, an increase of ¥948,000 over 1937. The average monthly sales in 1938 resulted in ¥2,025,000 and the average daily sales showed ¥71,676.

Foreign Trade

The 1939 foreign trade returns of Osaka showed ¥1,034,351,000 in exports and ¥611,086,000 in imports, the excess of exports resulting in ¥423,265,000.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS BY KINDS AND COUNTRIES

1938

(In ¥1,000,000)

Exports

Kinds	Amount	Countries
Cotton tissues	243	Dutch East Indies (30) Manchoukuo (34) British India (42)
Cotton yarn	29	British India (14) Dutch East Indies (6) Manchoukuo (3)
Machinery	60	China (19) Kwantung L.T. (23) Manchoukuo (13)
Rayon tissues	37	Kwantung L.T. (16) Dutch East Indies (2) British India (1)
Iron manufactures	30	Kwantung L.T. (15) Manchoukuo (7) China (4)

Imports

Kinds	Amount	Countries
Cotton and ginned cotton	104	U.S.A. (39) British India (20) Brazil (15)
Wool	16	Australia (10) South Africa (1) New Zealand (1)
Materials for oil yielding	12	Manchoukuo (5) China (5) Dutch East Indies (1)

FOREIGN TRADE OF OSAKA IN 1939 BY COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Countries	Exports		Imports	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
Manchoukuo	221,680	21.4	51,969	8.5
Kwantung L.T.	280,743	27.1	11,601	1.8
China	178,726	17.2	92,769	15.1
British India	96,810	9.3	37,766	6.1
Straits Settlements	4,775	0.4	9,234	1.5
Dutch East Indies	75,773	7.3	7,198	1.1

Countries	Exports		Imports	
	Amount	%	Amount	%
England	2,758	0.2	4,276	0.6
The United States	12,160	1.1	225,796	36.9
Egypt	3,394	0.3	16,501	2.6
Australia	10,093	0.9	10,260	1.6
Other countries	147,439	14.2	143,716	23.5
Total	1,034,351	100.0	611,086	100.0

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total road area of Osaka was 15,984 square km., 7.7% of the entire area of the city and the total road length was 2,668,321 meters. The total area of paved roads in 1939 was 6,421 sq. km. an increase of 2.2% compared with the previous year.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka may be called the Venice of Japan on account of its many canals, and to that fact it owes much of its development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals 4 which are serving the city as effective means of transportations. The total length of rivers in 1938 was 182,928 meters and the total number of bridges was 1,299 in the same year.

Tramway and Bus Lines At the end of March 1939 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 212 kilometers. The total number of passengers in 1939 was 358,606,000 (14% increase from 1938) and the total revenue ¥19,889,000 (14% increase from 1938). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the Municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsaibashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and the line was extended southward from Shinsaibashi to Namba in October 1935 and then from Namba to Tennoji in April 1938, the total business kilometerage being 7.5. The total number of passengers in 1938 was 23,575,000 with fares totalling ¥1,987,000. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

Suburban Electric Railways On March 31, 1939 there were 9 private companies operating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 949 carrying 639,126,000 passengers, fares being ¥72,631,000.

These companies are the Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric

Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kido Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hanwa Electric Railway Company.

Sea Transportation The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Japan and steamships that entered the port in 1939 numbered 17,488 (14% decrease from 1938). Sail boats numbered 167,526 (7% decrease from 1938).

Airways Osaka is an important airway point in Japan. The Japan Airway Company is operating its regular airway passenger service with Osaka as a center-point, Tokyo to Osaka and Osaka to Fukuoka, thence to various points of Chosen and also southward to Taiwan. The Nippon Air Transport Institute is operating the airway service between Osaka and Beppu and between Osaka and Shirahama.

Education

On March 1, 1938, there were kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 1,015 against 941 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 16,898 against 15,885 of the previous year; and pupils and students 548,775 against 517,953 of 1937. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 537; the Pre-schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Government 30; and private schools and kindergartens 448.

Kindergartens numbered 128 on March 1, 1938, children enrolled numbering 16,400 and nurses 560. Attendants in elementary schools totalled 371,500, on March 1, 1938, with their teachers numbering 7,374. Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 127, with pupils numbering 77,512. Institutions for higher university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 774 and students 8,017.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1938, Young Men's Schools number-

ing 356 in all, with teaching forces of 3,066 and pupils counting 48,289.

Educational expenditure of the Municipality for 1937 was ¥24,491,000 an increase of ¥3,272,000 (15.4%) over 1936. Of this expenditure for education 35.4% was for salaries.

Universities and colleges in Osaka are the Osaka Imperial University (governmental), the Osaka University of Commerce (municipal), Osaka Higher School (governmental), the Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental), the Kansai University (private), Naniwa Commercial College (private), Osaka Girls' School (prefectural), etc. At the end of March 1937 there were 12 libraries, 1 being under governmental maintenance, 6 under municipal maintenance and 5 of private ownership. In the governmental library there were 283,308 books on March 31, 1938.

Social Welfare Works

Relief of the Poor Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has active interest in the relief of the poor, old-aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken to institute various social works directed for the prevention of poverty. In 1937 three municipal maternity homes received 5,766 expectant mothers of small means and births numbering 4,608 were obtained, still-births numbering 382.

Protection of Infants & Children At the end of 1937 there were 44 nurseries, 13 poor children educational homes; 8 blind and deaf protection homes; 10 minors protection houses; and 16 chil-

dren health consultation offices. Infants who were received in the 44 nurseries totalled 2,684.

Employment Exchanges The municipality also maintains 23 employment exchanges and 2 training places for workseekers. The employment exchanges gave work to 95,133 men and 17,531 women during 1937.

Medical Relief On March 31, 1938 there were 62 relief hospitals. The total number of patients treated in all the relief-hospitals was 4,492,165 (out-patients) and 15,010 (in-patients) in 1937.

Social Education Work In 1937 there were 19 institutes for the social education work, of which 8 were under municipal management. Protection of infants and children, assistance to advice-seekers on matters of health, law, etc. and holding of necessary lectures for social educational purposes etc. are the works that are being carried on by the 19 institutes.

Municipal Finance

The fiscal year 1941 budget was formulated, taking into consideration the need of meeting all that was urgent for the healthy expansion of the city and the promotion of the welfare of the citizens and it was balanced at ¥372,634,000, 5% increase each in revenue and expenditure compared with the previous year. The main items for which the expenditure was allotted cover the following: ¥22,581,000 for education work; and ¥14,571,000 for sanitation work.

The municipal loans aggregated ¥596,290,000 on May 31, 1938.

KYOTO

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural center, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atago-yama, Kuramayama, Hieiizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is

288.65 square kilometers, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometers and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometers, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometers to the southwest.

Boundaries The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakakyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiyama-ku were newly added to

the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

Population The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1935 the total population of Kyoto was 1,080,593, the number of households being 224,663. According to the census taken on October 1, 1940, the population was 1,089,726, an increase of only 9,133 in the past 5 years.

Industry and Commerce

In 1938 the conditions of factories in Kyoto were as follows:

	Facto- ries	Opera- tives	Produc- tion (In yen)
Textile	1,471	29,670	101,039,000
Metallurgical	159	3,332	37,148,000
Machinery	292	14,004	55,355,000
Ceramics	75	1,775	6,301,000
Chemical	130	2,673	48,848,000
Caw milling & wood wark	160	1,264	10,008,000
Printing & binding	107	1,661	7,493,000
Foodstuffs	332	4,327	37,943,000
Electric & gas	26	346	7,501,000
Miscellaneous	124	1,550	4,475,000
Total	2,876	60,702	316,111,000

PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES IN 1938

(In yen)

Bleaching and dyeing	34,476,321
Textiles	78,082,761
Artistic bags, etc.	10,023,464
Spinning	16,954,462
Lacquer-wares	3,916,385
Soaps	5,876,465
Machinery	23,312,773
Ceramics	7,482,385
Metallics	25,769,586
Brewery	23,818,763
Total	229,763,365

Banking Statistics Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below:

At the end of	No. of Banks	Deposits	Loans
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,386
1935	80	535,339	179,773
1936	71	680,692	185,964

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1939 there were 2,529 companies in Kyoto. Their capital amounted to ¥452,289,000. Of the total number, 1,008 were industrial companies and 1,440 commercial companies.

Transportation

Municipal Tramways In 1940-41 the total length of the lines was 71.6 km. and carried 144,851,000 passengers, while the bus ran on 74.7 km. of the lines and carried 18,941,000.

State Railways In 1936-37 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 21,346,437.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hié; on the northwest the Arashiyama line starts Shijoomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i.e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Keihan line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Ōtsu by Lake Biwa.

Rivers, Water-Power Works

Rivers Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows south-westwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

Canal and Water-power Work The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March 1912, at the

cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1939-40 was 52,598,964 cubic meters to 165,604 households.

Education

Governmental and Prefectural: Kyoto

Imperial University, the Third Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial and Art School, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingonshu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

(At the End of March 1940)

	No.	Instruc-	Stu-
		tors	dents
Kindergartens	62	204	5,612
Elementary schools	145	3,266	142,063
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	53	404
Girls' high schools	15	541	13,289
Middle schools	17	511	11,286
Technical schools	16	616	13,241
Normal schools	2	101	959

(October 1939)

	No.	Instruc-	Stu-
		tors	dents
Higher school	1	70	812
Colleges	13	390	5,246
Universities	6	555	8,010
Young Men's Schools	134	933	12,245
Miscellaneous schools	42	624	8,279

Libraries and Museums There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, and the Memorial Zoological Garden.

Shrines and Temples In 1939 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines for which Kyoto is

famous were 405 shrines, 356 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,429 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 47.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1939-40, were:

	No. of
	Establishments
Public markets	16
Housing	5 places
Public baths	6 houses
Labor exchanges (1938)	3
Lodging houses	1
Lunch-room	1
Pawn shops	6

Sales account	¥2,758,876
No. of houses	357
Floorage (tsubo)	334.46
{ Cases handled	60,297
{ Employed	16,348
Capacity	200
Meals (1938)	94,713
Loans	¥535,943

Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto amounted to:

Fiscal Year	Revenue.	Expendi- ture
	(In ¥1,000)	
1935-36	28,527	42,869
1936-37	30,608	43,945

Fiscal year	Revenue	Expendi- ture
1937-38	45,187	49,753
1938-39	63,797	63,797
1939-40 (Budget)	62,868	62,868
1940-41 (")	63,775	63,775
1941-42 (")	66,878	66,878

Municipal debts outstanding on March 31, 1940, totalled ¥66,594,475 or ¥56.57 per capita of population.

NAGOYA

Nagoya is situated in the very center of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city. Old and historically important as the city is, she fills today a more important role

than of old, for she is a distributing and industrial center for the middle part of Honshu, a role that will grow in importance as time goes on.

Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the past 11 years, 1930-1940, are shown in the following table:

On October 1,	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.733
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,800	203,700	151.044
1933	989,600	209,700	151.044
1934	1,017,700	215,600	151.044
1935 (census)	1,082,816	219,737	151.093
1936	1,119,500	231,200	151.210
1937	1,186,900	243,200	160.000
1938	1,224,100	252,900	160.000
1939	1,249,100	—	160.000
1940 (census)	1,328,084	—	160.000

Buildings Number of buildings at the end of 1938 was as follows:

Concrete buildings	361
Brick buildings	301
Wooden buildings	315,402
Others	10,638
Total	326,702

Commerce and Industry

Companies and Banks At the end of 1939 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,101 with an aggregate paid-up capital ¥634,746,000, and that of banks 8. At the end of 1939 their deposits amounted to ¥999,546,000, outstanding loans to ¥481,086,000.

Domestic and Foreign Trade Foreign and home trade values in recent years were as follows:

	Exports (In yen)	Imports
Home Trade		
1934	47,397,255	137,081,837
1935	57,205,175	149,122,814
1936	65,839,589	168,466,005
1937	80,242,407	215,705,847
1938	83,957,100	238,679,555
Foreign Trade		
1934	115,515,093	88,526,006
1935	129,478,126	95,528,520
1936	131,500,961	108,777,074
1937	147,909,395	148,328,796
1938	115,100,000	74,130,000
1939	144,872,000	76,705,000

Exports Imports
(In yen)

Totals of Home and Foreign Trades		
1934	162,912,348	225,607,843
1935	186,683,301	244,651,334
1936	197,340,550	277,243,079
1937	228,151,802	364,034,643
1938	199,057,100	312,809,555

Exchanges Nagoya has three exchanges, i.e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1938, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 20,451,000 shares long term transaction valued at ¥2,851,539,000. The Rice Exchange handled 2,186,000 koku (¥77,183,000) while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 477,950,000 bales.

Industry Commodities that are brought into city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1939 the output totalled as much as ¥37,219,000. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total

production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥183,926,000 in 1939. An equally significant development is that of the machine and tools. In 1939 the total output of the machine industry reached ¥429,546,000, an increase of 17.1

per cent as compared with the previous year.

Number of Factories and Production
Number of factories and productions of various industries in 1939 follow:

Kind of Industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (In ¥1,000)	
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939
Textile	880	1,268	30,135	31,490	169,738	183,926
Metallic	631	743	12,365	16,680	75,936	115,944
Machine and tool	1,505	1,683	86,314	104,966	355,738	429,546
Pottery and porcelain	212	209	9,659	9,995	27,726	37,219
Chemical	189	187	6,019	6,785	65,350	71,402
Saw mills and wood works	765	722	7,390	9,197	38,098	48,397
Printing and bookbinding	246	220	2,703	2,750	11,747	15,271
Comestibles and beverages	515	570	4,711	5,885	63,575	83,010
Gas and electric	3	4	352	533	—	5,575
Others	917	542	6,164	4,380	55,478	34,761
Total	5,863	6,166	165,812	191,661	863,386	1,025,051

Transportation

Railways Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centers of Japan. The railway station and the harbor are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 10 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya-Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hattá, Shiratori, Maizuru, Sasajima, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 10 stations is estimated at about sixteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately four million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. Since 1935 the city bought several private electric railways, and now only two private ones are left, i.e. the Seto Electric Railway Co. and the Nagoya Electric Rail-

way Co., and most of electric car business is run by the municipality, the total kilometerage open to business being 84.5 kilometers.

At the end of 1939 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 3,562 kilometers, the number of bridges 724.

Harbor Works Nagoya has a splendid harbor well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbor was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometers, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥20,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometers and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa. The number of ships which entered the Nagoya harbor in 1938 was 117,472 with an aggregate tonnage of 16,103,954.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in the city in 1937-38, were as follows:

	Establishment	Beneficiaries
Lodging houses	7	152,291
Public pawnshops	5	{ Loans ¥266,080 Persons 53,195
Labor exchanges	10	Cases handled 433,411
Public markets	14	Amount of sale ¥2,920,157

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

(March 1939)

Kind of Schools	No.	Instructors	Pupils
Imperial University	1	69	388
Higher School	1	47	619
Colleges	7	248	2,351
Elementary schools	120	3,462	171,324
Middle schools	11	—	8,974
Girls' high schools	14	—	10,371
Business schools	31	—	10,305
Normal schools	2	—	688
Young Men's schools	128	3,451	42,758
Kindergartens	42	166	4,209

Total public educational expenditure including others ¥8,328,876.

Finance
Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of Nagoya

city has shown a marked increase of late as it is clear by the following table:

Year	Revenue ¥	Total Expenditure ¥
1936-37	99,418,901	94,212,486
1937-38	86,839,151	73,838,716
1938-39	65,744,570	51,022,070
1939-40 (Budget)	55,302,997	55,302,997
1940-41 (")	65,047,000	65,047,000
1941-42 (")	74,426,000	74,426,000

Municipal Loans At the end of March 1939, the total indebtedness of

Nagoya city amounted to ¥111,964,867 or ¥442.72 per capita of household.

YOKOHAMA

General

History Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbor nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but

as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed

ed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

Location Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27' N., longitude 139° 38' E. It is the seat of government of Kana-

gawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population center. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

Area and Population At the end of March 1937 the area of Yokohama was 173.18 square kilometers. The population of Yokohama was 968,091 on October 1, 1940.

POPULATION

October 1,	Men	Women	Total	Households
1930 (Census)	321,415	298,891	620,301	135,929
1935 (")	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545
1936	377,200	361,200	738,400	155,785
1937	387,500	372,200	759,700	—
1938	395,800	381,700	777,500	—
1939	440,000	426,200	866,200	—
1940 (Census)	503,199	464,892	968,091	—

Foreign Residents Foreign population in Yokohama numbered 4,802 at the end of December 1937, against 5,484 in 1936, the decrease being 882. Chinese increased by 169 during the same period, Hindu 78, German 45, American 19 and English 18.

Commerce

Banks At the end of December 1936, the number of banks in Yokohama including branches of those banks having their head offices in cities other than Yokohama counted 16 of which 3 were foreign banks. The banks which are carrying on foreign exchange business extensively are Yokohama Specie Bank, Dai-ichi Bank (branch), Mitsui Bank (branch), Sumitomo Bank (branch), Bank of Taiwan (branch), Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation (branch), Bank of India, Australia & China (branch) and National City Bank of New York (branch). The banks domiciled in Yokohama numbered 5 in December 1936, the most powerful one being the Yokohama Specie

Bank, Ltd. The 16 banks showed the following accounts in aggregate as outstanding in 1939. Aggregated capital ¥108,100,000, reserves ¥145,830,000, and deposits ¥619,863,000. 12 out of the 16 banks were on Dec. 31, 1936, member banks of the Yokohama Clearance House.

Companies. At the end of 1939 there were 1,638 commercial and industrial companies in Yokohama of which 960 were for trade and 557 for industries.

Warehouses At the end of 1936 stocks in all warehouses in Yokohama were balanced at ¥79,465,634 as against ¥113,366,674 at the end of 1935. Stocks stored in during 1936 were valued at \$62,900,988 and those withdrawn ¥67,677,236.

Foreign Trade Goods exported from the port of Yokohama for foreign countries in 1936 amounted to ¥950,977 and goods imported in the same year were valued at ¥929,127, the adverse balance being ¥21,850.

FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA

(In ¥1,000)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of
1932	400,859	355,358	756,017	ex. 45,031
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	" 44,534
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	im. 47,115
1935	626,017	616,568	1,242,605	ex. 9,429
1936	678,323	687,012	1,365,335	im. 8,689
1937	800,002	1,047,600	1,847,602	im. 247,598
1938	681,063	877,981	1,559,044	im. 196,918
1939	950,977	929,127	1,880,104	ex. 21,850

FIVE BIG CITIES

EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Wheat flour	27,173	14,112	23,151	30,890	30,075
Canned crab	18,362	15,753	18,525	15,154	29,671
Raw silk	283,771	296,601	307,590	279,134	386,512
Silk crepe	17,550	13,001	14,578	9,988	6,631
Electric lamps	5,763	8,330	8,802	5,221	799
Toys	17,945	20,285	23,659	13,815	13,917

IMPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Wheat	30,789	21,912	20,624	5,382	3,084
Crude oil & heavy oil	47,751	63,797	—	—	—
Rubber	11,944	17,781	22,695	21,168	22,972
Cotton	52,210	50,632	55,467	29,166	37,737
Wool	40,715	49,169	—	—	—
Coal	11,785	12,303	15,051	14,495	17,164
Automobiles & parts	20,581	20,020	—	—	—
Lumber	14,483	16,861	19,278	9,392	9,832
Soya beans	13,393	13,596	18,731	19,648	29,035

TRADE BOATS ENTERED YOKO-
HAMA DURING 1937 AND 1938

1937	Number of Ships	Tonnage
Japanese	1,588	6,030,000
Foreign	1,384	6,269,000
Total	2,972	12,299,000
1938	Number of Ships	Tonnage
Japanese	1,301	8,521
Foreign	1,219	9,150
Total	2,520	17,671

Industries

Factories and Production At the end

of 1938 there were 178 factories for the spinning industry, 107 for the metallic industry, 234 for the machine and tool manufacturing industry and 89 for the chemical industry, all showing expansion compared with 1937. Both the number of workers and the amount of production also showed a corresponding increase, workers increasing from 64,920 to 77,432 and production from ¥689,142,403 to ¥786,612,298, an increase of 17 per cent.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(In 1938)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (In yen)
Spinning	178	6,395	24,002,184
Metallic	107	9,115	116,021,079
Machine & tool	234	42,906	326,522,774
Ceramics	18	2,458	13,524,239
Chemical	89	7,985	203,557,272
Wood works	75	1,254	6,428,756
Printing & book binding	58	656	2,224,809
Commodities	112	3,849	62,008,283
Gas and electricity	2	294	—
Miscellaneous	170	2,490	32,262,902
Total	1,044	77,432	786,612,298

Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

Transportation

Ships The total tonnage of vessels

that entered the port of Yokohama in 1937 was 12,299,000, and in 1938 was 17,671,000. Details in 1936 follow:

SHIPS ENTERED AND LEFT THE PORT OF YOKOHAMA IN 1936

		Clearance		Entrance	
		No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage
Total		72,132	29,987,669	72,071	29,896,663
S. S.	Foreign lines	3,009	20,157,022	2,970	19,927,154
	Domestic lines	3,034	7,495,212	3,059	7,637,330
	Others	1,940	80,711	1,941	80,739
Small S. S.		223	2,933	224	2,946
Motor boats		24,568	644,111	24,540	644,133
Sailing boats	Foreign lines	15	23,830	11	23,366
	Domestic lines	6,413	220,984	6,411	220,209
Lighters		32,930	1,362,866	32,915	1,360,786
1935		67,377	29,060,369	66,860	29,073,880
1934		66,176	26,294,086	65,989	26,396,672

Passengers Passengers by ocean-going vessels who landed and called at Yokohama in 1938 totalled 47,136 of whom 15,415 were those whose sea journeys ended at Yokohama and 31,721 were those who just called.

Below are given the nationalities of the passengers in 1936:

Nationalities	Number	
	Those who landed	Those who called
Japanese	12,261	6,388
Chinese	1,823	15,974
British	2,673	3,331
French	121	118
German	422	396
American	4,809	12,053
Other foreigners	1,280	4,890
Total	23,409	43,150

Railway Passengers In 1936 the Government railway passengers who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodo-gaya stations numbered 52,369,890.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 92 kilometers of lines and carried 68,978,000 persons in 1939. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Keihin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., Tsurumi-Rinko Ry. Co., Shonan-Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1939 was 74,527,000.

Education

Schools and Colleges At the end of March 1940, there were 100 elementary schools maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 138,124.

There were 22 kindergartens with 1,239 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows:

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,606
Girls' high schools	8	6,067
Technical schools	13	6,715
Young people's schools	41	8,459
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	195
Colleges	5	3,373
Prefectural normal school	1	230
Miscellaneous schools	41	6,929

Libraries The library statistics as of March 1, 1936 were as follows:

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
Total	4	75,087	272,781

Religion At the end of 1939 the number of Shinto shrines was 224. Buddhist temples 232, and Christian churches 45.

Social Works In 1936 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as

follows:

	Establishments	Beneficiaries	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Lodging houses	2			
Poor relief				
Employment exchanges	4	cases 372,153 employed 348,670		
Lunch halls	5			
Pawnshops	12	Loans ¥713,885		
Dwelling houses	2,014	Households 1,536		

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The estimated revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama for the past 4 years were as follows:

	Total	Ordinary Account	Enterprises	Miscellaneous
Revenue			(In yen)	
1938-39	57,022,000	18,117,000	—	—
1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
1940-41	59,730,000	16,426,000	43,303,000	—
1941-42	65,877,000	18,486,000	47,391,000	—
Expenditure				
1938-39	57,022,000	18,117,000	—	—
1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
1940-41	59,730,000	16,426,000	43,303,000	—
1941-42	65,877,000	18,486,000	47,391,000	—

In 1940-41 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥16,426,000. Itemized details follow:

Items	Amount In yen	Per- centage
Municipal office	1,595,000	9.8
Education	4,515,000	28.0
Industry	527,000	3.2
Hygiene	828,000	4.9
Social works	915,000	5.6

Items	Amount in yen	Per- centage
Public works	1,984,000	12.0
Loans and others	6,061,000	38.1

Note: The total differs from that given in the preceding table because of some overlappings with other accounts.

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of 1936, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥176,988,346.

KOBE

General

Located between the Osaka Bay and the Rokko mountain range, Kobé covers an area of 83.06 square kilometers, stretching 14.4 kilometers from east to west and 13.5 kilometers from north to south. With a population of 964,000 including about 8,030 foreigners, Kobé is one of the six largest cities in Japan. It is the "City of Wonders," as an international trade center in the world. It ranks second in the revenue of bill-of-lading freight, London coming first.

Before the Restoration of Meiji in 1868, there were less than a thousand houses in Kobé, fishermen's village. In 1867 Hyogo harbor (Hyogo village) was first opened to foreign trade and then the foreign settlement came into existence near the East Recreation Ground in Kobé village and Kobé harbor has

since been gradually turned to advantage. Since then Kobé has increased in population. Accordingly, Kobé village grew into the "Town" of Kobé in 1868. Hyogo and Sakamoto villages being annexed to it in 1879, the city of Kobé was born in 1889. Recently neighboring villages being annexed again, Kobé has become a "Prosperous Greater Kobé."

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobé lies on the southwest coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 3'-45' E. long. and 34° 38'-45' N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometers and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometers, the total area being 83.06 square kilometers, of which about 60 per cent is occupied by mountains and hills, and

the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long band, and is divided into eight wards known as Nada, Fukiai, Kobé, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

Population The following are the results of the national census for the year 1935 and 1940;

1935: Families	198,018
Population	912,179
1940: Population	967,234

Foreign Residents The total number of foreign residents in Kobé was 7,445 at the end of 1939.

Houses With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 86,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

Waterworks The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft.

a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Sengari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1935 the city supplied 52,803,380 cubic meters to 167,576 households and other uses.

Police Stations The total number of police stations in the city at the end of 1940 was 11. Policemen numbered 1,808.

Commerce and Industry

Movement of Commodities The movement of commodities through the Kobé harbor and railway stations in 1934 within Japan proper and Chosen was as follows:

	Value (in yen)	
	Tonnage Japan	Chosen
(in 1,000 tons) proper		
Outgoing	2,436 477,315,042	32,181,212
Incoming	4,916 357,710,973	57,128,612
Total	7,352 835,026,015	89,319,824

Foreign Trade The grand total of exports and imports in 1939 reached ¥1,646,443,000, and Kobé stood first among all ports open for foreign trade in Japan proper in recent years, but it was beaten by Yokohama in 1939.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ

(In ¥1,000)

	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	im. 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	1,582,145	im. 943
1935	910,899	821,641	1,732,540	im. 89,258
1936	970,784	958,220	1,929,004	ex. 12,564
1937	1,107,552	1,119,515	2,227,067	im. 11,963
1938	774,038	706,257	1,480,295	ex. 67,781
1939	959,909	686,534	1,646,443	ex. 273,375

Warehousing At the end of 1936 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 9 and the aggregate floor area covered by the warehouses was 146,803 tsubo. In 1936, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥713,410,635, while ¥682,664,177 worth of goods was delivered. Goods stored at the year end amounted to ¥127,696,298.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1937 the number of electric lamps in the city was 1,182,502 and electric mo-

tors 117,422 k.w.

In 1934, gas was supplied to 138,448 families with 347,633 spouts.

Banks and Business Firms At the end of 1939 the total number of banks and branches was 60, in exception of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches outstanding at the end of 1939 amounted to ¥10,307,246,000 and advances and loans ¥8,013,605,000.

At the end of 1939 the number of companies was 3,166 with the authorised

capital amounting to ¥1,218,194,000.

Factories and their Workers At the end of 1939 there were 1,896 factories. The total number of workers was 103,939 and the total production was valued at ¥810,535,000.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total length of roads in the city reached 799,425 m.

Sea Transportation In 1939 the number of steam ships which entered the Kōbē harbor was 23,749 with 40,230,000 gross tons.

Of the total number 20,031 were vessels sailing home waters and 3,718 on international courses.

VESSELS ENTERED KOBE

	Number of vessels	Tonnage
1934	97,170	49,481,808
1935	105,642	52,359,980
1936	107,042	32,389,306
1937	104,279	30,531,245

TRADE VESSELS ENTERED KOBE

	Number	Tonnage
1934	4,145	15,649,444
1935	4,421	16,752,490
1936	4,603	17,289,371
1937	4,254	16,266,031
1938	3,603	23,060,000
1939	3,718	23,470,000

Railways In 1936 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kōbē was 53,334,000.

Electric Tramways The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 32.578 km. at the end of 1940. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Electric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kōbē-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kōbē-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kōbē-Arima). Han-Shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kōbē in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

Schools In March 1941 the number

of municipal elementary schools was 72 with 2,737 teachers and 125,926 pupils. Middle schools numbered 32, of which 9 were prefectural schools and 17 were private schools, with 1,011 teachers and 25,609 students in 1940. Kindergartens numbered 42 with 180 nurses and 4,010 children. Young people's schools numbered 49, of which 13 were private schools, with 579 teachers and 17,178 students. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. Above these schools there are 40 miscellaneous business schools with 475 teachers and 9,113 students. Budget for educational expenditure for 1937 was ¥11,781,231.

Shrines, Temples and Churches At the end of 1939 there were 99 Shinto shrines, 153 Buddhist temples, 388 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 234 Buddhist halls, and 57 Christian churches.

Social Welfare Work At the end of 1937 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows:

Markets, 11; cheap eating-houses, 6; employment exchanges, 4; public nurseries, 2; lodging-houses, 4; child consultation office, 1; municipal dwelling-houses, 2; municipal pawnshops, 3; relief houses, 2; peoples' hospitals, 3; sanatorium, 1.

Finance

Budget for 1941 of Kōbē was ¥76,447,000. It shows a decrease of ¥1,140,000 compared with the previous year. The revenue and expenditure of the municipality for the past five years follow (in yen):

	Revenue	Expenditure
1937-38	84,641,000	62,254,000
1938-39 (budget)	63,292,000	63,292,000
1939-40 (")	72,574,000	72,574,000
1940-41 (")	77,587,000	77,587,000
1941-42 (")	76,447,000	76,447,000

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of May 1937, was ¥114,739,200. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1936-37 was ¥125,752,000 while the sum re-funded was ¥11,013,400.

CHAPTER XL

CHOSEN (KOREA)



President
MASASUKE ITANI



Managing Directors:
YOSIKUMA KAWASAKI
YASUSADA YOSIOKA
SYUITI MATUMURA

WORKS: SHIPBUILDING and ENGINEERING WORKS
PLATE and SHEET MILLS
STEEL WORKS

KAWASAKI HEAVY INDUSTRIES LIMITED

HEAD OFFICE: KOBE, JAPAN

CAPITAL ¥ 200,000,000

CHAPTER XL

CHOSEN (KOREA)

General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Chosen Straits, with the Island of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of $33^{\circ}06'$ and 43° north and $124^{\circ}11'$ and $130^{\circ}56'$ east, having a total area of 220,788 square kilometers which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 8,674 kilometers. It has many good harbors on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Reisui, Moppo, Jinsen and Chinnampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over 10 meters, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a meter. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, Kin and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremes of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short but highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly

rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

Flora and Fauna Plants in Chosen are classified into 160 families, 883 genus, 3,070 species and 550 varieties. Of these five genus and 550 species are peculiar to the country. The pine, larch, spruce, juniper, oak, willow, maple, alder and birch trees are found over the whole peninsula, the spruce, larch and birch mainly in the north, and the pine, oak, maple and alder in the south. Large specimens of old sophora, ginkgo biloba and spruce are also scattered over the country, especially in the central district; they are remnants of ancient forests and old temple sites. The poplar trees of Chosen type exist, but the Lombardy poplar and the acacia have been imported and both are found widely scattered as aids against erosion. Flowering shrubs such as azalea, cherry lilac, syringa and spiraea are numerous and grow profusely on hill sides. The beech, maple and paulownia found on Dagelet Island are peculiar to that place. The soil and climate of Chosen have proved most suitable for the cultivation of fruit trees, and large orchards for imported apples, pears, peaches and vines have been set up. The walnut, chestnut, pinenut and persimmon are indigenous and yield good crops.

Fauna of Chosen is of the Palaearctic geographical distribution. Animals commonly found are the boar, deer, wildcat, wolf, hare, weasel, tiger and leopard, (the number of the last two is now much reduced). Native horses are small, but strong and wiry; the cattle are large and useful and are widely distributed. Among birds are the crow, magpie, jay, kite, heron, crane, oriole, lark, sparrow, robin, tits, pheasant, and quail, while the goose, bustard, duck, teal, swan and snipe are migratory, passing Chosen in spring and in autumn. The variety of aquatic

animals is extensive, comprising the mackerel, sardine, herring, sea bream, plaice, cod, pollack, whale, oyster, crab and lobster. Various kinds of snakes are found in the country, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well studied, as many are harmful to trees

and crops. Among butterflies over 200 species have been identified.

Population

According to the report of the Ministry for Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN

1935-1940

At year end	Total			Japanese	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1935	21,891,180	11,116,144	10,775,036	299,760	283,668
1936	22,047,836	11,205,940	10,841,896	313,211	295,778
1937	22,355,485	11,352,056	11,003,429	322,412	307,100
1938	22,633,751	11,489,113	11,144,638	323,187	310,101
1939	22,800,647	—	—	650,104	
1940	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	—	

At year end	Chosenese		Foreigners		Per Household	Men to 100 Women
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1935	10,769,916	10,478,948	46,468	12,420	5.28	103.2
1936	10,842,097	10,531,475	50,632	16,649	5.28	103.4
1937	10,997,432	10,685,423	32,212	10,906	5.29	103.2
1938	11,128,074	10,822,542	37,852	11,995	5.29	103.1
1939	22,098,310		52,233		5.30	—
1940	—		—		—	101.7

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

	Births	Per 1,000 of Population	Deaths	Per 1,000 of Population	Natural Increase	Per 1,000 of Population
1933	590,035	29.20	392,668	19.43	197,367	9.77
1934	615,579	30.01	398,482	19.43	217,096	10.58
1935	625,979	29.46	421,444	19.83	204,535	9.63
1936	615,381	28.79	424,063	19.84	191,318	8.95
1937	628,205	28.97	386,733	17.84	241,472	11.13
1938	792,975	36.13	384,179	17.50	408,796	18.63

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

(1935 Census)

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	22,899,038	6,074,011	4,957,199	5,016,503	5,194,592	572,143	1,084,590
0	894,077	454,876	439,201	—	—	—	—
1	768,601	389,027	379,574	—	—	—	—
2	744,578	376,430	368,148	—	—	—	—
3	720,987	367,380	353,607	—	—	—	—
4	631,481	320,743	310,738	—	—	—	—
5	667,042	339,153	327,889	—	—	—	—
6	600,652	306,740	293,913	—	—	—	—
7	596,437	305,379	291,058	—	—	—	—
8	583,305	298,735	284,557	—	—	—	—
9	509,734	263,651	245,959	50	12	—	—
10	554,189	284,330	269,860	269	623	1	5

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
11	520,785	266,516	252,024	611	1,619	6	9
12	491,711	249,822	236,405	1,673	3,753	23	35
13	522,730	263,414	241,718	4,937	12,493	70	98
14	499,903	247,542	210,338	11,355	30,284	153	231
15	446,062	211,137	158,170	19,250	56,646	289	570
16	418,899	185,457	109,260	30,541	91,992	537	1,112
17	408,941	163,091	66,952	46,923	129,207	1,008	1,760
18	454,505	159,446	41,752	71,254	177,624	1,851	2,578
19	432,373	131,215	22,721	87,674	185,061	2,593	3,109
20	391,221	100,905	13,956	95,555	174,562	3,082	3,161
21	423,073	96,117	11,124	119,532	188,538	4,086	3,676
22	395,732	70,702	8,201	127,663	180,915	4,519	3,732
23	372,337	49,065	5,495	133,861	174,631	5,267	4,018
24	404,498	40,699	2,953	158,470	191,001	6,797	4,578
25	338,378	25,779	1,948	138,690	161,709	6,106	4,146
26	368,511	21,364	1,541	157,854	175,641	7,180	4,931
27	337,358	14,826	1,100	150,156	159,434	6,897	4,945
28	299,703	10,669	874	133,908	142,578	6,621	5,053
29	344,499	8,724	705	158,992	161,949	8,059	6,070
30	299,689	5,784	482	139,886	140,827	6,895	5,815
31	242,352	4,486	395	113,443	112,751	6,108	5,169
32	264,638	4,056	382	124,539	122,815	6,669	6,177
33	261,871	3,558	342	123,501	120,804	6,842	6,824
34	279,146	3,424	271	132,089	127,586	7,969	7,807
35	283,894	2,690	258	135,669	128,598	7,910	8,769
36	251,116	2,570	196	118,335	114,014	7,318	8,683
37	286,448	2,537	233	136,062	127,920	8,870	10,826
38	274,533	2,271	180	130,039	121,079	9,030	11,934
39	264,031	2,066	184	125,030	114,047	9,809	12,895
40	245,475	1,538	144	117,236	104,269	9,803	12,985
41	228,550	1,535	151	108,477	95,781	9,404	13,202
42	207,607	1,077	136	97,920	86,945	7,964	13,565
43	242,183	1,325	121	113,710	99,712	10,233	17,082
44	229,390	1,211	120	105,855	93,472	10,530	18,202
45	224,661	993	123	104,430	90,434	9,744	18,937
46	203,458	906	122	94,113	79,664	10,036	18,617
47	231,562	942	121	106,962	88,429	11,753	23,355
48	199,771	842	94	91,327	74,519	10,964	22,025
49	165,969	723	86	75,358	58,773	10,648	20,381
50	152,936	531	80	69,560	53,983	9,316	19,466
51	167,565	466	87	75,989	57,425	10,592	23,006
52	161,497	426	93	72,667	53,954	10,479	23,878
53	163,164	493	113	71,434	53,615	11,349	26,160
54	177,993	562	145	77,601	55,800	13,520	30,365
55	148,471	390	112	63,293	45,716	11,344	27,616
56	181,269	445	106	77,649	52,789	14,524	35,756
57	124,627	315	106	51,587	35,746	10,786	26,087
58	106,591	382	142	42,641	29,154	9,922	24,350
59	122,706	349	142	48,845	31,571	11,956	29,843
60-64	513,378	1,120	468	194,523	115,251	58,282	143,734
65-69	387,134	621	317	124,183	64,900	57,419	139,694
70-74	250,662	262	147	66,166	28,629	48,186	107,272
75-79	147,095	136	93	28,582	10,567	34,378	73,339
80-84	49,668	37	43	7,000	2,226	12,906	27,456
85-89	12,868	6	19	1,293	340	3,441	7,769
90-94	2,084	—	4	205	95	458	1,322
95-99	537	2	—	71	42	110	312
100 and above	146	—	—	14	4	31	97

POPULATION OF CHOSEN ACCORDING TO PROVINCES

(At the end of 1939)

Province	Japanese	Chosenese	Foreign	Total
Keiki	167,807	2,416,057	6,138	2,590,002
North Chusei	9,297	890,469	345	900,111
South Chusei	25,949	1,498,509	921	1,525,379
North Zenra	35,287	1,507,239	900	1,543,426
South Zenra	44,015	2,446,678	520	2,491,213
North Keisho	43,967	2,387,285	423	2,431,675
South Keisho	88,274	2,120,499	362	2,209,135
Kokai	24,321	1,695,197	2,009	1,721,527
South Heian	43,130	1,490,584	4,483	1,538,197
North Heian	26,684	1,607,415	21,639	1,655,738
Kogen	19,839	1,571,502	577	1,591,918
South Kankyo	59,308	1,602,642	5,581	1,667,531
North Kankyo	62,226	864,234	8,335	934,795

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

(At the end of 1939)

Occupation	Japanese	Chosenese	Foreign	Total
Agriculture	33,257	16,486,959	11,188	16,531,404
Fisheries	9,540	337,310	70	346,920
Mining	18,604	322,988	2,169	343,761
Industry	111,808	611,958	8,650	732,416
Commerce	144,647	1,601,548	19,027	1,665,222
Transportation	37,705	225,264	2,586	265,555
Public service and profession	246,967	666,782	1,425	915,174
Miscellaneous occupations	24,932	1,559,101	6,922	1,590,955
Others	22,644	386,400	196	409,240
Total	650,104	22,098,320	52,233	22,800,647

On October 1, 1940, the density of the population average was 110 per square kilometer. The average is 89 per square kilometer less than in Japan proper.

Origin of the Native Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Chosenese, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighborhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock as the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Chosenese and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies

were first established along the northwestern coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Chosenese race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Chosenese language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmunn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it may be concluded beyond any doubt that these two peoples were closely related to each other from very remote times.

Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main

administrative offices and two departments, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Agricultural and Forestry Bureau, (6) Judicial Bureau, (7) Educational Bureau, and (8) Police Bureau, and the Department of Foreign Affairs and the Department of Planning. There are also many affiliated offices such as (1) Central Council, (2) Communications Bureau, (3) Railway Bureau, (4) Monopoly Bureau, (5) Provincial Office, (6) Revenue Superintending Bureau, (7) Custom House, etc.

Position of the Chosenese For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Chosenese in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October 1919, Chosenese officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March 1920, in the courts Chosenese judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Chosenese and the criminal cases where the accused were Chosenese, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

The Central Council As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Chosenese customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Chosenese attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship,

and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs.

Local Autonomy and Suffrage

In establishing local administrative system due consideration was given to the system obtaining under the old régime and also to Chosenese culture and customs. Revisions have been made from time to time to suit changes in local conditions, and the system has finally developed into what it is at the present day.

The main principle upon which revisions were made was to prepare the way for laying foundation for local autonomy. The establishment of advisory organs in the revision of the local administrative system effected in 1920 had this object in view. During the 10 years following progress in the preparation for self-government was made to such an extent that the time was considered ripe to effect further important reforms in the local system. An ordinance was, therefore, promulgated on October 1, 1930, the substance of which was as follows:

Administration of Province The former provincial advisory council (Do-Hyogi-Kwai) was changed into the provincial council (Do-Kwai) which is vested with administrative power. Two-thirds of members of the council are elected by members of the municipal councils, "yu" councils and "men" councils in each province, and one-third appointed by the Provincial Governor.

The Provincial Governor acts ex officio as Speaker of the council and the Vice-Speaker is elected from among members of the council. The term of members of the provincial council is four years.

Municipal System Each municipality has two bodies of the first and second educational sectional councils. The former is composed of Japanese and the latter of Chosenese members of the municipal council.

Yu-Men System The "men" (township) system (men-sei) has been substituted by the yu-men-system, and the yu (town) council was established in each yu and made an executive organ. The "men" council, composed of elected members, remains as an advisory body. The term of members of the yu and men councils is four years.

Administration of County and Island Counties and islands have county and island councils, the councillors of which are elected by the members of the yu and men councils. The term of the councillors is four years.

Supervision of Local Bodies As in Japan proper the right to reverse, to cancel, or to reconsider any decisions reached by local administrative organs is reserved to the Government-General, which may suspend or dissolve meeting when necessary.

Those portions of the ordinance that apply to the municipal system, yu-men system, county and island councils were enforced on April 1, 1931, while other parts which apply to the administration of provinces were enforced on April 1, 1933.

Suffrage Since conditions have not yet adequately improved and the sense for civic responsibility is not yet sufficiently strong or wide-spread to abolish the franchise qualification, which is payment of local rates of five yen the subject is still left untouched. This may be reduced, as conditions improve, to one yen for the yu-men council election. A course in civics has lately been added to school curriculum which will aid in impressing upon the people the importance and benefit of franchise.

Finance

Budgetary System Introduced Under the old Chosenese régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money collected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion

and his work was quickly done during the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

Japan in Chosen Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Chosenese people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥12,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General. The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1942 it reached the highest mark of 1,014,942,507. Below is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

BUDGETS 1937-1941

	Revenue	Expenditure (In yen)
1937	427,653,964	425,123,781
1938	527,814,250	528,245,954
1939	656,099,928	656,099,928
1940	837,786,717	837,786,717
1941	996,725,094	996,725,094

FINANCE

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BUDGET FOR 1942-43

Revenue

(In yen)

Items

Ordinary Revenue:

Taxes	208,658,024
Stamp receipts	30,884,551
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	544,443,261
Miscellaneous	10,759,774
Total	794,745,610

Extraordinary Revenue:

Temporary profits tax and juridical person special tax	35,239,636
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	100,000
Receipts anent the compensation systems	259,200
Replenishment from the National Treasury	12,948,792
Transfer from the Gold Fund Special Account	10,948,856
Public loans	145,827,615
Miscellaneous	1,343,670
Brought forward from the balance of the previous year	13,529,128
Total	220,196,897
Grand total revenue	1,014,942,507

Expenditure

Ordinary Expenditure:

Shrines	100,600
Prince Yi's Household	1,800,000
Government-General Office	16,940,846
Justice	5,670,822
Prisons	11,350,094
Provincial offices	35,260,217
Meteorological observatory	922,415
Keijo Imperial University	4,350,708
Schools and libraries	5,906,465
Agricultural experimental stations	1,899,511
Cattle disease serum manufacturing plant	1,272,828
Inspection offices	4,436,438
Monopoly Bureau	65,950,865
Railways	243,273,895
Forestry Bureau	21,429,981
Communications	37,166,061
Tax Superintending and Tax offices	10,078,526
Social work	1,895,554
National debt adjustment fund	54,446,485
Pension	9,370,105
Miscellaneous	1,105,566
Reserve fund	19,000,000
Total of ordinary expenditure	553,627,982

Extraordinary Expenditure:

Pension for soldiers under the old regime of Chosen	30,114
Investigations and experimentations	2,451,916
Subsidies and encouragement	72,183,082
Buildings and repairs	6,720,000

Communications	3,861,082
Public work	27,330,601
Railways	104,392,420
Forestry	2,461,994
Adjustment of title-deeds, etc.	142,861
Improvement of lands	9,797,683
Aid to local finances	17,494,109
Revision of land price	1,998,595
Training of teachers and the young people	87,685
Training of volunteer soldiers	728,756
Protection of Chosenese abroad	7,693,852
Arbitration of matrimonial troubles	42,791
Temporary police measures	4,309,267
Construction of salt fields	1,579,447
Development of northern Chosen	1,098,474
Promotion of the production of gold and important minerals	22,336,761
Improvement of farm villages	2,066,388
Fisheries	446,668
Promotion of rice production	3,333,015
National general mobilization	861,618
Emergency measures	29,054,188
Promotion foreign trade	575,741
Levying of Temporary Profit Tax	443,621
Transfer to the Special Account for Military Expenses	127,000,000
Allowances to frontier guards	529,221
Calamities	480,464
Preparation for improving the elementary education system	99,593
Rewards anent China Affair	49,966
Temporary allowances to officials	2,010,600
Temporary allowances to families of officials	5,621,952
Transfer to the necessities fund of railways	2,000,000
Total of extraordinary expenditure	461,314,525
Grand total of expenditure	1,014,942,507

ACTUAL RECEIPTS FROM TAXES IN RECENT YEARS

Description	1938	1939	1940
Income tax	5,139,797	8,191,546	10,788,559
Land tax	13,431,822	13,502,268	13,190,531
Business tax	2,541,279	3,027,123	7,774,790
Unearned increment tax	1,180,535	1,395,293	3,364,458
Corporation tax	811,589	783,455	3,335,444
Foreign currency loan special tax	1,577	2,162	1,870
Mining tax	2,146,532	2,577,016	3,897,276
Inheritance tax	475,775	765,340	1,197,365
Temporary profit tax	2,663,780	4,850,838	5,401,185
Dividend tax	175,138	775,593	466,967
Public loan and debenture interest tax	70,682	74,135	65,650
Transit tax	1,017,923	1,029,447	1,750,397
Admission tax	131,750	195,729	470,027
Tax on goods	4,441,483	9,867,699	14,419,075
Building tax	—	172,514	82,492
Liquor tax	—	—	24,133,550
Non-alcoholic beverage tax	21,854,363	24,086,253	836,862
Tax on eating & drinking for pleasure	329,670	565,752	7,590,400
	—	3,030,128	—

Description	1938	1939	1940
Sugar consumption tax	4,165,969	4,108,959	5,547,059
Volatile oil tax	1,553,112	1,580,924	2,420,731
Exchange tax	844,035	875,396	543,424
Bank of Chosen note emission tax	24,531	24,268	24,268
Total	63,002,342	81,483,838	107,301,481
From customs duties	16,760,693	17,231,496	—

Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium. Net profit from the Government monopolies amounted to ¥50,484,915 in 1939-40.

Ginseng This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China and Chosen. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

	Area	Root	Product	Receipts:
	(tsubo)	(kin)	(kin)	(yen)
1911	14,345	7,719	2,300	119,000
1926	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930	338,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463

	Area	Root	Product	Receipts:
	(tsubo)	(kin)	(kin)	(yen)
1931	350,243	161,952	59,302	2,039,541
1932	365,090	165,172	58,789	2,099,819
1933	350,623	142,686	49,525	1,339,941
1934	357,600	142,577	49,829	1,567,061
1935	357,947	142,662	52,125	1,703,788
1936	378,124	152,063	55,368	1,832,462
1937	377,564	151,390	53,502	1,812,963
1938	302,401	121,247	43,872	1,454,000
1939	—	99,077	36,136	1,723,515

Tobacco As practically all Chosenese smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the Government. Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Native, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centers, these being Keijo, Heijo, Tai-kyu and Zenshu, the annual production, reaching over 5 million kan valued at 6 million yen.

In 1939 the output of cigarettes was 7,682,959 pieces, and that of cut-tobacco 15,348,519 kg. Tobacco amounting to ¥83,579 was also imported from Japan, and foreign countries.

AREA, PRODUCTION & SALES OF TOBACCO

Year	Area	Production	Sales in yen	
	(cho)	of Leaf	Native	Imported
		Tobacco(kan)	Product	Total
1932	13,637	5,309,923	32,076,449	91,290
1933	13,558	4,414,268	35,227,038	87,148
1934	14,692	4,107,358	38,941,646	84,030
1935	16,367	5,845,627	42,835,698	90,588
1936	17,533	5,500,360	47,575,664	230,170
1937	18,672	7,433,022	—	—
1938	19,704	7,806,893	61,886,518	491,044
1939	21,032	—	76,737,651	83,579

Salt The yearly salt consumption in Chosen amounts approximately to 350,000,000 kg. Production capacity in Chosen is 282,050,000, kg., so that 76,000,000 kg. has to be imported. The demand for industrial use has increased recently and about 300,000 kg. is im-

ported to supply the need. The Chosen Government-General is making efforts to bring about the time when it can supply the total demand of 350,500,000 kg. with domestic production. The following shows production and the area of salt-fields in 1939:

PRODUCTION AND AREA OF SALT-FIELD IN 1939

	Area (cho)	Production (1,000 kg.)
Koryowan	993	92,838
Kijo	1,535	74,501
Shuan	6,664	230,356
Nanshi	483	33,660
Total	9,675	431,355

Opium Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the Government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the Government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The Government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as to more effectively control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March 1930, the Gov-

ernment's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only, and since 1937 no morphine for opium smokers was produced.

MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1939

Raw opium	26,702 kg.
Manufacture	
Morphine (salt)	141,565 g.
Diacetyl morphine (salt)	4,100 g.
Opium for medical use	45,380 g.
Total	191,045 g.
Sale	
Morphine (salt)	145,400 g.
Diacetyl morphine (salt)	4,335 g.
Opium for medical use	35,875 g.
Total	185,610 g.

Economic Progress

The following table shows the progress during recent three years as compared with the conditions in 1910.

	1910	1936	1937	1938
		(In ¥1,000)		
Paid up capital of corporations	15,909	663,569	853,988	1,022,022
Value of agricultural products	157,158	830,321	1,134,114	1,104,488
" forest products	19,240	118,065	138,709	156,750
" marine products	8,466	79,879	89,923	87,080
" mineral products	6,068	110,429	150,145	—
" manufactures	30,964	730,806	959,308	1,140,118
Trade	59,696	1,355,730	1,545,753	1,935,536
Bank deposits	17,855	415,530	462,454	624,316
Bank loans	40,912	845,831	957,914	1,053,349
Bank exchange received	28,227	2,132,886	2,481,659	2,935,977
Bank exchange drawn	23,907	2,146,385	2,556,437	3,064,395
Amount of bills cleared	20,489	1,782,369	1,961,472	2,342,820
Price index (Average in Keijo)	100.00	190.62	206.16	237.12
Wage index (Average in Keijo)	100.00	161.15	181.11	196.80

N.B. In the column of agricultural products only rice, barley, wheat, oats, rye, pulse and miscellaneous grains are included.

Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Chosen amounted to about 50 millions of yen a year. Now

it is approximately put at ¥1,876,968,000 based on figures for January to September 1940. The following figures indicate its development:

OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (In ¥1,000)			Imports (In ¥1,000)		
	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185

Year	Exports (In ¥1,000)			Imports (In ¥1,000)		
	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1934	57,674	407,693	465,367	79,527	439,622	519,149
1935	64,903	485,893	550,796	44,185	558,813	659,403
1936	75,265	518,047	593,313	114,499	647,918	762,417
1937	113,098	572,445	685,543	128,139	735,414	863,553
1938	169,067	710,540	879,607	134,583	921,346	1,055,929
1939	269,911	736,883	1,006,794	159,031	229,417	1,388,448
1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	150,708	550,140	700,848	169,097	1,007,023	1,176,121

OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (In ¥1,000)				
	1936	1937	1938	1939	
Japan proper	518,047	572,445	710,539	736,882	
Kwantung L.T.	9,901	20,616	18,737	22,952	
Manchoukuo	*55,533	71,527	122,003	205,149	
China	3,702	4,842	22,155	33,566	
British India	388	750	429	475	
Dutch Indies	265	1,021	477	634	
Germany	10	2,261	1,062	336	
The U.S.A.	993	1,474	1,280	3,645	
Africa	—	6,923	1,401	985	
Others	4,474	3,363	1,421	1,864	
Total	593,313	685,542	879,606	1,006,794	

Imports (In ¥1,000)

Japan proper	647,918	735,813	921,345	1,292,417
Kwantung L.T.	6,642	6,928	10,157	8,181
Manchoukuo	59,402	62,227	58,050	80,459
China	15,148	10,367	12,217	10,334
India	208	255	10,788	8,845
Dutch Indies	9,726	8,534	4,260	3,392
Germany	1,042	1,973	1,888	3,939
The U.S.A.	9,151	21,311	17,775	23,521
Philippines	—	1,871	2,335	3,422
Others	13,180	14,273	17,104	16,937
Total	762,417	863,552	1,055,928	1,388,448

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS
AND IMPORTS

In Jan.-Sept. 1939 and 1940

EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1939	1940
Cow	7,697	8,443
Rice	139,785	9,079
Beans	15,653	29,793
Fresh fish	7,471	10,715
Dried fish	5,340	9,444
Dried laver	8,976	15,849
Other marine products	7,226	11,594
Soap	5,545	5,709
Carbide	2,446	6,251
Glycerine	2,465	6,251
Ginned cotton	9,145	15,078
Raw milk	13,217	21,201
Cotton tissues	10,482	5,523

Articles	1939	1940
Rayon tissues	9,393	5,217
Pulp	7,030	6,891
Coal	9,000	17,067
Fish powder	7,202	14,157
Fertilizer	35,966	38,393
Others and total	749,707	700,848

IMPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

Articles	1939	1940
Barley and rye	1,288	20,988
German millet	17,351	15,114
Millet	2,025	5,679
Soya beans	7,828	22,528
Sugar	10,197	9,321
Vegetables	9,389	16,119
Fruits	7,610	15,172
Fresh and dried fish	6,093	7,868
Ginned cotton	7,876	6,440

Articles	1939	1940
Raw silk	12,509	6,840
Woolen tissues	17,144	11,671
Silk tissues	25,435	44,288
Rayon tissues	32,280	8,060
Staple fiber tissues	24,650	15,967
Clothes	16,251	16,910
Papers	17,244	20,213
Coal	27,570	38,311
Cokes	6,447	7,930
Ceramics	8,666	10,358
Nails	7,249	7,119
Electric wire	6,085	7,570
Machinery	101,721	129,276
Fertilizer	21,279	19,737
Others and total	1,007,488	1,176,121

Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centers, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Chosen Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Chosen capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for

many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special Government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been increased to ¥40,000,000.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centers—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. At the end of 1939 the number of banks was 9, together with branch offices of 3 banks in Japan proper. The following gives a more detailed account of the 9 banks:

CONDITIONS OF BANKS IN CHOSEN (In ¥1,000)

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Capital subscribed	100,675	99,175	99,175	99,175	97,175	127,175
Capital paid-in	61,731	65,912	65,981	72,731	71,931	79,431
Reserve funds	22,673	23,829	27,276	29,944	32,106	36,931
Deposits	567,754	609,028	386,191	462,454	624,316	1,550,586
Loans	1,047,339	1,013,146	712,380	957,914	1,053,350	1,915,778

The banking institution which is utilized most by the native people is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one and a half million depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. On March 31, 1940 the number of depositors increased to 6 millions, with the aggregate deposits expanding to ¥112,802,101. The following figures show the annual expansion:

P.O. DEPOSITS

March 31	Number of Depositors	Amount (yen)
1931	2,118,178	38,852,866
1932	2,283,871	41,432,670
1933	2,494,062	40,939,391
1934	2,840,656	44,807,154
1935	3,156,074	52,631,553
1936	3,571,237	54,820,710
1937	3,861,105	60,422,961
1938	4,247,123	68,303,285
1939	5,381,152	87,270,254
1940	6,066,378	112,802,101

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in 1907 by virtue of the Local Credit As-

sociation Regulations promulgated in the same year. The object of the organizations is to assist the Agricultural and Industrial Banks in the capacity of their auxiliaries, accommodate small Chosenese farmers with funds, and look after their interests in several other ways so as to ensure a healthy development of agriculture. Membership is confined to those who engage in agriculture, and each association is organized as a corporate juridical person. The Government endows each association with ¥10,000 as foundation fund or grants subsidy to encourage its development.

Principal business of the associations is to loan funds to the members, and store crops for them. In addition they distribute and loan seeds, seedlings, and fertilizers to their members, and also undertake consignment sales of products for the members.

At the end of June 1940, there were 723 associations with 2,036,434 members and an aggregate paid capital of ¥15,232,000. The progress of these associations is illustrated in the table below.

Year	Associations	Members	Paid-up Capital	Deposit (In ¥1,000)	Advance	Reserve Fund	Government Grant
1929-30	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,931	12,295	3,777
1930-31	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,368	13,131	3,777
1931-32	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	123,842	13,556	3,970
1932-33	674	831,805	9,362	103,752	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933-34	685	1,003,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934-35	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,132
1935-36	698	1,363,537	11,496	153,417	179,325	19,070	4,162
1936-37	709	1,563,391	12,462	162,355	228,464	20,809	4,217
1937-38	719	1,637,323	13,644	179,515	232,178	23,200	—
June 1939	723	1,793,616	14,477	244,652	271,029	28,860	—
" 1940	723	2,036,434	15,323	323,625	362,278	32,864	—

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. In 1939, more than 72 per cent of its entire population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1939 it reached ¥1,644,404,479.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1941

to 1,645,877 cho and 24,885,642 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1939 being 7,570,488, 2,491,564 and 2,995,688 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on

the increase year after year. Third in importance comes soya bean. In earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of native farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical and industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1939 the total area under cultivation was 737,815 cho and the amount produced reached 2,332,782 koku. German millet is for most Chosenese what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Chosenese farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Chosenese people. In 1939, the native production of the grain reached 5,029,171 koku.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighborhood of Moppo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Chosen, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 222,231 cho in 1939, and the crop expanded from 660,000 kin in 1910 to 191,463,222 kin in 1939. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1939 amounted to 210,336,849 kin from the total area of 253,185 cho, as against 21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the Government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apples, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in

Japan. The value of fruits produced in 1939 reached ¥21,467,325, including apples, pears, grapes, peaches, persimmons, etc.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Chosenese farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1939 the number of households was 823,412 and the output was 657,928 koku. The production of raw silk amounted to 598,668 kan valued at ¥43,227,644.

Stock Farming As Chosenese beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1939 increased to 1,705,462. The export of cattle and hides totals ¥14,350,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that in 1939 the former totalled 1,400,038 and the latter 6,976,821, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. Efforts were made since 1919 to raise them but the results were not satisfactory. Since, however, it is of great importance to make Japan self-sufficient in respect to supply of wool, a new plan for encouragement of sheep was formed in 1934. Carried sheep was suited to the climate and soil of Chosen, has been decided upon as the kind to be raised in Chosen. Subvention will be given to private undertakings, and the national sheep breeding grazing ground has been located at Ama, Meisen county of North Kankyo Province. In 1939 the number of sheep reached 37,957.

Conditions of Farm Households. In 1939, the total number of the farm-

households in Chosen was 3,023,133, consisting of 539,629 landed ones, 719,232 semi-landed, 1,583,358 tenanted, 69,280 "fire field," and 111,634 hired; divided into nationalities as 3,013,593 Chosenese households, 6,895 Japanese, and 2,645 Manchoukuoan, Chinese and European. The type and size of farm households in Chosen vary to a large extent. The average size of farm land is about one cho six tan (about four acres), which is larger than the average in Japan proper where the size is just over one cho (2½ acres). However, in Chosen, due to poor methods of cultivation, the yield per tan is only slightly over one koku (5 bushels) while it is two koku in Japan. Supplementary products are as yet hardly worth mentioning. The large ownership of farm land by a few landlords is one of the roots of the difficulties. The majority of farming population have to hand over a greater portion of crops as interest at rates ranging from 3% to 4% per month on borrowed foodstuffs or money in addition to farm rent which is also high.

A farmer working one cho eight tan is regarded as a fairly good farmer in the central or southern Chosen. His annual cash income is, however, as small as ¥100. A farmer less favorably fared obtains ¥48 per year. Majority of farmers are in similar conditions and they form a poverty-stricken community.

Expenditure is always greater than income, as is shown in the table below. The farm household generally suffers from shortage of foodstuffs. It will be seen that deficit is ridiculously small but even a shortage of ¥10 or ¥20 is a great burden to a petty farmer who is altogether unable to make out any plan for covering it.

Eighty per cent of the farming community may be regarded as having debts, bearing interest at 3% or 4% per month.

A Chosenese farmer works from 70 to 100 days a year while a farmer in Japan works from 200 to 250 days. The margin of difference is too great and might be made good use of by Chosenese farmers.

CONDITIONS OF REPRESENTATIVE CHOSENESE FARMERS

Name of farmer	A.—	B.—	C.—
Number of family	6 persons	5 persons	5 persons
" capable of work	2.9 "	2.1 "	2.4 "
Kind of farming	Partly landed	Tenant	Tenant
Area of cultivated land	1 cho 8 tan (4½ acres)	1 cho 2 tan (3 acres)	8 tan (2 acres)
Cash income per year	¥ 98.50	¥ 52.70	¥ 48.40
Expenditure " "	¥121.70	¥ 69.60	¥ 59.20
Deficit " "	¥ 23.20	¥ 16.90	¥ 10.80
Debts " "	¥130.00	¥ 49.00	¥ 52.00
Shortage of foodstuffs	8 "to" of unhulled rice 2 "to" of millet	1 koku of rice 3 to of millet	1 koku of unhulled rice 6 to hulled rice 4 to of millet
Number of days open for further work	290	260	240

In 1939 the total cultivated area was 4,526,757 chobu (a chobu=2.45 acres) including watered field 1,762,774 chobu, upland 2,763,983 chobu and "fire field" (farm land in the mountains) 431,750 chobu. This total area represents about 20 per cent of the total area of Chosen. The average area of farm land for each household is 1.44 chobu. It is larger than in Japan proper, but the productive power of land is much less.

Rural Revival To alleviate the severe agricultural depression, the Government-

General devised a plan in 1932 for recovery of the farm through the effort of farmers themselves. The results have so far been good and farmers regained hope. With improved economic conditions the relation between the Chosenese and Japanese became more harmonious, the industry more active and living conditions of farmers as a whole improved. The concrete result of the plan has been that 4,695 villages comprising over 120,000 households have enlisted in the movement.

Measures Taken for Improvement of Condition of Farmers

Since 1912 steps have been taken to prevent possession of large estates by individuals. Uncultivated state-owned lands were leased to farmers who were willing to personally cultivate it and if the land were properly reclaimed it was given to them gratis. These measures were taken with a view to increase the number of independent farmers.

Tenant farmers, of course, predominate and form the bulk of the farmers. Their lives are miserable, and they have been driven into poverty, by their landlords and their agents. In view of this fact ordinances were put in force in 1920 with a special reference to the method of payment of rent. The ordinances were revised in 1928. In the new ordinances provisions were made for lease contract, farm rent payment, transport of crop, payment of taxes, improvement of yield, supervision of landlords' agents, etc. In 1932 regulations on mediation on tenancy disputes which had as their aim quick settlement of such disputes and lowering of the cost of law suits through simplification of the procedure were issued. Finally in 1934 the Chosen Farmland Ordinance was promulgated by which the safety of tenure of a tenant farmer and the right of his family or heirs were ensured. In accordance with provisions in the Ordinance local tenancy committees settle all questions regarding matters on tenancy, and actions of agents of landlords are subjected to control. This ordinance provides for: (1) the appointment and dismissal of "Saom," or landlord's agent to obviate abuses these agents make of their power; (2) term of lease, which has been made three years at the minimum for ordinary crops and seven years for perennial crops like mulberry, fruit, China grass, paper mulberry, etc., (3) inheritance of privileges and liabilities of the lease by heirs of a tenant; (4) protection of the landlord against sub-lease; (5) payment of farm rent, and reduction of its payment on its postponement in case of crop failure; (6) appointment of tenancy committee and its duties, etc. The Ordinance was put in force on October 20, 1934.

Agricultural experimental stations have been established with staffs of experts and their assistants. Many model villages have been selected and they are shown to farmers in other villages as

models. Many young men have been trained also to get the best out of their farms and to employ their own time most profitably.

Special agricultural courses are now given in common schools to infuse love of work in the mind of young people. Lastly the widespread self-help movement for the improvement of agriculture has been launched to make farmers endeavor to improve their conditions on their own account.

The native farmers are still obliged to sell their produce during harvest time on account of poverty and the lack of warehouses. Large quantities of Chosenese rice are exported to Japan proper in a rush for the period of four or five months after harvest. The Government-General established agricultural warehouses to aid the producers from selling their crops at harvest time, to encourage them to wait for more favorable prices, and to stabilize the exportation of rice. In 1930 the warehouse plan was enlarged, and in addition to the agricultural warehouses in places of production, export warehouses were established at the ports. At the end of August 1940, there were 67 agricultural warehouses and 13 export warehouses with a capacity of 1,285,804 koku and 2,447,911 koku respectively. It is hoped that these warehouses will be instrumental in safeguarding the interests of the rice producers, and in regulating the export.

Forestry

At the end of 1939 the area of forests in Chosen covered 16,313,194 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Chosen, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore, before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded, although in the basins of the northern rivers, the spruce, birch, larch, etc., are to be found, and in those of the central and southern part the red and black pine, oak, alder, bamboo, etc.

In 1939, the total value of forestry production reached ¥192,604,000.

Afforestation Work Undertaken

1908, however, the Chosen government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area thus leased by the end of March 1940 reached 1,673,518 cho of which 910,363 cho has been transferred to the successful planters. Of the entire forest lands 5,460,000 cho is owned by the state, and 120,000 cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. The number of seedlings planted by 1939 reached 5,500 millions. Nor is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Tenno, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbor Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen.

Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Chosenese fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches was only about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1939 it increased to ¥151,098,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from ¥2,650,000 to ¥167,916,692. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in

catching sea-ears and many kinds of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1938 and 1939, the value of each of which exceeds ¥2,000,000:

Kind	1938	1939
	Value	Value
	(In yen)	
Mackerel	5,816,872	8,166,984
Sardine	22,862,512	54,780,078
Sciaena	5,289,537	8,192,117
Herring	2,664,616	4,582,341
Hair-tail	3,045,297	4,729,961
Shrimps	2,095,407	3,758,934
Mintal (Alaska pollack)	10,237,994	21,026,752

Besides these, there are sea-bream, plaice, cod, isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey, mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥2,000,000. The important manufactures of sea products in 1939 were sardine-oil ¥34,181,266, sardine-cake ¥36,896,248, dried mintal ¥22,152,572, fish-meal ¥16,579,721, and dried laver ¥7,633,732,

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Sulan Mine by Englishmen, and Sansel and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists

began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promising gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Chosen hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Helan and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent, is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 570,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 394,000 metric tons were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 176,000

metric tons to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnetite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnetite ores is about 40 per cent on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Chosen, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in appreciable quantities, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen:

MINERAL PRODUCTION

(In ¥1,000)

	1911	1921	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	3,744	2,992	17,809	26,066	33,214	38,320	49,909
Pig iron	—	4,819	4,114	5,605	7,722	7,321	7,866
Coal	388	3,192	5,970	7,205	9,940	11,925	13,300
Iron ore	421	1,716	749	1,287	1,123	1,279	1,429
Copper	—	17	307	417	933	1,535	3,272
Gold and silver ore	262	584	944	1,906	2,511	6,502	9,373
Graphite	153	208	255	465	524	1,207	1,010
Placer gold	821	359	1,823	3,327	5,323	7,136	9,443
Silver	6	4	552	721	1,468	2,558	2,830
Lead	—	—	64	120	306	388	793
Tungsten ore	—	—	29	117	734	1,388	2,293
Zinc ore	21	4	—	97	85	80	240
Steel	—	—	—	—	4,178	6,764	6,533
Others	21	374	487	961	1,111	1,636	2,212
Total	6,069	15,767	33,746	48,301	69,172	88,039	110,503

Note:—The publication of figures has ceased since 1937. The total amount of mineral production in 1937 was valued at ¥150,000,000.

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1939 the total value of manufactures reached ¥1,169,716,551, being over 38 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labor supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 252 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but in 1939 the number

of factories was 6,953 and the total number of employees 270,439.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1939 was as follows:

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

FOR 1939

(In ¥1,000)

Textile industry	156,491
Metallic industry	131,715
Machinery and tools	48,612
Ceramics	36,257
Chemical industry	461,958
Wood works	10,770

Printing and book binding	19,373
Gas and electric	30,462
Foodstuffs	177,806
Others	96,269
Total	1,169,716

Of the total 1,140 million yen in 1938, ¥282,000,000 was the production by the so-called household industries, outside factories managed by industrial companies or where more than five operatives are employed.

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgments rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology. The number of persons kept in prisons was 17,546 at the end of July 1940.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters en-

trusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. The police force in 1938 was 21,782.

Education

In the old days Chosenese children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Chosenese children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Chosenese people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition fee was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster Oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meirongakuin (Confucian Institute) at the Keigakuin (formerly known to Chosenese as the "Songkyun Kwan"), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Chosenese sentiment.

(1) The Chosenese language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Chosenese children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

(2) The teaching of Chosenese history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Chosenese children.

(3) Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and cus-

toms of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Ministry of Japan, but schools for Chosenese children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Chosenese are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the common school is six years while that of the higher and girls' higher common schools is two years. Chosenese children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in develop-

ing the education in Chosen. With the gradual increase of elementary schools more teachers, especially women, are in demand; therefore in April 1935 the Keijo Women's Normal School was established, and the training course at the Keijo Normal School was closed.

In April 1936 a new Government Normal School was established in Zensyu, and in April 1937 the Kanko Normal School, in April 1938, Kosu Normal School and Kosu Women's Normal School, and in April 1939, Shunsen Normal School were opened.

The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1937:

	1937		1938		1939	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Kindergartens	333	19,998	337	21,104	348	21,792
Elementary schools	3,106	990,993	3,220	1,143,362	3,372	1,311,470
Short course elementary schools	927	60,077	1,145	76,192	1,327	86,797
Middle schools	43	23,407	50	25,822	53	27,867
Girl's high schools	51	19,072	54	20,716	57	22,277
Business schools	62	20,323	77	22,331	83	25,969
Elementary industrial schools	125	6,325	135	7,413	143	8,091
Normal schools	6	3,758	8	4,959	10	5,565
Colleges	15	4,252	15	4,373	18	4,915
University preparatory school	1	461	1	514	1	542
University	1	516	1	501	1	558
Total	4,670	1,149,182	5,043	1,327,287	5,413	1,516,025

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

There are still a large number of Sohtang, which are old fashioned Chinese style schools where Chinese classics and brush-writing are taught. At the end of March 1940, the number was 4,686 with 164,507 pupils. These schools are now utilized by the Government as agencies to foster public education and are controlled by regulations on Sohtang.

Short Course Elementary School Two million Chosenese children of school age are still unable to attend school, most of them living in remote agricultural and mountainous districts where it is not yet possible to provide educational facilities. To give some education to these children the Government introduced a plan to establish short course elementary schools with a two year course, which was put into force in April 1934. The plan has been very

popular in the country districts and the number of these schools established was very great. In May 1939, they numbered 1,327 with 86,979 pupils.

Chosenese Students in Japan The Chosenese students in Japan proper numbered 11,007 in October 1939, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are after graduation given official or educational positions.

Reform in 1938 In view of the advance of Chosenese education in recent years and the advisability of raising the position of the educated Chosenese to the same standard as the Japan-

ese, the Government-General of Chosen made a general revision of the Chosen Education Law in March 1938, according to which all the people in Chosen, Chosenese and Japanese alike, are educated in elementary and secondary schools just as in Japan proper, and the former differences in courses of study between Chosenese and Japanese were altogether wiped out.

Chosenese for Defense Service

Chosen has been defended by the Chosen Army which solely consisted of Japanese officials and soldiers. But the present China Affair gave Chosenese an opportunity to show their loyalty to the Government-General and the Emperor, and their earnestness in requesting their share in defense services and in other relative works has been much appreciated by the authorities and the people of Japan in general. And to comply with the request an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated in February 1938, according to which Chosenese are allowed, for the first time, to enter military service as volunteers.

The Chosen Government-General announced, in April, to receive 400 Chosenese volunteers, for which as many as 3,000 Chosenese young men immediately responded. The required number was chosen from among the three thousand and 200 of whom were first enlisted as military students in the Chosen Government-General Institute for Training Military Volunteers, which was established near Keijo, the capital. They were graduated from the Institute at the end of November 1938, after 6 months of training to be the pioneer Chosenese constituent in the Imperial Army. In 1940-41, the Government-General announced to increase the number of Chosenese volunteers to 3,000, for which the responses reached 84,400 in number; two were killed in action in the Sino-Japanese hostilities in September 1939.

Religion

Buddhism Buddhism first entered Chosen about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books," and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited

and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequences that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that there were, at the end of 1939, 1,666 temples and preaching places, 6,662 monks and nuns and 198,200 Chosenese adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendokyo, which is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Chosenese Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Chosenese masses, and at the end of 1939 there were 131 temples, 636 preaching houses, 802 priests, and 334,000 believers including 37,500 Chosenese.

Shintoism At the end of 1939 there were in Chosen 53 Shinto shrines, while 11 Shinto sects had 305 preaching halls, 633 priests and 98,800 adherents including 20,400 Chosenese.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and

devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Chosenese converts was renewed with vigor, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its Government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Chosen. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. There were, at the end of 1939, 5,289 preaching houses, 4,763 missionaries including 436 foreigners and 508,900 adherents including 6,400 Japanese, 502,200 Chosenese and 200 foreigners.

Communications and Transportation

Highways Highways existed in Chosen in olden times. The Peking highway, which was one of them, connected Peking with Gishu and Keijo, and through that way embassies were exchanged between the old Chosen and China. But in later years they were left in ruin. Under the Residency-General work for new ones was started with a sum of ¥1,500,000. As the

first stage plan construction of four new lines aggregating 254.80 km. in four provinces was commenced in 1907, and in 1908 on another 196 km. highway in various provinces. In 1909 construction of three more highways totalling 188.16 km. in length was started, together with widening and readjusting works of streets in Keijo, Tai-kyu and Jinsen. In 1910 construction of 12 roads extending 164.64 km. in length was also commenced.

Since 1910 the Governor-General devised a plan to improve highway facilities through a construction of 23 roads extending over 2,263.60 km. with a sum of ¥10,000,000. The work was to run for five years consecutively, beginning with the fiscal year 1911.

At the end of 1938, the total highways in Chosen extended 27,731 km., including 38 first class roads 3,236 km., 97 second class roads 9,976 km., and 516 third class roads 14,675 km.

Railways The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year program laid in 1927. The program covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometers and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu Riri Railway, totalling 339 kilometers. At the end of August 1940, the total government-owned railway kilometers reached 4,293.3 kilometers in active operation, a portion of which run by the South Manchuria Railway Company. The following gives some idea of the development of railways run by the government up to 1938.

	Length k.m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000
1935	3,389	29,344,188	8,667,642	56,477,897
1936	3,575	33,708,178	9,980,227	65,036,058
1937	3,737	35,906,000	11,369,000	76,909,000
1938	3,831	—	—	95,133,000

As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made

rapid progress, and in 1938 their total mileage reached 1,252 kilometers operated by 10 companies, carried 418,000 passengers and 2,920,000 tons with the receipts of ¥10,268,000.

Tramways The main tramway line now in operation are 5 with aggregate mileage of 81.4 km.

Bus At the end of June 1940, there were 150 persons engaged in bus business with business lines extending 30,546.7 km.

Navigation There were at the end of 1939, 1,943 steamships and 14,857 sailing boats with the total tonnage of 311,352 tons, their routes being interport, Chosen-Japan and Chosen-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in recent years:

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,920	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429
1935	870	64,641	10,502	134,386
1936	1,134	70,184	11,726	150,473
1937	1,398	100,014	13,154	169,355
1938	1,773	110,079	14,125	186,850
1939	1,943	118,391	14,857	192,961

Navigable Rivers The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Everwhite" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingshu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighborhood of Chinnampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel) 344 km. (Navigable course), Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea) 300 km., Kinko 130 km., and Tumen 85 km.

Airways There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Besides that in the following places ground marks are set up: Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Sharifu, Heijo, Teishu and Shingshu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed

a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Dai-Nippon Airways Company.

Post, Telegraph and Telephone Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. At the end of August 1940, they numbered 1,296 including 203 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in 1939 amounted to 373,034,491 and 408,168,577, that of parcels to 3,802,939 and 5,016,834 and that of telegrams to 13,713,835 and 14,029,227 respectively. In November 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February 1927. Fusan Office was opened in 1935, Heijo Office in 1936 and Seishin Office in 1937. At the end of 1939 there were 167,049 subscribers.

Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigor so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to food-stuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1939 hospitals numbered 148 including government institutions, and there were 3,392 licensed medical prac-

tioners which meant that there was only one physician for every 6,721 of population. Dentists numbered 908. The number of deaths caused by infectious diseases was 3,532 out of 19,849 patients.

Prohibition of Opium Smoking Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of opium-smoking among the Chosenese people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. The following is the policy being pursued by the Government-General since 1929 in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking:

1. Efforts shall be made to cure all morphine addicts within ten years.

2. All addicts shall be registered and a fixed quantity of morphine admin-

istered.

3. The Government-General shall monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine which is supplied to the registered addicts above mentioned.

4. Stricter control of morphine shall be enforced and no morphine be used by persons other than registered addicts, and heavier punishments be provided for smugglers and secret sellers of morphine.

5. Schools and other institutions of social culture shall educate the public in order to prevent the development of addicts and to assist the already cured to avoid relapse.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in 1935 the Ordinance of Control of Narcotics was issued the result of which was very good and the number of registered addicts was only 315 at the end of 1935 as against 3,278 in 1930.

CHAPTER XLI
TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

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CHAPTER XLI

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Taiwan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 111° 30' to 122° 08' E. longitude, and from 7° to 25° 38' N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,961.20 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent of the total area of Japan, little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 meters, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population centers. The valley on the west coast is the principal population center.

That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Taiwan was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives, Chosenese and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners are mostly Chinese (45,367 at the end of 1940). The number of Western people is small (115 at the end of 1940). The natives are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coast across the Taiwan Straits, composing 94 per cent of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show the estimated number of the population at the end of 1936-1939:

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Japanese	282,012	299,280	308,845	323,148
Chosenese	1,694	1,985	1,903	2,260
Natives	5,108,914	5,261,404	5,392,806	5,524,990
Aboriginal savages	152,350			
Chinese	59,015	46,373	43,405	45,466
Foreigners	228			
Total	5,451,863	5,609,042	5,746,959	5,895,864

Including the savages, the census population on October 1, 1940, in Taiwan was 5,872,084 (men, 2,970,655; women, 2,901,429), showing an increase of 2,832,333 over that at the end of 1905, when the first census results were

announced.

The areas, population, number of counties and districts and number of towns and villages of five provinces, three districts and nine cities at the end of 1939 follow:

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of Counties or Sub-districts	No. of Towns and Villages
Taihoku province	297.8	1,159,648	9	38
Shinchiku "	296.3	796,340	8	42
Taichu "	478.6	1,313,419	11	57
Tainan "	351.5	1,488,429	10	66

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of Counties or Sub-districts	No. of Towns and Villages
Takao province	370.9	848,892	7	43
Taito district	227.9	85,001	3	11
Karenko "	300.0	135,615	3	9
Boko "	8.2	68,520	2	5
Total	2,331.5	5,895,864	53	271
Taihoku city	4.3	340,114	—	—
Keelung "	3.0	100,182	—	—
Shichiku "	2.3	59,983	—	—
Shoka "	4.2	58,491	—	—
Taichu "	1.3	81,614	—	—
Tainan "	3.4	131,079	—	—
Kagi "	3.6	90,235	—	—
Takao "	2.6	118,435	—	—
Heito "	4.0	53,999	—	—
Total	29.0	1,034,132	—	—

The Climate Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest temperature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Forest is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused.

During a 38-year period ending in 1934, Taiwan was hit by severe typhoons no less than 91 times; of these, as many as 7 occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes registered in the island or the neighboring seas during 28 years ending 1936, was 9,248, which means 330 a year or nearly one every day.

Administration System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in April of the following year. The Taiwan Govern-

ment-General came under the supervision of the Minister for Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June 1929. The Governor-General invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Taiwan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honors through the Minister for Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. He is assisted by the Vice Governor-General. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of seven bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau, Rice Bureau, and Police Affairs Bureau. There are also the Planning Department and the Foreign Affairs Department. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the seven bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on

laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 11 cities and 51 counties. There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs all under the Government-General.

Taiwan in the Emergency

Taiwan situated nearest to China and the South Seas among the territories of the Empire has continued studies of South China and the South Seas Islands since the establishment of the Japanese rule. When the China Affair broke out in 1937 the Taiwan Government-General began to take part earnestly in the accomplishment of war purposes of the home government, creating new sections in the central offices, and, when it developed to the present Greater East Asia War in 1941, it has made invaluable contributions toward the southward movement of the Imperial Army and Navy, the island being at the most convenient geographic position for such movement, and toward the execution of their war plans in the southern regions or the reconstruction of the occupied areas, with its knowledge of the South Seas and presenting valuable data it gathered during recent years.

In consonance with the strengthening of national structure in Japan proper, the Government-General proclaimed the National General Mobilization, beginning with the spiritual unity of all races in the Island. Then, followed control measures for the increase of production, restriction of imports and promotion of exports, distribution of daily necessities, regulation of commodity prices, distribution of labor and proper plans for land and sea transportation.

In August 1937 a new Department of Information was created in the Government-General, while each of local governments followed the example, to have the islanders fully informed of the actual situation of general affairs, national and international, and to awaken them in their duties for the country.

The Komin Hoko Kai (Imperial Subjects Service Association) was organized on April 14, 1941, as the national organization of all subjects in the island in concert with the Taisei Yokusan Kai

(Imperial Rule Assistance Association) in Japan proper and similar organizations in the other overseas territories. The purpose of the Association is to firmly establish a strong defense system and to cooperate for the construction of new order in East Asia, each person living in the Island faithfully executing his duty, as the subject of the Emperor and the member of the association, in accordance with the sacred principles of the Imperial Ancestors. The Governor-General is, ex officio, president of the Association, and the inhabitants are necessarily its members. The president is assisted by an advisory council and the head of the central office. The Vice-Governor-General is appointed head of the central office and actually supervises the general affairs of the Association, besides presiding over the meetings of the advisory council. The central office consists of the six sections of general affairs, local affairs, training, living, propaganda and finance. Local offices are established in the governments of the 5 provinces and 3 districts.

Police and Judicature

The Police The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary services and aboriginal police service. At the end of 1940 the police force in Taiwan was 12,466, including all ranks. The police in aboriginal districts are re-enforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among natives. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1898. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must

be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,812 at the end of 1940. In July 1938 the economic police was created in order to enforce laws concerning economic control.

Special Police The aborigines in Taiwan numbered 158,321 at the end of 1940. Of the total, 62,753 are living in the districts under ordinary police. The remaining 95,568 are savages still living in the mountains. The land of these savages extends over 16,166 square kilometers or about 44 per cent of the total area of the island. In order to keep peace and order in the savage part of the land and to help and educate the savages, a special police system is established, which is worked by 5,271 policemen, medical men and social workers. Protection and guidance are the main purposes of the special police, and there are established 180 schools, 42 medical offices, 195 small hospitals and 111 trading offices in the parts occupied by the savages.

The savages have been civilized with years, and the number of criminal cases was 293, including only 5 cases of killing in 1940, a decrease of 173 cases as compared with the preceding year. The aborigines keep guns as a household treasure. But they are persuaded to exchange the dangerous weapons with farming tools, and 1,350 rifles were voluntarily brought into the police offices in 1940, making a total of 37,588 during past 40 years. Since the commencement of the China Affair the aborigines have rendered services to the Imperial Army or made contributions in money amounting to ¥3,195 in 1940 to make a total of ¥22,333. They are instructed in the agricultural industry to get away from savage ways of living. In 1940 they had the harvested area of 3,918 ko for rice crop, besides raising cocoons, hemp, sugar canes, etc. They also raise live-stock such as buffaloes, cattle, goats and pigs. Those who were in high mountains have been encouraged to move to fertile valleys for farming, and the number of the households thus migrated to low land reached 6,830 including 39,280 persons, by 1940.

The rate of attendance to primary schools in 1940 was 85 per cent of the school age children, the enrollment numbering 12,036. Those who finished primary courses number 23,426 among the aborigines. Many of them advanced to

secondary and higher educational institutions. In 1940 the trading offices handled the products of the aborigines valued at ¥1,069,947 shipped from and goods valued at ¥576,429 brought into the savage land. The number of cases treated by the medical service aggregated to 1,405,387 by the end of 1940.

Judicature The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts viz., the supreme court and five district courts, the latter having three branches and 38 offices in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The number of prisoners at the end of July 1941 was 5,031.

Religion and Education

Religion There are 59 Shinto shrines in Taiwan. The Taiwan Shrine is a first-rank Government shrine and is the central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa, who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

In 1940 the number of the native temples and shrines of Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism was 3,638, and that of the native religious societies was 6,278. In regard to religious beliefs introduced by the Japanese, Buddhist sects had 111,601 adherents, sectarian Shintoists 33,909, and Christian denominations 58,798.

Education The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese. The classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools, Taiwan had at the end of April 1941, 95 kindergartens, 19 middle schools, 19 girls' schools, 20 business schools, middle school grade, 6 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was

founded in March 1928. It consists of and politics, physics and agriculture and three departments, namely, literature | medicine.

The number of schools and pupils at the end of April 1941 was as follows:

	Schools	Teachers or Professors	Pupils or Students
Primary education	1,000	12,076	740,693
Normal schools (May)	6	225	{ Japanese 2,122 Natives 385
Higher school	1	51	{ Japanese 161 Natives 78
Preparatory course in the University (June)	1	19	{ Japanese 22 Natives 11
Middle schools	19	498	{ Japanese 6,069 Natives 6,006 Others 25
Girls schools	19	438	{ Japanese 6,208 Natives 3,574 Others 13
Business schools (agriculture, industry, commerce)	20	506	{ Japanese 4,372 Natives 5,100 Others 29
Business schools (Lower)	79	468	{ Boys 6,802 Girls 4,960
Colleges (technical, agricultural and commercial schools)	4	236	{ Japanese 1,141 Natives 244
Imperial University	1	*713	{ Japanese 267 Natives 76 Chosenese 2
Schools for the blind and the mute	17	28	{ Japanese 30 Natives 324 Others 2
Miscellaneous secondary schools	11	161	{ Japanese 618 Natives 2,482 Others 14
Kindergartens	95	233	{ Japanese 2,546 Natives 5,796 Others 8
Total	1,273	15,652	800,180

Social Work

The Government-General of Taiwan early paid attention to the need of promoting social works in the island

and has given aids to facilities and organizations. In March 1939 their number reached over 1,600, as detailed below.

NUMBER OF FACILITIES OR ORGANIZATIONS FOR SOCIAL WORK IN TAIWAN

(March 1940)

Branches of Work	Facilities or Organizations	Branches of Works	Facilities or Organizations
General organs		Relief	
Unifying and investigation organs	10	Poor relief	274
Block Committees	244	For the sick and the dead on wayside	8
Organs for promotion	98	Relief in calamities	8

Note: (*) including administrative officials.

	Facilities or Organ- izations
Branches of Works	
Private military relief	8
Economic protection	
Employment exchange	5
Giving works	5
Lodging	16
Supply of dwelling houses	11
Public bath	88
Public market	244
Public pawnshop	16
Accommodation of small funds	5
Medical protection	
General medical service	64
Special medical service	14
Protection of children and women	
Orphanage	2
Protection and education of children	194
Reformatory instruction	1
Education of deformed children	315
Health consultation	8
Pleasure-ground for children	5
Midwifing	142
Special protection of women	1
Cultural work	
Temperance	3
Protection of discharged prisoners	170
Improvement of customs and manners	37
Settlement work	7
Personal consultation	25
Improvement of villages	1
Promotion of school attendance	19
Total	1,856

Medicine

At the end of 1940 the number of public and private hospitals in Taiwan was 298; physicians 2,401; dental surgeons 446; assistant practitioners 349; and midwives 2,026.

The number of pharmacists in public employment was 81, while pharmacists in private pharmacies numbered 170. The number of manufacturers of medicine was 26; pharmacies for modern medicine 333, those for Chinese medicine 1,836. Manufacturers of ready-made medicines numbered 853, while traders in those medicines numbered 6,596.

Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made

a rapid development and the total farm production in 1939 was worth ¥536,890,000, composing about 50 per cent of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1899 was 363,290 ko (one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to 887,142 ko at the end of 1940, more than double that of 36 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1931 has been as follows:

Year	Paddy Field (In 1,000 ko)	Dry Land	Total
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	845
1934	463	388	851
1935	493	363	856
1936	533	338	872
1937	544	338	883
1938	534	341	884
1939	546	339	886
1940	546	341	887

People engaged in agriculture are about 51 per cent of the total population. At the end of 1940 their number was 2,984,258 of whom tenant-farmers were 1,104,836, landed farmers 928,251 and landed tenant-farmers 951,170.

Rice Crops The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1940 was about 8,000,000 koku. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice is, known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1940 totalled 658,427 ko and the crop amounted to 7,901,492 koku for two crops a year. The plantation area and rice crop since 1931 follow:

	Plantation Areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1931	653,380	7,479,546
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	696,423	8,361,539
1934	687,664	9,088,886
1935	699,675	9,122,157
1936	702,685	9,553,390
1937	678,082	9,234,244
1938	644,793	9,816,589
1939	645,549	9,151,719
1940	658,427	7,901,492

More than one half of the annual crop of rice is exported to Japan proper.

But, the acute situation in the distribution of staple provisions in Japan proper compelled the passage of a bill relating to the control of import of Taiwan rice into Japan proper at the 74th session of the Imperial Diet, and the law was put into force as from October 1, 1939, the main purpose of which is to control the export of Taiwan rice to Japan proper by prohibiting free export, the Government-General taking whole responsibility into its own hand.

Sweet Potatoes Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centers are Tainan, Taichu and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1935 totalled 44,332,580 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥1,290,529. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1940 crop totalled 2,520,700,744 kin. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 136,580 for 1940.

Tea Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export totalled once as much as ¥11,500,000, though it has somewhat declined in recent years.

The tea production amounted to 20,808,765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1940 amounted to 19,474,445 kin (in the area of 47,055 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea was exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Thailand. Black tea is extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, lungyen, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1940, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

	Yielding Area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1940	1900	1940
Peanuts	11,958	31,567	120,838	567,646
Beans	11,365	15,840	50,281	58,778
Barley	1,479	9,024	11,460	4,253
Wheat	1,857	5,788	11,282	29,365
Sesame seeds	6,889	4,717	36,279	14,906
Jute	1,155	—	1,481,548 (kin)	—
Hemp	1,654	1,921	1,022,063 (kin)	1,091,536 (kin)
Tobacco	240	3,283	363,900 (kg.)	5,916,486 (kg.)
Oranges	752	5,285	4,725,000 (kin)	52,928,779 (kin)
	(1909)		(1909)	
Pineapples	—	10,225	—	128,858,216 (pieces)
Lungyen	—	622,332 (trees)	—	18,780,694 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥24,386,681

The export of raw pineapples for 1939 totalled ¥389,092 and that of canned pineapples ¥13,329,928.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Taichu province, where 52 per cent of the total production is obtained. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice

and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1940 totalled 2,692,359 baskets, one basket being 75 kin. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased in 1940 to 19,217 ko with a crop of 282,108,625 kin.

Live-stock The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1939 was

324,780 of which buffaloes numbered 266,136. Buffaloes play the most important rôle in agriculture. Hog-raising industry is widely maintained and hogs are kept by almost all native farmers. Their number at the end of 1939 was 1,653,210, having increased three-and-half times since the cession of the island to Japan. Poultry consists of chicken and geese, their total number at the end of 1939 being 9,043,336.

Sericulture It was in 1912 that sericulture was started in the island. Before that year no sericulture existed there. It took nearly 10 years before native farmers appreciated it as a sideline. This industry is becoming important among farmers. In the first year the cocoon crop amounted to only 84 koku and it increased to 38,490 kg. in 1939. One of the unique features of sericulture in Taiwan is that silkworms can be raised at any time of the year, since even during the winter-time mulberry leaves are grown. Moreover, no insect ravage is experienced in the island. The cost of production is scarcely half of that in Japan.

Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the center of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper consumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

Dr. Nitobé's Plan Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted in the present industrial prosperity. The late Dr. Inazo Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial

irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931-32 totalled ¥12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry.

The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations, cane crop and crop per ko (see "Japanese Weights and Measures") since 1930-31:

Sugar Plantation year	area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1930-31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110.44
1931-32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122.51
1932-33	83,690	8,782,001,849	104.83
1933-34	91,163	8,883,801,544	97.45
1934-35	121,628	13,477,260,178	110.80
1935-36	128,329	13,190,389,434	102.78
1936-37	124,555	14,271,874,413	114.55
1937-38	134,206	15,101,099,328	112.52
1938-39	149,834	19,602,120,652	130.83
1939-40	152,409	15,487,490,000	101.62

Production of Sugar The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process; moreover, the product was inferior. In 1938 there were only 62 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. The modern equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial

following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns were established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In the sugar year 1941 (Nov. 1941—Oct. 1942) there were 49 mills. Most of them produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. The aggregate amount of the authorized capital of

sugar companies in 1927 was ¥290,000,000. It increased to ¥284,920,000 at the end of 1941, ¥217,112,000 paid up. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It increased to 1,678,920,000 kin in 1937, and to the highest record of 2,364,550,976 kin in 1939, but decreased to 1,887,500,000 kin in 1940.

JOINT-STOCK SUGAR COMPANIES

(At the end of 1941)

Companies	Head Offices	Subscribed (In ¥1,000)	Paid-up	No. of Mills
Taiwan Sugar	Helto, Takao province	64,200	44,280	14
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	58,000	45,200	7
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	96,170	85,083	19
Ensulko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	60,000	36,937	7
Taito Sugar	Taito	3,000	2,062	1
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	3,550	3,550	1
Total		284,920	217,112	

YEARLY COMPARISON OF SUGAR PRODUCTION

(In kin)

Year (Nov.-Oct.)	Mechanically-operated Mills	Improved Mills	Primitive Mills	Total
1931	1,311,805,427	9,584,858	7,458,389	1,328,798,674
1932	1,628,731,287	11,240,564	8,441,111	1,648,415,962
1933	1,028,066,503	16,784,410	11,356,418	1,056,207,331
1934	1,057,338,553	7,869,235	13,197,643	1,078,405,431
1935	1,571,186,721	16,656,732	21,577,230	1,609,420,683
1936	1,467,586,586	17,336,027	17,875,478	1,502,798,091
1937	1,645,751,379	17,371,682	15,797,097	1,678,920,158
1938	1,610,925,338	22,435,302	16,906,172	1,650,266,812
1939	2,290,071,794	41,114,942	33,364,240	2,364,550,976
1940	—	—	—	1,887,500,000

Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on the mountains in the central ranges, from Taihysan in the south to the peninsula of Koshun; those on famous

Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodaisan in the north; and those on Mt. Seiran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Daku-sul and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan in 1937 was 2,496,749 ko, of which 2,215,314 ko were government owned forests. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turned out in 1939 amounted to ¥6,474,157. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate

forest administration by the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

Timber Industry The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 9,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,090 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains.

The lumber industry on Mt. Taihei near Rato town in Taihoku province and Mt. Hassen in Shinchiku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island.

Sales of lumber from these mountains totalled ¥1,245,554 in 1916; ¥4,327,821 in 1937; and ¥7,245,594 in 1940.

Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for

building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dock-yards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Chosen, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places.

Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shell-fish, and catches are especially abundant in spring and autumn. Fishing is to a great extent still conducted in a primitive manner. There are, however, now 56 fishing companies of which 2 have their head offices in Japan proper and the rest in the island with capitalization of ¥101,500,000 for the former and ¥6,401,000 for the latter. There were 101 fish markets in the island at the end of 1939, and the total fish sales there during the year amounted to ¥23,938,669 and showed an increase of ¥1,840,598. The Takao Fish Market led the list. The Taiwanese are a fish-eating people, but the annual catch is so great that a large quantity is exported to Japan proper and other countries. Taiwan's marine product trade for 1939 amounted to ¥25,927,114. Trade figures including exports abroad totalling ¥7,949,199, imports from abroad totalling ¥308,532, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥3,949,308 and imports from these districts totalling ¥18,720,075. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry. The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥2,500,000 a greater part of which is accounted for by the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows:

	Catches	Manufactures (In yen)	Cultivated Fish Production	Total
1936	14,934,405	2,500,298	4,207,178	21,641,881
1937	14,513,106	2,324,009	4,545,292	21,382,407
1938	15,670,812	2,358,530	5,525,265	23,554,607
1939	25,183,328	3,328,138	6,582,465	35,093,931
1940	38,894,399	6,719,467	6,644,560	52,258,426

Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The

mine-lots at the end of 1940, numbered 914 with a total area of 305,187.62 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. The mineral production during the past five years, 1933-1937, follows:

	1933	1934	1935 (In yen)	1936	1937
Gold	1,681,592	1,581,328	3,494,040	4,223,712	4,451,000
Gold-copper ores	3,709,157	3,773,194	3,995,854	5,881,080	7,214,000
Placer-gold	57,017	94,730	62,477	159,509	—
Silver	16,632	8,472	21,542	16,746	—
Copper	294,388	274,484	376,072	469,830	—
Gold ores	—	66,633	2,330,178	2,076,851	2,119,000
Quicksilver	—	—	—	—	—
Coal	6,571,195	7,681,689	9,868,193	11,364,943	15,014,000
Sulphur	37,148	62,075	65,553	87,034	—
Phosphorous ores	—	—	365	851	—
Petroleum	245,944	424,677	384,860	312,159	—
Gasolene	994,003	574,857	490,383	456,396	—
Carbon black	205,527	341,079	516,125	291,554	—
Others and total	13,950,888	14,196,250	22,838,751	28,726,978	36,223,000

Note: Figures for most of minerals are not published since 1937.

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil seepages were found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1936 to as much as ¥15,186,250. Of this more than 50 per cent was coal, gold-copper ores 25 per cent; gasolene 4 per cent; gold 10 per cent; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order: petroleum, carbon black, copper, placer-gold, gold ore, and sulphur.

Gold and Silver Placer-gold was first discovered by Japanese invaders in Taiwan over 400 years ago, when Japanese pirates infested the neighboring coasts of China. It was then got at Takkiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was

most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8,267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in 1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki were merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung. It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery. In 1939 new placer-gold fields covering vast areas were discovered in the island, and the gold mining industry is prospering. The mine-lots on January 1, 1940, numbered 94 with a total area of 20,584,212 tsubo and the mines in operation numbered 46 covering an area of 11,439,711 tsubo.

Oil Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1906, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owning, however, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kin-

sui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasoline, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Byoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasoline, 5 per cent, lamp oil 85 per cent, heavy oil 8 per cent and wax.

The kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took 11 years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous output of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March 1930, and a gasoline plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasoline plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasoline will be 1,000 koku.

Industrial Productions

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The value of industrial products for 1940 was as follows:

	(In yen)
Spinning Industry	9,070,000
Hemp tissues	5,570,000
Metal Industry	31,290,000
Tin cans "	3,620,000
Machinery Industry	24,000,000
Machine and tools	19,040,000
Food Industry (Including sugar)	382,260,000
Tea	22,300,000
Canned pineapples	20,850,000
Confectionaries	7,270,000
Macaroni, etc.	6,200,000
Chemical Industry	62,250,000
Mixed fertilizers	12,450,000
Paper	7,170,000
Oil cake	3,120,000
Kiln Industry	14,750,000
Cement	5,370,000
Bricks	4,220,000
Printing and Binding	8,030,000
Printing	7,830,000
Wood Works	7,850,000
Miscellaneous	31,210,000
Hats	3,650,000
Total	570,720,000

The total output of all kinds of indus-

try for 1940 in yen was as follows:

Agriculture	551,826,343
Fisheries	35,088,930
Forestry	22,299,688
Manufacturing industry	570,763,323
Total	1,179,978,289

Number and Capital of Companies

At the end of 1939 the total number of commercial and industrial companies in Taiwan was 1,641, with an aggregate amount of authorized capital of ¥779,127,486, of which ¥467,795,000 paid up.

NUMBER AND CAPITAL OF COMPANIES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO ENTERPRISE (At the end of 1939)

Branches of Industry	Number of Companies	Authorized Capital (In yen)	Percentage of Capital
Agriculture	86	51,568,120	6.6
Fisheries	18	18,157,500	2.3
Mining	23	27,506,500	3.5
Manufacturing	492	484,249,380	62.2
Commerce	847	169,980,186	21.8
Transportation	175	27,665,800	3.6
Total	1,641	779,127,486	100.0

Overseas Trade

The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary setbacks from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India and the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1939 amounted to ¥30,000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥24,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1935 is as follows:

TOTAL VALUE OF OVERSEAS TRADE

	Exports Abroad and exports to Japan Proper and its Territories	Imports from Abroad and Japan Proper and its Territories	Total	Index (Normal Year, 1897)
		(In yen)		
1935	305,744,673	263,119,746	613,864,419	1,965
1936	387,948,978	292,685,948	680,634,926	2,178
1937	440,174,995	322,123,742	762,298,737	2,440
1938	456,453,837	366,659,192	823,113,029	2,635
1939	592,938,199	408,650,840	1,001,588,039	3,206

TAIWAN'S FOREIGN TRADE WITH THIRD COUNTRIES

	Exports	Imports (In yen)	Total	Excess of Imports
1935	36,544,190	44,978,909	81,523,099	8,434,719
1936	29,053,980	48,854,419	77,908,399	19,800,439
1937	29,916,109	44,228,818	74,144,927	14,312,709
1938	36,349,923	38,709,142	75,059,065	2,359,219
1939	83,194,628	51,042,833	134,236,461	32,152,795

(Note: Kwantung L.T., Manchoukuo and China included) (Excess of exports)

Finance and Economy

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November 1927, due to its readjustment following the great financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 31 branches and two agencies in Japan and abroad (see Chapter IX). The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan

in the island at the end of June 1941 amounted to ¥122,800,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of June 1941 was ¥43,300,000, of which ¥35,000,000 was paid up. The balance of deposits at the end of June 1941 was ¥373,100,000 of which savings deposits totalled ¥39,120,000 and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥478,200,000. Exchange deals for the 1937-1939 fiscal year totalled ¥1,440,730,000 for income and ¥1,402,370,000 for payment. The average amount of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of June 1941 totalled ¥197,900,000.

Deposits in post offices amounted to ¥55,917,423 as outstanding at the end of March 1941.

DEPOSITS IN POST OFFICES

End of March	Number of Depositors	Increase (In percentage)	Deposits (In yen)	Increase over the previous year (In percentage)
1936	574,423	0.54	23,682,297	1.08
1937	604,373	0.52	25,925,162	0.95
1938	633,053	0.47	27,106,748	0.45
1939	905,321	4.30	34,838,764	2.85
1940	1,066,520	1.78	44,214,908	2.69
1941	1,239,409	1.39	55,917,423	2.09

Government-General Finance The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of

the Central Government since the 1905-06 fiscal year, owing to favorable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million

yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and Expenditure follow:

	Revenue	Expenditure	
	(In yen)		
1932	120,303,279	97,240,295	1933
			1934
			1935
			1936
			1937
			1938
			1939
			1940
			1941 (Budget)
			1942 (")

130,812,152	102,220,615
141,617,595	112,176,633
156,549,367	123,943,964
175,771,836	133,938,988
202,836,543	156,444,600
233,817,392	183,406,722
288,498,326	217,435,888
352,908,590	262,907,564
315,157,971	315,157,971
358,079,121	358,079,121

BUDGET FOR 1942-43

Revenue

(In yen)

Ordinary Revenue

Taxes	53,672,723
Stamp receipts	7,897,326
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	231,710,288
Payments from the Bank of Taiwan	1,320,102
Miscellaneous	6,211,891
Total of ordinary revenue	300,812,330

Extraordinary Revenue

Taxes	28,757,604
Proceeds of sale of Government properties	1,692,839
Miscellaneous	135,882
Interest on advances and refunding	1,680,250
Payments by public bodies for public works	2,921,824
Shares assumed by public bodies for public works	1,600,474
Receipts anent the export compensation system	18,720
Special Account, Reserve Fund, for the Export Control of Taiwan Rice	2,403,852
Special Account for the Export Control of Taiwan Rice	7,732,600
Receipt from the Special Account of Gold Fund	791,264
Replenishment from the National Treasury	231,482
Public loans	9,300,000
Total of extraordinary revenue	57,266,791
Grand total of revenue	358,079,121

Expenditure

Ordinary Expenditure

Shrines	64,000
The Government-General Office	5,431,657
Provincial Offices	18,725,766
Custom houses	683,433
Judicial expenses	1,674,840
Prison expenses	1,728,208
Police and prison police training institute	327,207
Hospitals	1,311,720
Experimental and investigational stations	3,964,745
Live-stock Serum Manufacturing Office	283,990
Taihoku Imperial University	4,915,287
General educational expenses	7,024,835
Social educational expenses	806,429
Social works	1,811,971
Meteorological Station	511,289
Transportation Bureau	74,315,372
Monopoly Bureau	68,298,309
Forest expenses	5,201,522

Transfer to the Special Account of National Loan	
Adjustment Fund	7,182,483
Pension	5,807,077
Miscellaneous expenses	1,238,299
Reserve fund	7,100,000
Total of ordinary expenditure	218,408,439
Extraordinary Expenditure	
Undertakings	37,582,456
Buildings and repairs	6,880,428
Investigations and experimentations	917,140
Encouragement of commerce and industry	25,554,762
Subsidies	18,305,664
Special police measures	601,393
Control and promotion of gold mining	792,800
Promotion of production of coal	724,144
Temporary economic control	4,791,627
Temporary military relief	315,743
Temporary air defense	2,647,637
Temporary prison expenses	107,182
Temporary allowances to families of officials	2,546,808
Temporary allowances to officials	1,131,556
National Service Movement	713,099
Transfer to the Special Account for Military Expenses	35,000,000
Transfer to the Government railway necessities fund	500,000
Reconstruction in areas affected by calamities	558,243
Total of extraordinary expenditure	139,670,682
Grand total of expenditure	358,079,121

Bonds Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbor construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbor construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900 was ¥3,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥126,380,958 at the end of 1937, while the estimated amount reached ¥166,800,000 at the end of 1941.

Monopolies The products of Taiwan, opium, salt, camphor, tobacco, and saké are placed under monopoly of the

Taiwan Government-General.

The proceeds from the sale of these articles in 1940 amounted to over 90 million yen, representing 37 per cent of the total revenue of the Government, and including ¥2,278,541 of opium, ¥10,480,313 of camphor, ¥3,190,608 of salt, ¥35,530,719 of tobacco and ¥38,814,115 of saké and alcohol.

Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway between Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 902.1 km. The railway receipts are as follows:

Fiscal year	Passenger Fares	Freight Receipts (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	Indices
1935-36	9,578	14,625	—	24,204	7,047
1936-37	9,722	16,353	—	26,076	7,592
1937-38	10,537	16,481	—	27,019	7,866
1938-39	12,207	18,899	—	31,107	9,056
1939-40	15,170	20,221	—	35,391	10,304

Besides private railways had 522 kilos, with receipts in yen; passenger fares, 677,588; freight, 2,442,888; miscellaneous, 38,187, making a total of 3,158,663 in 1939-40.

Communications

Communications in Taiwan are supervised by the communications department of the Communications and

Transportation Bureau. The number of post offices increased from 27 in 1896 to 198 in March 1941. General conditions of communications in Taiwan in recent years are shown in the following tables:

NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT OFFICES OF COMMUNICATIONS

Fiscal year	Office	Divided according to Business			
		Mail	Telegraph	Message	Telephone Exchange
1937-38	264	193	218	219	117
1938-39	267	194	219	222	120
1939-40	268	195	220	223	123
1940-41	231	198	—	—	—

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED

Fiscal year	Ordinary Mail		Increase or Decrease (In percentage)	
	Received	Delivered	Received	Despatched
1937-38	82,271,393	99,670,143	—1.03	—0.98
1938-39	81,835,710	101,711,030	—0.05	0.20
1939-40	90,594,195	113,849,283	1.07	1.19
1940-41	90,778,632	112,512,981	0.02	—0.11

Parcel Post				
1937-38	783,049	1,309,129	0.78	0.33
1938-39	855,163	1,373,787	0.92	0.49
1939-40	971,110	1,386,280	1.56	0.09
1940-41	1,044,636	1,390,063	0.70	0.02

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED

Fiscal year	Despatch	Arrival	Total	Increase (In percentage)
1937-38	2,067,283	2,115,754	4,183,037	0.88
1938-39	2,102,253	2,197,425	4,299,678	0.28
1939-40	2,702,529	2,751,531	5,454,060	2.68
1940-41	3,019,875	3,045,551	6,065,426	1.00

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

At the end of March	Number	Increase (In percentage)	Taiwanese in the total Number	Increase (In percentage)
1938	18,674	0.82	6,192	0.53
1939	20,251	0.84	6,741	0.90
1940	21,933	0.83	7,256	0.76
1941	24,040	0.87	—	—

NUMBER OF RECEIVERS OF RADIO

Year	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Taihoku province	9,750	12,266	16,595	18,175	20,988	—
Shinchiku province	1,246	1,680	2,917	3,235	3,331	—
Taihu province	4,028	5,165	7,604	8,263	9,752	—
Tainan province	3,533	4,919	7,753	8,912	10,388	—
Takao province	2,107	3,180	4,822	5,507	6,436	—
Taito district	124	164	378	367	328	—
Karenko district	333	387	698	745	887	—
Boko district	76	80	152	195	235	—
Total	21,197	27,841	40,919	45,399	52,295	62,224

CHAPTER XLII
KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

ESTABLISHED



1872

OJI SEISHI K.K.

(OJI PAPER MANUFACTURING CO., LTD.)

CAPITAL: YEN 300,000,000

President: KIKUJIRO TAKASHIMA, Esq.

Head Office: Oji-cho, Oji-ku, Tokyo

Business Office:

**Sanshin Bldg., Yuraku-cho, Kojimachi-ku,
Tokyo**

**Paper and Pulp Mills:
33 Places in Japan**

CHAPTER XLII

KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

General Survey

Geography Karafuto is a long island situated in the extreme north of the Empire of Japan along the Maritime Province of Siberia, and separated from it by the Mamiya Straits. The eastern coast is washed by the cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk, which is bordered by the mainland of Siberia on the north, the Kamchatka Peninsula on the east, and the Chishima Islands (the Kuriles) on the south-east. Japanese Karafuto is the southern half of Saghalien Island, the dividing line being the 50th parallel of latitude; the northern half of the island is under the jurisdiction of Soviet Russia.

At the extreme southern end of the island lies Cape Nishi-Notoro. On the east or opposite side of it, across the Aniwa Gulf, is Cape Nakashirutoko, and embraced by these two capes is the port of Ohtomari at the northern extremity of the Gulf, which is an important port connecting with Wakkanai, the extreme northern port of Hokkaido, across the Soya Straits. The traffic connection between Ohtomari and Wakkanai is maintained by freight boats run by the Imperial government railways.

Beyond Cape Nakashirutoko lies Taraka Bay, on the farther side of which Cape Kitashirutoko runs out to the northeast. Thus, Karafuto is deeply indented by the two large gulfs, Aniwa and Taraka, the latter lying to the north-east of the former. The island has two mountain ranges running parallel from north to south with the plains hemmed in between. The total area of Karafuto is 36,090.3 sq. km., the length being 455.6 km. and the breadth from 27.5 at the narrowest to 157 km. at the widest.

Climate The months which enjoy an average temperature above the freezing point are the seven months from April to October. The coldest month is January and the warmest August. The temperature rises suddenly as the thawing season approaches and falls abruptly when the snows set in. The western coast is warmer than the eastern owing

to the warm ocean current. The island is, as a whole, high in humidity on account of the frequency of sea fogs, except for the southern point of the western coast, but in both spring and autumn it decreases. Rainfall is most abundant in the summer and autumn seasons.

Population The great majority of the population of Karafuto is Japanese. The following table shows the racial distribution at the end of 1940:

POPULATION BY RACE OR NATIONALITY

Japanese	382,056
Chosenese	16,056
Taiwanese	1
Natives	406
Foreigners	319
Total	398,838

POPULATION IN CHIEF TOWNS

(Dec. 31, 1940)

Esutoru	94,393
Ohtomari	53,404
Maoka	44,247
Toyosaka	41,720
Shikuka	41,164
Toyohara	38,606
Tomariuru	34,846
Hontocho	25,341
Motodomari	25,117

Administration The chief administrative office of Karafuto is the Karafuto government and the governor is under the direct control of the Minister for Overseas Affairs, but the powers of the former are far wider than those of a governor in the home land, as they extend over mining, forestry, taxation, railways and the postal service. The governmental work of Karafuto is subdivided into five main offices, i. e., Secretariat, Interior Bureau, Forestry Bureau, Railways and Communications Bureau, and Police Bureau. The revenue of 1938 amounted to ¥64,964,000, of which ¥41,773,000 was from taxes and others, and the rest from various government undertakings.

Finance

The revenue of the Karafuto government is derived from taxes and other sources of income as well as an annual replenishment from the ordinary account of the national treasury. The principal taxes are:—the town home-
stead tax, income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax, etc. The revenue from all these taxes is in the 1942-43

budget, estimated at ¥103,404,646. The revenue, other than from taxes, consists of receipts from the sales of stamps, railway traffic and freight charges, medical treatment charges at government hospitals, charges receivable at the Central Experiment Station, receipts from the sales of trees felled in the state forests, rents of homesteads and various Government buildings and loans. Below is given a brief fiscal history of the Karafuto government:

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

(In yen)

	Taxes and Non-tax Elements	Revenue Replenishment from National Treasury	Sum Brought Forward	Total	Expenditure
1933	21,511,620	1,600,000	1,774,673	27,841,498	22,214,586
1934	33,408,070	1,000,000	5,526,912	40,039,597	24,700,146
1935	27,565,141	—	15,339,451	42,904,592	27,462,435
1936	32,842,000	185,000	15,442,000	48,469,000	33,228,032
1937	41,762,000	—	15,241,000	57,003,000	35,805,000
1938	41,772,844	1,992,729	21,198,117	64,963,750	39,453,407
1939	43,921,838	78,991	4,792,536	48,733,765	48,733,765
1940	62,017,269	4,814,200	139,988	66,971,457	66,971,457
1941	93,020,182	6,822,200	15,203,093	115,045,475	115,045,475
1942	99,455,336	3,949,310	—	103,404,646	103,404,646

Note: Figures for 1939-1942 represent budgetary estimates.

Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonization Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represented by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochiai, Shirutoru, Shikuka and Rutaka; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business operation of the bank in the island at the end of 1940 showed deposits amounting to ¥55,657,359 and loans advanced to ¥24,505,502. The Karafuto Bank is the only one having its head office in the island, its deposits totalling ¥4,521,185 and loans advanced ¥3,644,103 on the same date. The bank came into existence in May 1914, with a capital stock of ¥500,000 which was increased to ¥2,000,000 in March 1919.

The Karafuto Bank has its head office at Ohtomari and a branch at Maoka. The two banks are doing good work for the development of the island. Besides these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, i.e. the Hokkai Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation at the end of 1940, showed deposits at ¥5,150,243 and advances at ¥156,178.

Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it underwent a frequent recession in the course of those 31 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way:

Year	To Foreign Countries (In yen)	To Japan Proper	Total
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790
1933	367,088	104,886,093	105,253,181

Year	To Foreign Countries	To Japan Proper (In yen)	Total
1934	430,644	133,777,256	134,207,900
1935	867,965	130,940,201	131,808,166
1936	402,848	173,207,406	173,610,254
1937	235,001	121,137,965	121,372,966
1938	142,299	149,548,505	149,690,804
1939	—	224,800,290	—

SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound	Inward-bound (In yen)	Total	Excess of Outward-bound
1931	50,984,860	29,248,535	80,233,395	21,736,325
1932	63,510,076	29,116,267	92,626,343	34,393,809
1933	73,455,524	31,430,569	104,886,093	42,024,955
1934	96,648,171	37,129,083	133,777,256	59,519,086
1935	92,884,992	38,055,209	130,940,201	54,829,783
1936	119,435,796	53,771,610	173,207,406	65,664,186
1937	121,137,965	59,114,966	180,252,931	62,022,999
1938	149,548,505	88,248,013	237,796,518	61,300,492
1939	224,800,290	130,156,299	354,956,589	94,643,991
1940	294,714,128	144,342,310	439,056,438	150,371,818

Principal shipments to Japan proper in 1940 consisted of pulp, coal, lumber, paper, marine fertilizer, salt-salmon, salt-codfish, dried herring, dried codfish, fish oil, edible seaweed and canned crabs. Principal shipments from Japan proper during the same year consisted of rice, wheat, beer, saké, oats, peas and beans, salt, sugar, soy (Japanese sauce), miso (bean paste), wheat flour, cement, and mats.

Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. In 1940 the farm production reached ¥8,023,698, farming households 8,389 and arable lands 331,317 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 31,764 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping livestock goes hand in hand with agriculture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is, therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses,

swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1940 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥4,972,865, about one-half of the entire value of farm products.

Mineral Products

Coal The most important mineral product in the island is coal and next to it comes petroleum. The coal producing centers are divided into the northern, southern and central districts. The coal bed is of the tertiary formation consisting of upper, middle and lower measures. Of the three coal districts the central is the largest and belongs to the lower measures. It runs for 100 kilometers from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometers. A portion of the southern coal field along the western coast and the greater portion of the northern and eastern coal fields belong to the upper measure. On the northwestern coast there are several important coal fields belonging to the middle measure. The upper measure belongs to the Pliocene and the middle and the lower to the Eocene Period.

At the end of 1940 there were 111 coal fields under operation of an aggregate area of 143,582,417 tsubo. The following table shows the general trend of the increase:

Year	No. of Coalfields	Area (sq. m.)	Quantity (m. t.)	Value (in yen)
1931	—	—	637,962	5,248,815
1932	—	—	677,354	5,200,889
1933	16	111,848,900	888,913	6,703,819
1934	21	121,186,700	1,196,647	9,119,161
1935	26	39,606,170 (tsubo)	1,515,647	11,475,813
1936	31	41,853,657 (")	2,075,157	15,375,128
1937	83	82,543,205 (")	2,535,574	—
1938	90	88,650,929 (")	—	—
1939	113	117,504,907 (")	—	—
1940	111	143,582,417 (")	—	—

Note: Figures for production are not made public since 1937.

Of all the coal mines that of Kawakami used to be the most productive, though now superseded by O-hira mine. Its annual output coming up to 175,875 metric tons in 1932 and 190,210 tons in 1933. The O-hira mine had an annual production of 204,277 tons in 1932 and 290,901 tons in 1933. The Kawakami mine extends over about 800 hectares located at a distance of 32 km. from Toyohara and is owned and operated by the Mitsui Mining Company, Ltd. The O-hira mine is operated by the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. The mine is located at a point 15 km. northeast of Esudori. Other large coal mines are the Shirutoru, Osakayé, Higashi-Shiraura, Kashiho, Amauchi, Naihoro, Esutoru, Chitosé, Mita and Tokai.

Petroleum Petroleum was first discovered at a point on the south-western coast of Karafuto in 1907 when an official investigation was conducted, after which oil strata were discovered in the neighborhood of Hontocho, Konotoro, Karabutsu, Maruyama and several other places. In 1934 digging operations were conducted by the Japan Petroleum Co., Ltd., on Well No. 2 of Maruyama of Ochii-machi while such operations were carried over a total area of 23,204,106 square meters in 1930 and over 13,344,900 square meters in 1929 and 10,000,800 square meters in 1925.

Fishery Products

The chief fishery products of Karafuto are herrings, salmon, codfish, trout, crabs, whales and fur-seals, the average yearly fishery products reaching as much as ¥10,000,000 to ¥20,000,000 in value. Of these varieties the herring comes first in importance, the 1940 catch being figured at 290,076,450 kilograms. Most of these fishery products are canned in the distributing centers

in the island. Of all the canning centers Maoka ranks first, followed by Shisuka and Tomarioru. Edible seaweed is obtained along all parts of the coast, but principally along the western coast and Aniwa Gulf. The island located on the north-eastern edge of Taraka Bay is the only breeding spot of fur-seals in Japan. When the southern half of Saghalien came into Japan's possession in 1905, seal hunting in this small island was prohibited, and every possible protection was given to their breeding. In 1911 the hunting ban was alleviated, the annual number to be killed being limited to 550. In 1913 it became apparent to the supervisors that the number of landing fur-seals was decreasing, so in 1915 the ban was again imposed and was maintained until 1917. It was then withdrawn, with an annual permit to kill up to 550 head. In 1924 the hunting of old, non-breeding fur-seals was started. This increased the production in the year to 824 head and that in the following year to 942. In 1938 the total reached 2,100. In accordance with the Fur-Seal Treaty concluded by Japan with the United States and Russia in 1911, Japan is paying 10 per cent annually of the profit from this fur-sealing to the governments of these two countries. Whales are principally hunted by the ships of the Oriental Whale-Hunting Company which has a base for that purpose in Aniwa Gulf. The following shows the money value of the chief fishery products:

VALUE OF FISHERY PRODUCTS (In yen)

Kind	1939	1940
Herring		
and manufactures	19,574,523	27,108,951
Trout	2,942,324	1,512,552

Kind	1939	1940
Salmon	1,020,851	1,206,913
Codfish		
and manufactures	1,963,157	2,933,263
Flatfish		
and manufactures	416,195	1,241,988
Crabs	761,306	2,508,541
Tangle	6,133,240	2,872,240
Sardine		
and manufactures	207,591	26,054
Shell-fishes	278,388	—
Agar-agar	1,375,018	—
Others	4,149,950	10,711,415
Total	38,962,088	47,122,867

Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,939,000 hectares, i.e., about 80 per cent of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (*Picea ajanensis*, Fisch), todo-matsu (*Abies sachalinensis*, Mast), gul-matsu, ichii (the yew, *Taxus baccata*), shirakaba (the silver birch, *Betula alba*), doroyanagi (a willow), hannoki (the black alder) tamo, and a few others. Their distribution is regular, according to districts. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The guimatsu (a pine species) grows principally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥25,568,000 in 1937.

Forest Administration In ancient times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount

of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in 1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devastation by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt patch of mountain-side in the neighborhood of Ochiai in June 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, seedlings were carried on a tract of 15.47 hectares and 50.01 hectares in 1921 and 1922 respectively. Then in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285.09 hectares, then it was carried in the same way in 1926 and 1927 until in the latter year seedlings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. The total area of seeding up to 1940 reached 50,379.13 hectares.

Planting Work With the increased need of re-foresting with saplings, the seeding work has become quite important. Since the first sapling plantation was established at Toyohara in 1912 its number began to increase, and now there are 17 sapling-plantations established throughout Karafuto producing annually about 6 million saplings. Details follow:

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establish- ment
Toyohara	15.2110	5/1912
Shimizu	4.9500	5/1920
Tokobo	13.0485	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7.9467	"
Tomarioru	4.6761	"
Takarazawa	4.9839	"
Kawakami	6.7287	"
Otomari	4.9893	5/1926
Tamagawa	69.4040	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6.1684	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5.3328	5/1929
Obara	6.8878	5/1929
Kitakotami	13.8217	5/1929
Towada	0.1530	5/1920
Contoro	1.2500	5/1930

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establish- ment
Nayori	7.4250	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14.9100	4/1931
Total	137.8869	—

The total area of planting up to 1940 reached 36,714.64 hectares.

Felling Work The present Government's felling work was started in May 1927, on the estimated basis of annual production of 535,743 cubic meters of timber. But, in view of the difficulty felt in marketing, the annual aggregate felling was reduced to the basis of 196,370 cubic meters. The business plan for the year 1941 is as follows:

	(In yen)
Receipts	10,001,199
Expenses	3,249,188

TIMBER PRODUCTION DURING 1927-1938

(In cubic meters)

Year	Felling	Shipment	Delivery
1927	541,630	25,429	7,137
1928	459,340	494,156	509,218
1929	492,061	497,863	504,930
1930	198,742	455,250	455,250
1931	205,587	202,115	202,115
1932	201,020	196,532	196,532
1933	199,555	200,371	200,371
1935	202,413	169,751	173,367
1937	212,507	208,303	208,303
1938	218,016	209,698	209,698

Forests for University Field Work

It was in April 1914, that a forest tract of 20,000 hectares along the basins of the Ai-kawa (Ri River) and Odasamukawa (Odasamu River) was given to the Tokyo Imperial University for the field work of forestry students of its College of Agriculture.

Before or after that year the forests totalling 94,502 hectares for the field work of the Hokkaido, Kyushu and Kyoto Imperial Universities were established. The amount of standing timbers of these forests at the end of March of 1938 were 12,758,445 cubic meters for the coniferous trees and 892,185 cubic meters for the broad leaved trees.

Fire Prevention Work The work of fire prevention was initiated in 1922 over a stretch of 13,495 meters of forest area, mostly of the area artificially replanted. But in recent years the prevention work was extended over natural forests, the work consisting in making

opening or glades, so that in 1940 the total length of these openings for protection from fire reached 1,164,528.

FIRE-PREVENTION OPENINGS

Year	Extension (meters)
1920-30	811,131
1931	27,962
1932	82,840
1933	55,444
1934	28,568
1935	24,039
1936	5,380
1937	50,086
1938	70,644
1939	2,875
1940	5,557
Total	1,164,526

Re-forestation Work The forest-restocking work is now attained by encouraging the natural recruiting process and in 1929 over an area of 173.36 hectares and then in 1930 over an area of 47.90 hectares have been recruited. In 1940 the same work was carried on over an area of 10,195.83 hectares, bringing the total area accorded this treatment to 49,199.95 hectares.

Development of Various Kinds of Industries

With the growth of railway facilities the population began to increase, and with it, various trade and industrial opportunities became more promising. Ohtomari and Maoka are the two ports with the best future outlook, being connected by railways at Toyohara, the seat of government of the island. Paper pulp manufacturing, canning, brewing, starch manufacturing and butter-making. In 1940 products of various industries amounted to ¥401,675,192 of which products of manufacturing industries aggregated ¥207,497,018 which is composed with ¥37,569,366 of the products of all kinds and ¥17,987,842 of manufacturing industries in 1920, they show tremendous improvements. Various experiments for industrial purposes were conducted and are being continued at the Industrial Experimental Laboratory at Toyohara.

Pulp In 1913 the first pulp factory was opened at Ohtomari by the Paper Manufacturing Company; then another was opened at Tomari by the Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha, starting operations in 1915. Soon after the World War gave an opportune stimulus

to the speedy development of the industry. In 1933 all the existing companies were amalgamated with the Oji P.M. Company and the 8 factories of the

company monopolized the pulp industry in the islands up to 1935 when a factory of the Japan Rayon Pulp Company was established at Shikuka.

PULP FACTORIES IN KARAFUTO

Company	Location	Date of Establishment
Oji Paper Manufacturing Company ¹	Ohtomari	Dec. 1914
" " " "	Toyohara	Jan. 1917
" " " "	Noda	Nov. 1921
" " " "	Tomarioru	Dec. 1913
" " " "	Maoka	Jan. 1918
" " " "	Esutoru	Nov. 1925
" " " "	Ochiai	Apr. 1917
" " " "	Shirutoru	May 1924
Japan Rayon Pulp Company	Shikuka	June 1935

Brewing Early attempts to brew saké on the island were unsuccessful. The local demand for saké was so pressing, that it led enterprisers to improve all defects in equipment and to procure water of better quality. The result proved promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 49 breweries. The productive value for 1940 amounted to ¥12,666,618.

PRODUCTION OF SAKÉ

	Production	
	Quantity (Thousand deci-liter)	Value (In yen)
1930	45,614	1,926,964
1931	41,316	1,839,171
1932	42,748	1,800,285
1933	58,876	2,662,936
1934	70,423	3,205,850
1935	72,382	3,257,035
1936	72,906	3,731,377
1937	81,988	4,536,485
1938	108,971	6,691,804
1939	88,144	9,173,555
1940	115,066	12,666,618

Canning Industry The canning industry in this island goes back to 1909, and in 1917 the canneries numbered 111, with a total production of ¥3,370,558. Crab-canning heads the list; but the reckless catching following that year caused a falling-off in the production, which was reduced to ¥1,458,000

in 1920. The canneries were also reduced in number to 14 and amalgamated. As a result both the number of mills and products decreased. But the industry has been for a while consolidated and is developing steadily. The number of canneries and their products during the years 1933-38 follow:

Year	No. of canneries	Qty. prod'd	Value (In yen)
1933	29	38,979	1,660,643
1934	38	54,985	2,268,286
1935	28	—	3,380,000
1936	20	—	1,170,000
1937	16	—	2,185,000
1938	—	—	2,250,953

Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the home land are applied there than in any of the other dependencies. But in the sense that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the constitution of the courts of justice are equally enforced in Karafuto and Japan proper. At present there are 181 laws of the land

¹ The Oji, Karafuto Kogyo and Fuji were amalgamated in May 1933, into one concern which retains the name of Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., with a capitalization of ¥300,000,000.

applied or made applicable in Karafuto, of which 27 laws are operative only partially.

There are one district court, 3 local court, and 9 detached offices of the 3 local courts in Karafuto.

Education

In 1905 Japan found the island a vast, primitive desert with practically nothing done toward bringing the inhabitants to a civilized way of life. But as the immigrants settled down there arose the necessity for schooling their children. It was in August 1906, that the first elementary school was opened at Toyohara, and in October of the same year 2 other elementary schools were opened, one at Ohtomari and the other at Maoka. At the same time, private educationists started simpler elementary schools. In 1908 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto:

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS

(April 1941)

	No. of Teachers		Pupils
Schools			
Elementary schools	271	1,680	67,576
Middle schools	5	102	2,738
Girls' High schools	8	123	2,541
Takushoku (colonization) school	1	18	216
Industrial school	1	11	139

Fishery school	1	13	104
Commercial schools	8	76	670

Education of the Natives There are some 2,000 natives in Karafuto including Ainu, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tunguses. The Karafuto government is undertaking to educate the children of these backward natives. At the educational institution established at Shisukamachi, about 35 children of the natives are taught along the line of the primary school.

Religion

The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another in this promising field of labor. There are 89 propagating centers for Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahigoka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on June 16. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 89 temples and 120 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of seven denominations, i. e., Episcopal, Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Corps, the Holiness Church and Japan Union Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 13.

CHAPTER XLIII

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE

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CHAPTER XLIII

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE

Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering over 1,400, with an aggregate area of 2,148.80 square kilometers, are the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups, between $131^{\circ} 10'$ and $172^{\circ} 10'$ of east longitude and between $1^{\circ} 15'$ and $20^{\circ} 32'$ of north latitude. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south. Only one island among them, i.e. Guam, belongs to the United States.

The Mariana archipelago starts close to the southern end of the Bonin Islands, stretching toward the equator, and the Marshall and Caroline groups extend to the east and west along the equator, forming an inverted letter "T" with the Marianas. About 740 miles south of the Bonin Islands lies Saipan, the largest of the Marianas, and about 180 miles farther south is Truk, one of the largest of the Carolines, which marking the crossing point of the inverted "T," is the center of the mandated territory. The line of 148° east longitude divides the Carolines into the West Carolines, with Palau and Yap, and the East Carolines, with Truk and Ponape. Because of the distances between the islands and the extensive area covered by them, communications are difficult. The fact that each group of isles uses different words peculiar to itself sufficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthuap, cover barely 369 square kilometers. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 meters above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 meters and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in

several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, practically all of the islands are composed of volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusale, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, principally on Angaur, Pelellu, Togobel and Fals. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

Groups of Islands

The Marianas The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory, consist of 14 islands covering 639 square kilometers. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 185.00 square kilometers in area, extends over 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favorable communication with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

The Carolines The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of

isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometers. Babelthuap, commonly called the Main Island of the Palau, has 370.37 square kilometers. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Davao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palau are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.34 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometers and extending over 804.50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometers, form the nerve center of communication as the submarine cables from different directions meet here. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsu Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124.16 square kilometers. As Natsu Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defense corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 492.10 square kilometers. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometers in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertaking, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

The Marshalls The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 32 islets, made up of more than 860 coral reefs comprising an area of 150.94 square kilometers. The soil being quite suited to the

growth of coconut palms, they flourish everywhere. The copra industry of the islands is chiefly dependent on the material produced in this group.

Atmospheric Conditions

All the islands being within the tropical zone, they have one season instead of the four of the temperate zone. Cool sea breezes sweep over them day and night, contributing much toward balancing the temperature, and the inhabitants are favored with a mild maritime climate rarely found in tropical countries and free from the danger of attack by venomous snakes, wild animals and miasma peculiar to the tropics.

There is an observatory established by the South Sea Government, where all sorts of atmospheric observations are conducted, and four hyetographical observatories. In addition, each branch office of the government has its own observation station. Thorough study of the insular climate is now being planned.

Atmospheric pressure in the neighborhood of Truk and Ponape is generally low; in the vicinity of the Carolines and western Marianas, it is high in February and March and low from October to December; in the eastern islets of the Carolines, high from May to September and low in other months. The temperature is about the same all over the islands and shows little change through the year, the highest in the daytime ranging from 29° to 31° C. It seldom rises above 31°, and the difference during 24 hours is only 4 or 5 degrees. Humidity averages 82% and rarely falls lower than 60%.

From November to April, the wind generally comes from between the east and northeast. This is the trade wind. From May to October, the direction differs according to the position of the islands. The velocity averages 5 meters in the Marianas, being weak in August and September and strong between October and February; in the western part of the Carolines, it is weak in April, May, June and September and strong in November, December, January, February and March.

The mean annual rainfall is more than 3,000 mm., and at Ponape it reaches even 4,000 mm. The rain comes in sudden torrents and passes away with the same suddenness. By this the unbearable tropic heat is greatly mitigated. The rainfall is greatest during

July, August and September and least in January, February and March.

The Islands are, as it were, the hot-bed of the typhoons that devastate Taiwan and Japan proper, but locally the wind rarely gathers hurricane strength. If a typhoon does strike, it leaves the islands in a miserable condition, and the natives fear typhoons as they do their gods. When Ponape was struck in 1906, nearly all the cocoanut palms fell. Jaluit suffered in 1918 and Yap in 1920 and 1923.

A third tempest at Yap caused tidal waves to sweep over the coast, considerably damaging houses, woods and farms. A typhoon at Palau in May, 1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untrodden soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected for a long time until about 1885, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

German Administration It is gener-

ally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the starting point in a historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defense work on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business center of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singapore, Hongkong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German program in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the

territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

Relations with Japan It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence for it. The Japanese training cruiser *Ryujo* in 1884 touched at Kusale, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Raye Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

At the end of December 1940, the total population of the mandated territory was 135,708 comprising 51,106 natives, 84,478 Japanese and 124 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 46,893 Kanaka and 4,213 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 47,805 males and 33,206 females, most of them dwelling within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and being engaged in agricultural pursuits.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. There were, at the end of December 1940, 124 foreigners who are nearly all engaged in missionary service, coconut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent census came in 1925, 1930, 1935 and 1940.

YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605
1935	47,412	51,056	97	98,565
1936	56,496	50,524	117	107,137
1937	62,305	50,849	123	113,277
1938	70,141	50,868	119	121,128
1939	77,257	51,723	124	129,104
1940	84,478	51,106	124	135,708

Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesian stock. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to the neighboring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly

to massacres, until today it numbers only 4,213. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 51,106 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,893.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an earring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies cocoanuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef

and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors somber and damp. "All-men-houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or as inns for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they have been progressing in education since primary education has been introduced. Whatever their intellectual deficiencies, they are fit for manual work.

There are two main social classes, superior and common, and between them there are several transition levels. Every village has its own chief, at whose mercy formerly were the life and property of the villagers. Among the chiefs there used to be ceaseless fighting. Under the German administration, their powers were greatly diminished, and at present they collect taxes and transfer government orders besides attending to the welfare of the people.

As has already been said, their mode of living is very simple, requiring little clothing and no farming for food. They are content to live in any miserable structure which affords shelter from wind and rain. Save for a handful of Chamorro and a very small number of wealthy people, they live from hand to mouth in perfect contentment and have no thought of providing for posterity. They see no need of taxing their otherwise simple existence by us-

ing money. What money they obtain is invariably spent for such luxuries as soap, perfume, tobacco and canned food, for their daily necessities are freely provided by nature. Of late years, however, a desire to own coconut trees and land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labor. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighboring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk, the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial Ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defense Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

Under the terms of the peace treaty concluded in January 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, established the present Nanyo Cho, or South Sea Government in April 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927, 1930 and 1935. The Governor, who presides over the entire administration, is under the control and supervision of the Overseas Minister. Communications affairs are

supervised by the Communications Minister, and currency, banking and customs matters by the Finance Minister. In emergencies, however, the Governor is authorized to act upon his own discretion and if necessary to request the commander of the naval station or the nearest responsible naval commander to take military action. The Government Office is composed of Governor's Secretariat and 2 Departments of Home Affairs and Development. The Governor's Secretariat is divided into 2 sections of Secretariat and Archives, the Department of Home Affairs into 6 sections of Local Affairs, Investigation, Finance, Engineering, Tax and Police; and the Department for Development into 5 sections of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, Fisheries, Transportation and Communications. Under the government there are branch offices at Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. All such general administrative business as census-taking, alms-giving, salvation, policing, hygiene, tax collection, education, religion, industry, engineering and harbor work are conducted by these local branches.

Besides the afore-mentioned, there are, under the control of the Governor, 34 elementary schools, 26 public schools, a woodwork training institute, a high court of justice with a public procurator's office, 3 local courts of justice, each with a public procurator's office, 1 industrial experimentation station with its two sub-stations, 7 hospitals, 1 mine, 11 post offices, 1 meteorological observatory and its 12 branches, 1 industrial school and 2 girls' high schools.

The branch offices are assisted by so-soncho, kucho, son-cho and joyaku, who are mostly native chiefs. Those in charge of the Kanaka are called so-soncho and son-cho, and those among the Chamorro are named kucho and joyaku. The so-soncho and kucho act under the control and instructions of the branch office to which they belong, and the son-cho and joyaku assist them. The duties entrusted to these officials are (1) thorough diffusion of knowledge of the law and regulations, (2) the making of applications and reports to the branch office, and (3) the conveyance of official instructions and their fulfillment.

Police Administration Under the Police Section of the government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In

addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusaie and Angaur and policemen's offices at 43 less important villages. The distribution of these stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On June 30, 1940, the number of police officials was 246.

The regulations for control of the islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

Finance

The expenditure for insular administ-

ration had been met by the military special account until an independent account of the South Sea Government was established in March 1922. Since then the South Sea Government Special Account has been arranged and expenditures of the Government have been met by taxes, other revenues and the sum advanced from General Account. But its own revenue has increased so much that since 1932 the Islands have been receiving no budgetary assistance from Japan proper and have thus virtually become independent financially. The budgetary estimate for 1941-1942 is ¥15,707,931.

Clearance charges on shipments, income tax and tobacco tax constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 was levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, but it was changed to a local tax to be collected by offices in the islands since 1938. Present taxes are the Income Tax, Corporation Profits Tax, Mining Tax, Tobacco Tax, Clearance Dues and Customs Duties. The revenue from these taxes represent 80 per cent of the total revenue of the South Sea Government. The financial conditions of the government are most encouraging as evidenced by the following table:

ACTUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE NANYO CHO

(In yen)

Fiscal Year	Revenue		Balance of the Previous Year	Total	Expenditure Total
	From Taxes and Enterprises	Aid from Tokyo Gov.			
1922	1,300,548	5,239,960	—	6,540,508	5,393,475
1935	6,571,582	—	2,704,533	9,276,115	5,825,649
1936	6,707,277	—	3,450,465	10,157,742	6,606,539
1937	7,188,802	—	3,551,203	10,740,005	8,671,966
1938	11,349,535	—	2,068,038	13,417,574	8,921,817
1939	11,751,045	—	4,495,327	16,246,372	9,793,548
1940	12,746,911	—	6,452,824	19,199,735	11,114,342

Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 215,000 hectares, of which about 80,000 hectares are thought fit for coconut plantation and general farming.

The land already cultivated is calculated at 54,200 hectares for paddy fields, dry lands, and coconut plantations, leaving more than 27,500 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 0.5 per cent of the entire native population, viz., 2,412 natives and 21,210 Japanese at the end of 1940. There being little need of depending for their daily necessities upon farming,

the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring about some improvement. Live-stock farming is also undeveloped, though the natives raise cattle, hogs, goats, hens and ducks, the cattle for transportation and farming purposes and the hogs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916, cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. In 1940, the crop of sugar-cane amounted to 845,614,700 kin. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥20,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing the South Sea Industrial Company, Ltd. Factories of this company are now located on the islands of Saipan and Tinian, the two principal sources of the raw materials. Each has a pressing efficiency of 1,200 English tons, but completion of new factories in Tinian and Rota increased the capacity by 2,950 English tons. The total value of agricultural products in 1938 amounted to ¥5,828,216.

Industry

The lack of communication facilities greatly handicaps commercial and industrial advancement, and inadequate supplies of coal, water and iron impedes manufacturing. The natives have little purchasing power, and the Japanese settlers, numbering 47,000 and possessing superior purchasing power, are scattered all over the isles.

The value of the annual production of the principal industries for 1940 amounted to ¥30,901,731, of which the following are principal products:

Sugar	¥24,548,302
Syrup	1,795,336
Alcohol	1,179,424
Canned foods	782,378

Starch	547,508
Ice	284,914
Cocoanut oil	172,906
Others	1,590,963
Total	30,901,731

Forestry

All of the islands may appear to casual travellers to have good forests, but inspection would disclose that most of the trees are of no practical use. The natives have been careless in removing timber and have disregarded the necessity of reforestation. The only trees receiving attention are the cocoanut palms growing on the island coasts. But this does not mean that forestry enterprises are hopeless. Various kinds of useful trees are seen thriving among the bushes, and the natural benefits here are the very conditions required for the growth of plants.

The cocoanut trees have long been depended on by the islanders for food, and practically every island is shaded by their long trunks and broad fronds of pinnate leaves. According to statistics for 1939, all the cocoanut plantations total 31,000 hectares in area, and the copra produced therefrom amounted to 15,000 metric tons, valued at ¥1,732,000.

Fisheries

There are no records available of fisheries in the islands before the Japanese occupation. A few Japanese made a start shortly after 1914, but unfortunately they all failed, due principally to unpreparedness to cope with the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the region. Only recently have profitable undertakings been established. The lack of transportation facilities, the unique conditions and the limited island market make it imperative that the industry be reorganized.

Bonito, tunny, mackerel, sardine, horse-mackerel and shark are found in abundance in neighboring waters. In shallow waters near the coasts there are seen everywhere shoals of polychromatic small fish and all sorts of shellfish. The crocodile, hawk's-bill turtle and sponge of good quality are also plentiful. The manufacturing side of the fishing industry is still in its infancy and is still limited to the drying of horse mackerel, bonito and mackerel.

Bonito fishing has, however, advanced to a considerable extent. At present 135 motor boats are all engaged in bonito fishery. Catches of fishes in 1941

amounted to ¥4,887,026 in value. In addition, some pearls and sponges are cultivated, chiefly at Palau. The total value of fishes and shell-fishes caught in 1940 amounted to ¥6,178,729, while that of canned and other manufactures amounted to ¥6,815,968. The grand total, therefore, amounted to ¥12,994,697 in 1940.

Mining

The only mining is for phosphate on the Island of Angaur, south of the main island of the Palau group in the Carolines. The island is 15.54 square kilometers in area. The thickness of the phosphate deposit varies from about 3 meters to 7 meters, and the amount available was estimated in 1935 at 1,600,000 tons. For some time after the Japanese occupation of the territory, the mining was carried on by the Navy, but it is now an enterprise of the government. Yearly production is put at 60,000-90,000 tons. In addition to the superintendent, who is an expert, there were in 1935 five assistant experts, 16 clerks, 440 mine workers, 13 laborers and 5 other employees.

The production of phosphate rocks and the value since 1931 follow:

Year	Quantity in m. t.	Value in yen
1931	60,203	1,125,769
1932	65,610	1,205,172
1933	70,336	1,308,840
1934	72,148	1,778,750
1935	74,841	1,775,460
1936	85,823	2,121,113
1937	134,098	3,533,606

Note: Figures are not made public since 1937.

Encouragement of Enterprises Encouragement and financial assistance are given to a number of undertakings, including truck farming; coffee-growing, which have been receiving subsidies since 1927; the breeding of cows, pigs and oxen; the growing of sugarcane and the manufacture of sugar, which were subsidized to the extent of ¥11,830 in 1938; laundry, barber, shoe-repair and hotel businesses; the cultivation of pearls; and the preparation of dried bonito. As the raising of coconut trees is recognized as one of the most promising industries in the islands, regulations were issued in 1922 stipulating that to those who seriously undertake the planting of coconut palms a subsidy is to be given at a rate not

exceeding ¥20 per 2½ acres of newly planted land and not exceeding ¥10 per 2½ acres of old coconut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of constructing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive fairs of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the natives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to distinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned coconut groves are estimated at about 3,200 hectares, with 670,000 trees. From these figures, however, it is difficult to calculate the approximate amount of copra obtainable, for some of the groves are unproductive. A comprehensive survey is in progress.

Experimental Stations The Industrial Experimental Station in the islands, where all kinds of experiments and investigations connected with agriculture and stock-breeding are conducted, utilizes farms totalling 145 acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things, with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shellfish. Since the islands, though small in area, extend over vast expanse of sea, it was considered that the natural resources hidden therein deserved a careful investigation. Having found that small experiment boats would not serve for the purpose the Government has built a ship having a displacement of

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

183 tons with 360 h.p. This vessel is now engaged in investigation of the resources of the sea.

Trade

The staple exports are copra, sugar, dried bonito and alcohol, which account for 96 per cent of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, tobacco, cotton textile and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the archipelagos is done with the Japanese mainland save for sundry goods exchanged between Saipan and Guam, and between Jaluit and the Gilbert Islands, and for a nominal amount of sugar from Hawaii and copra and sundry goods from Guam, the Gilbert Islands and Manila.

The total exports in 1938 were ¥46,923,180, of which exports to the Japanese mainland were ¥45,262,546. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥24,852,111. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥31,658,828, of which ¥29,213,319 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to ¥1,660,634 and imports ¥1,445,509.

In 1939, the value of exports to foreign countries amounted to ¥3,451,000 and that of imports to ¥1,357,000.

Companies

In 1940, there were 53 companies in the islands with an aggregate paid-up capital of ¥75,077,817. Details follow:

**NUMBER AND CAPITAL OF
COMPANIES
(1940)**

Business	Number	Paid-up Capital (In yen)
Agriculture and Forestry	14	7,385,000

Commerce	11	10,972,817
Transportation	5	1,586,000
Fisheries	9	7,435,000
Mining and industry	12	32,376,000
Development	2	15,323,000
Total	53	75,077,817

Representative companies are the Nanyo Kohatsu Company and the South Sea Development Company. (See p. 972, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.)

Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the Government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur extending for 12 miles to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan and Tinian which extends for 93 miles are exclusively used for the hauling of freight belonging to the South Sea Development Company.

Land transportation is now principally carried through the help of motor cars and other vehicles imported from Japan. The character of the roads, length of each and the number of vehicles are shown in the following tables:

EXTENSION OF ROADS, DEC. 31, 1937

Width of Roads

(In km.)

Branch office	Less than 4 m	Less than 7 m	Over 7 m	Total
Saipan	39	104	28	171
Yap	—	118	—	118
Palau	66	35	6	107
Truk	64	2	—	67
Ponape	24	13	3	40
Jaluit	43	—	—	43
Total	236	272	38	546

NUMBER OF VARIOUS VEHICLES, Dec. 31, 1936

Branch office	Motor car	Motorcycle	Bicycle	Cart	Wagons	Others	Total
Saipan	159	25	9,351	11	3,242	—	12,788
Yap	1	4	131	9	5	—	150
Palau	30	23	2,270	58	13	—	2,394
Truk	7	3	416	22	2	—	450
Ponape	7	7	514	5	2	—	535
Jaluit	1	—	348	115	—	—	462
Total	205	62	13,028	220	3,264	—	10,779

Note: Publication of figures was ceased since 1937.

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbors. Generally speaking, the ports are favorable for mooring of steamers with displacements of 3,000 tons, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbors depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labor. The first real harbor, started in 1926 and completed in 1932 at a cost of more than ¥1,073,000, was at Saipan. In 1933-1935 an enlargement of the wharf was completed with an expenditure of ¥579,000. The third improvement plan which is to be completed within 6 years beginning with 1938 is now carried on. The estimated expenses will reach ¥1,870,000. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to the completion after the expenditure of ¥106,992 in 1930, as the result of which the route has been reduced to one-third of what it used to be. A new wharf was constructed then with an expenditure of ¥84,000, and in 1934-35 another improvement work was completed. For the construction of the port of Palau ¥2,710,000 was appropriated for a 6-year plan beginning with 1936.

Shipping Routes Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The chief schedule for these lines in 1941 follows:

(1) **West Round Line:** Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Kobe, Osaka, Moji Sakido, Yokohama, Hachijo Islands, Futami, Naha, Saipan, Tinian, Rota, Yap, Palau, Anguar, Menado and Davao, making 37 voyages in a year.

(2) **East Round Line:** Plying between Kobe and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Osaka, Moji, Sakido, Yokohama, Saipan, Rota, Palau, Truk, Ponape, Kusale and Jaluit, making 20 voyages yearly.

(3) **Saipan Line:** The ports of call are Kobe, Moji, Sakido, Yokohama, Keelung, Naha, Hachijo Islands, Futami, Saipan, Tinian, Rota, and Osaka, making 13 round-trips.

The number of vessels on these lines is 20.

Since 1938, the ships of the South Sea Marine Transportation Company are ordered to make 12 visits a year at Palau on their voyages between Japan and Java. At present, the Company's ship is making monthly visit to Palau on its way from Japan to Sumatra.

Shipping among the islands has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 12 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 5 and 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 20 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 195 to 340 tons.

Since 1938, a ship of the South Sea Development Company has been ordered to run between Palau, Yap, Truk and their islets.

During 1938, vessels that entered and cleared the 10 ports of the territory numbered 1,275 and 1,231 respectively—657 steamships and 574 sailing vessels clearing, and 658 steamships and 617 sailing vessels entering. The number of passengers landing and embarking were 65,083 and 29,697 respectively.

Airway In April 1939, an air route was opened by the Dai-Nippon Airways Company. The seaplanes of the company ply twice a month, running from Yokohama to Saipan, 2,610 kilometers and from Saipan to Palau, 1,570 kilometers.

Communications All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurances, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are 11 post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, Truk, Kusale, Fais and Anguar. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follows:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-Jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: dispatched on the sub-

marine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Ryukyu and Taiwan: sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands: sent by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Ryukyu: dispatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palau.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government's High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group; and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. In 1941 there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most of the legal regulations are the same as those in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labor instead of being sent to a prison.

Education

Besides 34 elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 26 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food

being supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places being received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Jaluit, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no nearby Japanese school, a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction covers six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to study a supplementary course of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School in Palau for natives.

With the object of popularizing education, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an imperial donation of ¥2,000, in February 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the islanders. On April 30, 1939 it had funds amounting to ¥27,988.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April 1941, have 257 instructors and 11,217 pupils including the continuation course. The schools for natives have 68 Japanese teachers and 27 native assistant teachers, 1,541 boys and 1,208 girls attending elementary school course, and 450 boys and 234 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. At the end of April 1941, kindergartens in Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape, had in all 24 teachers and 785 children.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in

existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of Saipan.

The South Seas Government enacted the Girls' High School Order in 1939, in view of increasing number of graduates of elementary school girls, and at the same time established the Saipan Girls' High School, and afterwards the Palau Girls' High School was established in 1941.

Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the name, but they have a sort of religion. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and he is said to have initiated the islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes.

In more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant missionary group from Germany in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious propaganda in 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church dispatched four missionaries of Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusaie and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the churchgoers understand its tenets.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April 1941

Religion	Catholic	Protestant	Buddhist	Tenrikyo	Total
Churches	10	7	11	2	30
Mission halls	37	76	2	—	115
Preachers	12	10	16	2	40
Inmates of Monasteries	14	20	—	—	34
Native Preachers	23	82	—	—	105
Believers { Japanese	140	10	53,779	130	54,059
{ Foreign	13	5	—	—	13
{ Native	20,984	21,179	50	1	42,214
{ Total	21,023	21,189	53,829	131	96,286

The Charitable Society, founded on an Imperial donation of ¥1,000, was organized in May 1927, in commemoration of the demise of the late Emperor Taisho. It is financed by the interest accruing to the foundation and contributions, and its principal mission is salvation of the poor and afflicted. So far its main accomplishment has been caring for lepers, 68 of whom were accommodated in the fiscal year 1940 in 3 sanatoria.

Medical and Hygienic Services

In general, there are fewer malignant diseases in the islands than in other tropical lands. But the fact that most of them are coral reefs and small in area

makes it difficult to obtain water supply. Rain-water tanks are the usual source, and they often prove an agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are unsanitary and hesitate to consult a doctor even when taken ill. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic conditions, long-established customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amebic dysentery, frambœsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Framboesia, rampant among the natives,

afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years, in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

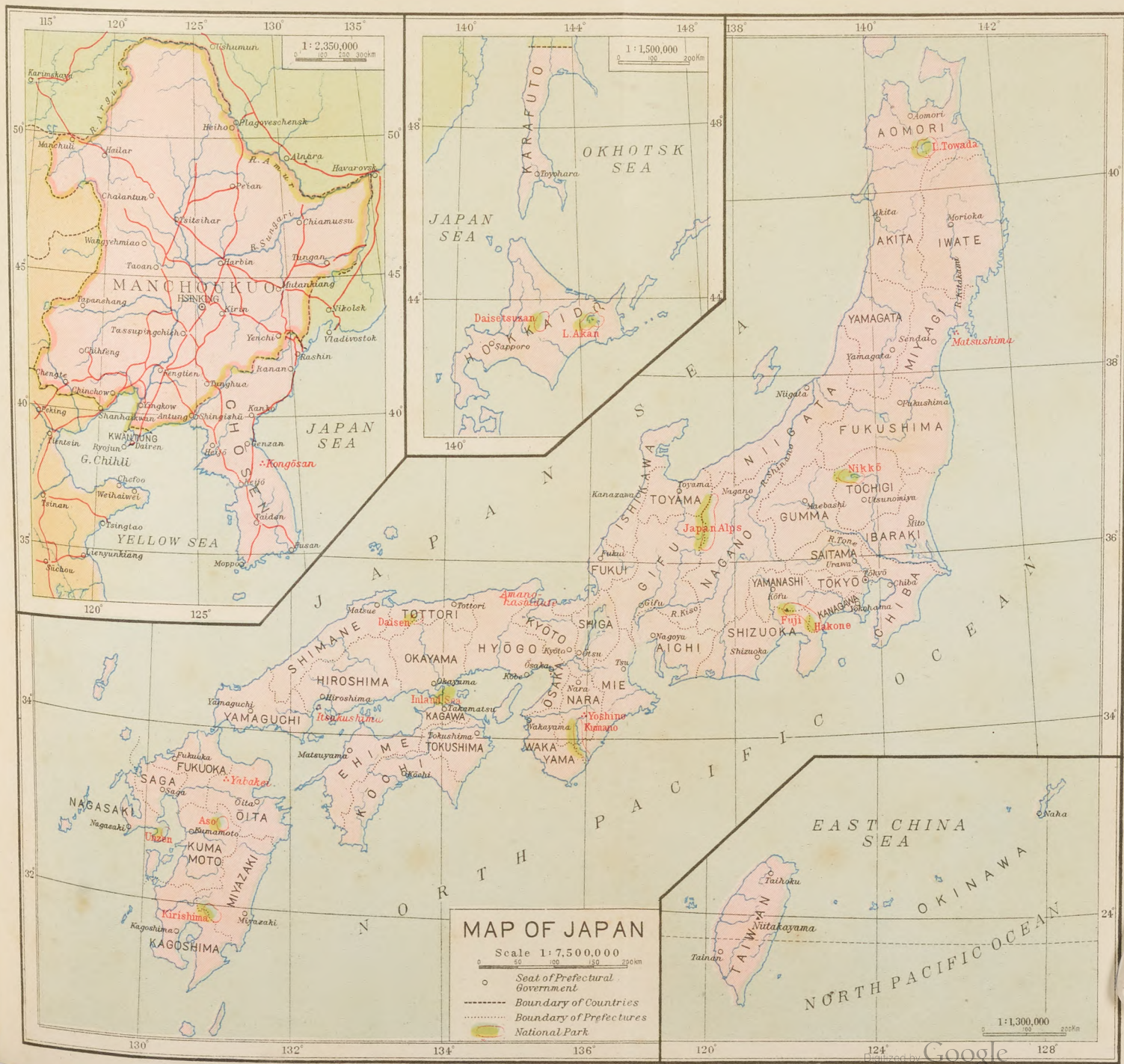
Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few cases prove fatal. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera, pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

Medical Facilities Medical practitioner's offices are maintained by the government, and for the benefit of those living in remote places visiting doctors are dispatched several times a year. The entire territory is divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the standard of living, and medical charges are fixed differently; class A, for instance, paying from a third to half as much as the resident Japanese. The task of health protection lies heavily upon the shoulders of the government, for the number of private medical prac-

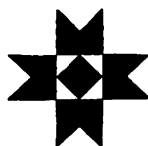
tititioners within the territory is still far from sufficient. According to statistics taken at the end of June 1939, officials in the government medical service throughout the insular territory include 25 doctors, 7 pharmacists, 3 secretaries, 9 employees, 9 assistants, 8 midwives and 30 nurses.

Special precautions are exercised against the outbreak of epidemics, and all arriving vessels are subjected to strict quarantine inspection. Compulsory vaccination is being practised, as in Japan proper. Geisha and waitresses undergo examination at least once a month. Lepers are found in several places, though the exact number is not yet available. The government opened a sanatorium in Saipan in 1926 and added others in Jaluit and Palau.

The health inspection is conducted in the schools once a year. The results indicate that though the physical growth of the native children generally surpasses that of the Japanese, cases of malnutrition and disease are much more numerous among the former. Inspection of water and investigation of the causes of death are carried out to aid health and hygienic improvement.



MANCHOUKUO



THE CENTRAL BANK OF MANCHOU

ESTABLISHED 1932

The Sole Bank of Issue in Manchoukuo

Governor:

KAN CHAO HSI

Directors:

**Susumu Abe, Enzo Kasai,
Kanenori Suzuki,
Wang Te-en, Ho Chih-an**

Vice-Governor:

KIKUTARO OSAWA

Auditors:

**Mitsugi Irobe
(Special Auditor)
Ting Shih-yuan,
Cheng Ting-hou**



HEAD OFFICE: Hsinking, Manchoukuo

BRANCHES:

**Mukden, Kirin, Harbin, Tsitsihar, Dairen, Yingkow,
Antung, Tokyo and 140 Other Locations**

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENTS:

**New York, London, Paris, Berlin, Shanghai, Tientsin,
Peking, Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe and All Other
Principal Cities in Japan**

MANCHOUKUO

Geography

Position Extending between 38°43' and 53°30' North latitude and 117°50' and 135°20' East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Chosen and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

Topography Topographically, Manchoukuo is a vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the north-western section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao rivers.

Climate The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within about the same latitudes as Japan, Chosen, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40° C. in some localities in summer.

Area and Population

The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,303,143 square kilometers and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Chosen, Taiwan, and Karafuto. Prior to 1932 little effort was made to obtain reliable census. In that year the population of Manchoukuo was estimated at 30,000,000 people. Rapid increase immediately followed with the great influx chiefly of Chinese, Chosenese and Japanese.

According to the first census taken on October 1, 1940, the population of Manchoukuo reached 43,202,880, consisting of 23,908,082 men and 19,294,798 women. (These figures differ from those given in p.925, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42, because they were based on a tentative reports of the authorities at the end of 1940, while the new figures are based on the final reports published on September 10, 1942.)

The density of population is 33.2 per square kilometer. The ratio of men to 100 women is 123.9, clearly indicating the fact that the country is still in the making as compared with Japan where it is 101.0.

Of the total 40,858,473 or 94.57 per cent were Manchurians (Hans representing 90.24 per cent of it), 2,271,495 were Japanese (Chosenese representing 63.85 per cent of it), and 72,912 were Westerners and others.

POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO BY PROVINCES

(Census of October 1, 1940)

(Revised)

Provinces	Area (Sq. km.)	Population
Hsinking Spe.		
Municipality	428	555,009
Kirin	88,925	5,608,922
Lungkiang	67,483	3,093,500
Pelan	76,183	2,318,957
Helho	118,899	149,987
Sankiang	90,418	1,415,633
Tungan	41,397	512,240
Mutankiang	32,975	688,424
Pingkiang	63,860	4,234,206
Chientao	30,134	848,197
Tunghua	31,705	982,387
Antung	26,506	2,231,507
Fengtien	74,860	7,565,599
Szuping		2,031,970
Chinchou	40,162	4,317,822
Jehol	103,062	4,553,228
West Hsingan	73,934	736,701
South Hsingan	76,866	1,026,635
East Hsingan	109,107	199,530
North Hsingan	156,230	132,426
Total	1,303,143	43,202,880

POPULATION OF KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

(As of December 31 each year)

Year	Manchurians	Japanese	Chosenese	Others	Total
1937	1,009,870	174,587	3,917	1,629	1,190,003
1938	1,038,613	180,689	4,496	1,772	1,225,570
1939 (July)	1,058,900	184,500	4,800	1,900	1,250,200
1940 (Nov.)	1,171,154	202,324	5,668	1,675	1,380,821
1941	1,270,119	215,267	6,405	1,700	1,493,481

Note: The 1941 population consisted of 855,799 men and 637,692 women or 134.2 men to 100 women.

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL CITIES

(October 1, 1940)

Mukden	1,135,801	Mutankiang	179,217
Harbin	661,984	Chiamussu	138,667
Hsinking	554,202	Fushun	269,919
Antung	315,242	Anshan	231,865
Yingkou	180,871	Hallar	39,877
Kirin	173,624	Liaoyang	100,165
Chinchou	142,606	Penhsihu	100,057
Tsitsihar	133,495	Dalren (1941)	715,781

Government

A historical survey concerning the founding of Manchoukuo and the development of her governmental system has been given on pp. 931-933, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.

The present Government organization of Manchoukuo is as follows:

- H. I. M. The Emperor
- Imperial Household Dept.
- Committee on Imperial House Law
- Office of the Privy Seal
- Office of Aides-de-Camp
- Legislative Council
- Privy Council
- State Council
 - Bureau of Audit
 - Council on Decorations
 - Board of Decorations
 - Office of Foreign Affairs
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of Political Affairs
 - Bureau of Investigation
- General Affairs Board
 - Council on Planning
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of Planning
 - Bureau of Accounts
 - Bureau of Legislation
 - Bureau of Personnel
 - Bureau of Statistics
 - Bureau of Information
 - Cadastre Adjustment Bureau
 - Bureau of Supplies and Repairs

- Office of Home Affairs
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of Management
 - Bureau of Supervision
- Office of Hsingan Affairs

- Dept. of Public Peace
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of General Staff
 - Bureau of Military Affairs
 - Bureau of Police Affairs

- Dept. of People's Welfare
 - Institute of Cultural Research
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of Education
 - Bureau of Social Affairs
 - Bureau of Public Health
 - Health Equipment Dept.

- Dept. of Agriculture
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of Agricultural Affairs
 - Bureau of Agricultural Production
 - Bureau of Live-Stock Farming
 - Bureau of Colonial Administration
 - Forestry Bureau
 - Special Products Bureau

- Dept. of Finance and Commerce
 - Secretariat
 - Bureau of Revenue
 - Bureau of Finance
 - Bureau of Industry
 - Bureau of Mining
 - Bureau of Commercial Affairs
 - General Monopoly Office
 - Patent Bureau

Hydro-electric Power Construction Bureau
 Dept. of Communications
 General Postal Administration Bureau
 Secretariat
 Bureau of Railways
 Bureau of Roads
 Bureau of Navigation
 Dept. of Justice
 Secretariat
 Bureau of Civil Affairs
 Bureau of Criminal Affairs
 Bureau of Penal Administration
 Courts
 Procurator's Offices
 Offices of Special Municipalities
 Provincial Government Offices
 Hsingan Provincial Government Offices
 Metropolitan Police Board
 Capital Construction Bureau

The Concordia Association in most constitutional states, parliaments and congresses are the chief organs of government which reflect popular sentiment, but in Manchoukuo, the Hsieh-ho-hui or the Concordia Association has performed this function ever since the foundation of the State.

The Government strives to put Wangtaoism, the fundamental principle underlying the State's foundation into practice while the Concordia Association is entrusted with the task of diffusing the principle throughout the nation. For this reason the Concordia Association is regarded as the mother of the Government. At the present time, there are in the country more than 3,200 sub-organizations with a total membership of about 1,320,000. A national conference is held once each year and various proposals are submitted to the Government.

National Defense

History The Manchurian army has its origin in the Lillian army which rendered great services in founding the Ching dynasty. The soldiers of this army were since then hereditary and were garrisoned in various important points. After the Chinese Revolution of 1911 the army was modernized, and in Manchuria, there were stationed two divisions of the 27th and 28th numbering from 30,000 to 40,000. When Chang Tso-lin came into power, he increased it to 200,000, which was again increased by his son to 260,000 regulars with an additional 100,000 held as provisional forces. There was kept also a small

fleet of 7 gunboats to protect trade carried on the rivers. These were the military forces in service under Chang Hsueh-ling at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident.

Present Status The army and navy of the empire is under the supreme command of the Emperor, and is garrisoned in defense of particular districts prescribed by the Emperor.

The Bureau of Military Affairs combines both services of army and navy having the following bureaux and sections:

(1) Staff Bureau, (2) Supplies Bureau, (3) General Affairs Section, (4) Justice Section, (5) Personnel Section, (6) Survey Section, (7) Accounting Section, (8) Auditing, (9) Naval Administration, and (10) Armaments Section.

Besides there are the Military Advisory Board, where a number of Japanese officers are engaged who direct the military administration and the Investigation Board which engage in the investigations into the subjects of military affairs and also in propaganda.

The conscription system recommended by the Investigation Board was sanctioned by the State Council and the Conscription Law was promulgated on April 11, 1940 and enforced on the 15th of the same month.

Foreign Relations

The establishment of the new Chinese Government in Nanking in 1940 has given chance for a final readjustment of the relations between the two nations, and the joint declaration of the two governments on November 30, 1940, when the Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China was concluded, made it clear that Manchoukuo and China will recognize sovereignty and territorial integrity each other.

Recognition of Manchoukuo Manchoukuo has been formally recognized by 11 countries of Japan, Germany, Italy, China, Dominica, Salvador, Spain, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Rumania by the end of 1940, and by Bulgaria on May 14, 1941, by Finland on July 19, 1941, and by Thailand on August 1, 1941, the number of countries which recognized Manchoukuo reaching 14.

Finance

While the finance under Chang Tso-ling was comparatively sound in his

early administration, the expenditure commenced to increase steadily due to his army being enlarged in the latter days. Thus in 1926, the total expenditure was ¥120,000,000 and showed a budgetary deficit of ¥12,000,000. When he was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-liang, the deficit was further increased. The recklessness of his finance was evidenced by the fact that, of the total expenditure of ¥142,500,000, the sum defrayed for the military purpose amounted to ¥114,720,000. The deficit thus created was met by increased taxes

and inflation of currency, thereby causing the people great misery.

In view of the deplorable state of affairs, as above stated, the leaders of Manchoukuo directed their efforts for the stabilization of the financial conditions of the country without increasing tax economic pressure on the people. It is much to the credit of the new state that such a rapid and sound development has been made in finance and currency in so short a time.

Manchoukuo's national budgets since its foundation follow:

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL BUDGET.

(In M¥1,000)

	Ordinary	Revenue Extra- ordinary	Total	Ordinary	Expenditure Extra- ordinary	Total
1932	108,441	44,492	152,923	89,937	39,698	129,635
1933	151,145	43,429	194,574	105,143	60,339	165,482
1934	180,439	34,460	214,899	113,831	73,411	187,242
1935	93,386	39,382	132,768	54,714	45,121	99,835
1936	223,719	39,891	263,610	130,741	90,049	220,790
1937	211,631	36,467	248,098	119,112	128,986	248,098
1938	240,335	64,219	304,555	143,659	160,875	304,535
1939	299,837	103,540	403,377	182,033	221,344	403,377
1940	417,770	155,785	573,555	240,319	333,236	573,555
1941	498,799	154,420	649,220	281,166	368,054	649,220
1942	610,152	213,247	823,400	258,225	465,174	823,400

Note: Figures for 1932-1936 represent settled accounts.

Characteristics of Manchoukuo's 1942 Budget

The budget of Manchoukuo was noted to have undergone a drastic change in 1937 (the fourth year of Kangte) when the national policy of the State shifted from military reorganization to industrial development on the basis of the giant five-year industrial plan. Due to the outbreak of the China Affair, however, the five-year industrial plan was subjected to a large-scale revision with the resultant remarkable expansion of State economy. The prolongation of the China Affair and the outbreak of the European War, however, brought about many new phases in the financial situation domestically as well as internationally. To cope with the situation, therefore, the State Government exercised the strictest scrutiny over various administrative expenditures in an effort to check non-urgent and unnecessary enterprises while continuing to pursue the positive industrial development scheme. On the basis of the 1942 in-

dustrial capital adjustment plan, therefore, the State Government retrenched many Government enterprises, and curtailed the 1942 flotation of Government bonds by about ¥104,000,000 from the original schedule to ¥404,000,000 in both ordinary and special accounts. Similar curtailment policy was applied to the industrial capital of special companies. The special feature of the 1942 budget of Manchoukuo is its high flexibility sufficient to cope with any international development by means of a special reserve fund. A special financial measure has also been adopted to enable the State to execute its task of contributing to Japan through the supply of cardinal materials while maintaining its own self-sufficiency. For this purpose, the pivot of the national expenditures in 1942 was placed on the various defense measures, the second five-year industrial plan, increase of production of soy beans and other farm products, dairy products, ferrous and non-ferrous products as well as liquid fuel, maintenance of peace and order as well as proper

guidance for economic control measures. On the revenue side, an increase in taxes was effected, particularly national taxes as a principal source of revenue for meeting wartime expenditures. As a result, the revenue from taxes in 1942 came to total ¥380,000,000 or 60 per cent of the total national revenue, representing an 80 per cent gain compared with the corresponding revenue in 1941. On the other hand, the flotation of deficit-covering bonds was curtailed to the minimum from the standpoint of checking the expansion of currency, being reduced by ¥60,000,000 to ¥430,000,000 as compared with the 1941 fiscal year.

Ever since its founding, Manchoukuo depended upon Japan for its economy. In 1940, the fourth year of the five-year industrial plan, Japan's materials mobilization plan grew extremely stringent due to the prolongation of the China

Affair and the aggravation of the European War. Naturally, the acquisition of raw materials as well as labor became difficult and the supply of funds and transportation facilities became disturbed. To cope with the situation, the State Government adopted the strengthened priority system, the utilization of existing facilities, the promotion of efficiency and the curtailment of expenditures. All those steps were reflected in the curtailment of the budget in 1940. The retrenchment of the State budget in that year was also attributable to the stringency of Japan's monetary conditions in the first half of that year. It is noteworthy that the 1942 budget of Manchoukuo is so compiled as to contribute materially to Japan in the course of the execution of the Greater East Asia War through the self-sufficiency of the State finance itself. Relative figures follow:

1942 BUDGET OF MANCHOUKUO

(In ¥1,000)

	Ordinary Accounts	Extraordinary Accounts	Total
Revenue:			
General Affairs Board	15,176	858	16,034
Peace Department	188	357	545
Welfare Department	5,198	16,050	21,248
Justice Department	662	139	801
Agriculture Department	346	23,376	23,722
Economic Department	588,503	171,390	759,893
Communications Department	78	1,075	1,153
Total	610,152	213,247	823,400
Expenditures:			
Civil List	—	—	3,060
General Affairs Board	148,245	98,258	46,504
Peace Department	122,138	114,080	36,219
Welfare Department	24,564	21,272	45,837
Justice Department	13,836	235	14,071
Agriculture Department	15,552	64,446	79,999
Economic Department	21,604	93,290	114,894
Communications Department	9,223	73,590	82,814
Total	358,225	465,174	823,400

1942 BUDGET OF MANCHOUKUO: SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Items	Ordinary Accounts	Revenue		Ordinary Accounts	Expenditures	
		Extraor- dinary Accounts	Total		Extraor- dinary Accounts	Total
General Affairs Board:						
Local Finance Adjustment						
Funds	—	—	57,925	—	—	57,925
Pensions	14,468	72	14,541	9,647	—	9,647
Welfare for Govt. Officials	12,073	—	12,073	9,662	500	10,162
Scientific Research	6,760	348	7,108	6,218	889	7,108
Supplies	89,000	154	89,154	88,038	1,115	89,154

Items	Ordinary Accounts	Revenue		Ordinary Accounts	Expenditures	
		Extraor- dinary Accounts	Total		Extraor- dinary Accounts	Total
Peace Department:						
War Supply Department	13,715	84	13,800	13,471	329	13,800
Munitions Depot	17,085	—	17,085	16,861	—	17,085
Welfare Department:						
Anti-Tobacco	94,216	—	94,216	57,223	22,228	79,452
Justice Department:						
Prisons	25,169	1,060	26,229	24,962	1,267	26,229
Agriculture Department:						
State Forests	87,682	5,822	93,504	64,651	98,852	93,504
Colonial	—	69,100	69,100	—	69,100	69,100
Horse-Raising	18,404	—	18,404	3,482	503	3,985
Economic Department:						
Government Bonds	—	—	432,112	—	—	422,112
Govt. Bonds Redemption Funds	—	—	138,978	—	—	138,978
Investments	—	—	202,726	—	—	202,726
Funds for Adjustment of State Assets	5,266	12,268	17,535	625	16,626	19,321
Monopoly	323,546	—	323,546	275,836	978	276,814
Water-Power Construction	—	37,444	37,444	—	37,444	37,444
Communications Department:						
Postal Service	39,080	2,168	41,248	38,290	2,417	40,707
Life Insurance	17,368	—	17,368	7,865	—	7,865
Water Works	—	4,101	4,101	—	4,101	4,101
Tatung Port Construction	—	11,500	11,500	—	11,500	11,500

Banking

Central Bank of Manchou This bank was established on July 1, 1932, and it opened business on the same day. In it were included four old banks of issue, the Three Eastern Provinces and the Frontier Bank. It has its head office at Hsinking, and branch offices at Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar and Harbin. It is capitalized at M¥45,000,000, and the Manchoukuo Government holds more than 50,000 shares of M¥100 each. It is authorized to mint coins (to the amount of 100 million yen) and issue notes.

REPORT OF THE CENTRAL BANK OF MANCHOU

For the Second Half of 1940

ASSETS	(In yen)
Cash and deposits	75,952,325
Cash on hand	10,568,566
Deposits and bullion	65,108,581
Deposits in agencies	163,427
Foreign currency	111,749
Negotiable papers	850,687,018
Bills discounted	386,382,827
Commercial bills	385,560,634
Bills of exchange	822,193
Loans	486,078,340
Advances to the Govern- ment	98,335,400

Advances	59,359,670
Advances on current ac- counts	328,383,289
Exchange bills purchased	16,680
Loans to other banks	4,132,802
Fund for payments	359,027
Suspense payments	14,490,540
Fixed assets	19,514,530
Capital unpaid	15,000,000
Total	1,852,614,414

LIABILITIES

Deposits	525,254,572
Current deposits	238,939,803
Special current deposits	74,547,475
Deposits at notice	32,082,284
Fixed deposits	17,506,668
Special deposits	17,068,266
Government deposits	145,089,964
Loans	156,752,480
Exchange bill accounts	14,427,386
Remittances paid	14,421,960
Exchange bills sold	5,425
Due to other banks	58,183,680
Payments due	359,027
Suspense receipts	81,931,301
Notes issued	947,050,732
Reserves for retiring allow- ances	2,105,312
Replenishments	3,800,333
Capital subscribed	30,000,000
Reserve fund	16,030,000

Profit brought forward from last half-year	4,081,379
Net profit for the current half-year	12,636,079
Total	1,852,614,414

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT

Gross profits for the current half-year	40,258,552
Gross losses for the current half-year	27,622,472
Net profits for the current half-year	12,636,079
Balance brought forward from last half-year	4,081,379
Total	16,717,459
Reserves for deficits	1,210,000
Reserves for dividends	280,000
Special reserves	1,800,000
Other reserves	1,300,000
Payment to the Government	6,033,052
Bonus and allowances	53,000
Dividend at the rate of 6 per cent per annum	450,000
Balance carried forward	4,611,406

Currency Problem The currency in Manchoukuo has been in an extremely complicated condition, native and Japanese and other notes and coins being in circulation. But in the newly regulated system of Manchoukuo currency 23.91 grams of pure silver is taken as the unit called the yuan, there being 100 fen or 1,000 li in one yuan. The new paper notes are issued in five different denominations of 100 yuan, 10 yuan, 5 yuan, one yuan and chian, or 50 fen, circulated together with 1-chiao and 5 fen nickles and 1-fen and 5-li coppers. The amount of coins issued by the end of October 1941 reached M¥53,592,000.

Note Issue Before opening for business on July 1, 1932, the Central Bank of Manchou took over old notes of 15 different kinds and 136 denominations amounting to M¥142,234,881 calculated in the new currency at the exchange rate fixed officially. This figure was gradually reduced and by the end of June 1935 a total of M¥138,200,000 or 97.2% had been redeemed by the Bank. The amount of the notes issued by the end of 1941 reached M¥1,275,991,000.

Industrial Bank of Manchou This bank was founded in accordance with the Industrial Bank of Manchou Law issued by the Manchoukuo Government on December 3, 1936. Its capitalization

is ¥30,000,000, a half of which is invested by that Government. Its object is to supply capital necessary for industrial development of Manchoukuo, and the domain of its business is not only limited to supply of capital to commerce, but to large and small industries on a basis of long-term and low interest rate. The bank is vested with authority to issue industrial debentures 15 times its paid-up capitalization. The Manchoukuo Government will guarantee for payment of principal and interest of loans for the bank, when the latter intends to raise necessary loans by floatation of its debentures abroad.

Other Banking Institutions Though the Central Bank of Manchou occupies the controlling position in the monetary market as the note issuing bank, there are other banks which do substantial banking business. The names and capitalizations of the principal banks follow:

Name	Authorized Capital
(1) Manchoukuo Banks	
Fengtien Commercial & Industrial Bank	M¥2,200,000
Fengtien Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Yingkow Bank	1,000,000
Kung Cheng "Yu Bank"	500,000
Tungpien Industrial Bank	1,500,000
I Fa Bank	1,000,000
I Tung Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Hui Hua Bank	250,000
(2) Japanese Banks	
Yokohama Specie Bank	¥100,000,000
Bank of Chosen	400,000,000
Shoryu Bank	12,000,000
Manshu Bank	10,000,000
(3) Chinese Banks	
Central Bank of China	25,000,000
Bank of Communications	10,000,000
Chin Cheng Bank	10,000,000
Ta Chung Bank	4,000,000
(4) Other Foreign Banks	
Russo-Asiatic Bank	R65,000,000
The Far Eastern Bank	\$5,000,000

To aid the sound development and proper control of banking, the Government promulgated a new Banking Law in November 1933.

Encouraged by the favorable results of

the two credit associations which were created in 1932 in Fengtien province the Finance authorities in 1933 inaugurated eight similar associations in

Fengtien, two in Kirin and one in Heilungkiang province. The number has been increased year by year, and it reached 126 in 1938.

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF BANKS IN MANCHOUKUO

(As outstanding at the end of each year)

(In ¥1,000)

	Deposits						Total
	Central Bank	Industrial Bank	Other Manchurian Banks	Chinese Banks	Western Banks	Japanese Banks	
1935	151,934	—	11,364	34,411	14,568	382,157	594,434
1936	225,582	—	13,042	25,918	12,447	444,249	721,238
1937	265,580	244,270	32,676	20,184	16,233	132,785	711,728
1938	386,849	388,150	47,912	15,338	16,528	132,584	987,361
1939	752,349	568,692	101,901	17,068	20,114	202,674	1,682,797
1940	429,138	789,411	201,958	18,410	19,154	273,533	1,681,604
1941	657,276	985,038	303,854	19,263	9,939	376,655	2,344,025
1942							
(June)	544,557	1,007,755	944,776	6,349	4,371	450,113	2,957,964
	Loans						Total
	Central Bank	Industrial Bank	Other Manchurian Banks	Chinese Banks	Western Banks	Japanese Banks	
1935	171,000	—	33,800	25,428	30,277	296,779	532,784
1936	197,360	—	36,586	23,540	24,457	363,012	649,894
1937	212,569	258,995	57,288	17,866	30,070	162,917	739,705
1938	419,997	412,419	71,800	14,901	22,247	290,223	1,231,588
1939	871,190	790,373	98,685	14,754	11,154	513,173	2,289,329
1940	872,318	1,294,574	168,141	12,880	4,584	770,494	3,122,991
1941	757,577	1,091,984	281,327	15,929	2,255	883,260	3,032,332
1942							
(June)	698,617	987,273	623,522	8,685	1,163	781,179	3,100,454

ADVANCES BY BANKS TO VARIOUS INDUSTRIES

At the end of each year

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Industry	1938		1939		1940	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Mining	48,148	4.57%	79,365	5.26%	108,496	5.71%
Manufacturing	256,891	24.38%	405,550	26.92%	537,035	28.28%
Agricultural	197,442	18.74%	235,538	15.63%	271,823	14.31%
Fishery	20,979	1.99%	29,491	1.90%	43,898	2.31%
Traffic	28,231	2.68%	46,729	3.10%	71,268	3.75%
Commerce	308,381	29.27%	475,412	31.55%	511,514	26.83%
Miscel. industries	30,113	2.85%	28,728	1.90%	51,557	2.71%
Others	163,164	15.49%	205,628	13.64%	303,359	16.50%
Total	1,053,349	100.00%	1,506,451	100.00%	1,898,950	100.00%

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF CREDIT ASSOCIATIONS IN 1939 AND 1940

(In yen)

	1939		1940	
	Deposits	Loans	Deposits	Loans
Cooperative credit associations	39,762,000	60,064,000		
Credit societies	5,793,000	11,222,000		
Mutual loan societies in city area	22,972,000	13,179,000		
Mutual loan societies in rural districts	3,504,000	5,890,000		
All associations and societies	372,278,000	368,154,000		

POSTAL SAVINGS IN MANCHOUKUO (1935-39)

Manchurian Savings

(In yuan)

Year	Deposits	Withdrawals	At End of Year		Average Amount per Depositor
			No. of Depositors	Amount	
1935	4,005,435	2,300,485	72,675	2,336,089	32.14
1936	11,210,783	6,438,153	103,909	7,106,826	68.39
1937	22,627,976	13,145,569	204,634	17,304,209	84.50
1938	77,030,860	42,721,938	638,003	51,613,139	80.80
1939	139,896,600	88,879,300	1,152,922	102,730,800	89.10

Japanese Savings

(In yuan)

Year	Deposits	Withdrawals	At End of Year		Average Amount per Depositor
			No. of Depositors	Amount	
1935	45,160,779	38,622,080	522,879	44,771,451	85.62
1936	47,918,224	42,318,518	595,031	50,018,738	84.06
1937	47,480,040	41,032,499	658,718	57,735,875	87.65
1938	49,003,964	49,316,382	625,965	57,941,469	92.56
1939	50,545,100	49,689,500	596,048	58,799,900	98.65

Industrial Development Plan

The first five-year industrial development plan has been carried out last five years ending March 31, 1942, to enter into the second five-year plan beginning April 1, 1942. According to the report of the Government on the results of the five years, the increase of some agricultural products could not reach the proposed level, but that of the products of mining and manufacturing industries excelled the goals, especially in cases of lead, copper, pig iron, steel and chemicals. The amount of funds to be obtained during the five years was first set as 2,500 million yen and later as 6,100 million yen, but the actual amount raised reached 7,600 million yen. It is a wonderful result reaped in the years of the most complicated international affairs which heavily affected the execution of the plan all through the entire period. Relative figures follow:

RESULTS OF THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN

(In index numbers, taking 1936 as normal)

Agricultural Products	Index Number
Kaoliang	116
Millet	115
Soya beans	85
Maize	148

	Index Number
Rice (paddy)	330
Rice (upland)	88
Wheat	100
Barley	53
Oat	383
Cotton	156
Hemp	2,327
Flax	546
Cocoon	129
Tobacco	1,083
	(1939=100)
Beet	456
Live-stock	
Horse	105
Cattle	120
Pig	109
Sheep	120
Wool	130
Mining and Manufacturing	
Pig iron	219
Steel ingot	154
Steel	264
Asbestos	4,828
	(1937=100)
Copper	517
	(1938=100)
Lead	1,223
Zinc	398
Coal	178
Ammonium sulphate	104
Salt	150
Soda ash	545
	(1937=100)

	Index Number
Caustic soda	3,500 (1939=100)
Aluminium	1,666 (1938=100)
Pulp	790
Liquid fuel	160
Electricity	241
Transportation	
State railways	215
Private railways	208
Highways	281
Colonization	
Japanese houses	1,532
Chosenese houses	451

Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation

The Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation was established in December 1937 with an authorized capital of 450 million yuan. The authorized capital was increased to 758 million yuan by the end of June 1941, of which 663,061,000 yuan is paid up, one-half is

furnished by the Manchoukuo Government and one-half by private interests. Its object is defined in the Administration Act as expediting the co-ordinated establishment of heavy industries and controlling those industries. For this purpose the Corporation is authorized "to invest in any or all of the following industries and to direct the management thereof in this country: (1) iron and steel industry; (2) light metal industry; (3) automobile manufacturing industry; (4) aeroplane manufacturing industry; and (5) coal industry." It is authorized also that the Corporation "may invest in the business of mining gold, zinc, lead, copper, and other metals or other enterprises" by obtaining governmental permission for businesses other than the mining.

Companies in Manchoukuo

The number and capital of companies in Manchoukuo and the position of governmental and semi-governmental companies among them are indicated by the following tables.

NUMBER AND CAPITAL OF BANKS AND COMPANIES AT THE END OF JULY 1941

(Compiled by the Commercial Bureau, Department of Finance and Commerce)

(In ¥1,000)

Kinds	Joint-stock Companies			Unlimited Partnerships	
	Number	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Number	Capital
Banks	133	656,285	562,962	15	684
Insurance	4	8,150	2,825	—	—
Warehousing	19	6,680	2,768	1	85
Markets and bourses	19	12,542	6,393	—	—
Commerce and trade	588	881,898	369,131	898	58,903
Transportation	90	1,707,374	1,113,652	34	3,046
Colonization, real estate and building	99	208,380	118,761	34	15,906
Engineering	102	92,376	65,960	52	5,012
Agriculture	32	26,620	13,305	9	686
Lumber and wood work	47	64,153	43,399	9	519
Live-stock	25	12,408	5,145	4	36
Fisheries	10	32,700	21,400	1	30
Mining	79	988,780	881,788	21	1,334
Metallic industries	67	475,007	445,165	14	1,389
Machine industries	168	596,491	360,728	31	2,383
Electric and gas	25	245,450	235,707	3	149
Chemical industries	169	635,248	428,346	36	1,375
Kiln industries	71	95,781	71,491	13	720
Spinning and dyeing factories	62	169,618	115,226	21	1,465
Foodstuff industries	122	136,985	95,152	75	7,579
Miscellaneous	163	171,081	138,319	68	3,453
Others	84	37,396	27,367	47	2,232
Total	2,177	7,261,399	5,124,988	1,386	107,043

BUSINESS CONDITIONS

893

Kinds	Joint-stock Companies			Unlimited Partnerships	
	Number	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Number	Capital
Companies under Manchurian Law	1,794	5,473,663	4,000,000	1,258	93,068
Companies under Japanese Law	383	1,787,736	1,124,968	128	13,975

Kinds	Limited Partnership		Total	
	Number	Capital	Number	Capital
Banks	42	1,301	189	658,271
Insurance	—	—	4	8,150
Warehousing	8	538	28	7,301
Markets and bourses	2	30	21	12,572
Commerce and trade	1,138	54,321	2,624	995,121
Transportation	72	4,191	196	1,714,612
Colonization, real estate and building	71	5,172	204	229,459
Engineering	239	23,540	393	120,928
Agriculture	27	1,668	68	28,975
Lumber and wood work	26	3,199	82	67,871
Live-stock	12	733	41	13,177
Fisheries	7	426	18	33,156
Mining	63	7,416	163	997,530
Metallic industries	30	3,199	111	479,605
Machine industries	80	22,318	279	621,202
Electric and gas	5	366	33	245,963
Chemical industries	64	7,374	269	644,001
Kiln industries	70	3,062	154	99,563
Spinning and dyeing factories	13	777	96	171,855
Foodstuff industries	124	4,138	321	148,703
Miscellaneous	177	9,951	408	184,516
Others	139	4,706	270	44,335
Total	2,409	158,432	5,972	7,526,876
Companies under Manchurian Law	1,725	134,138	4,797	5,700,869
Companies under Japanese Law	684	24,294	1,195	1,826,005

YEARLY COMPARISON OF JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES AND GOVERNMENTAL COMPANIES

(Amount in ¥1,000)

End of	(A) Total of Joint-stock Companies		(B) Governmental and Semi-governmental Companies in (A)		Percentage of (B) to (A)	
	No.	Paid-up Capital	No.	Paid-up Capital	No.	Paid-up Capital
1932	437	693,704	4	483,850	0.9	70
1933	477	943,508	6	711,178	1.3	75
1934	573	1,116,465	12	840,640	2.1	75
1935	674	1,197,014	15	808,528	2.2	78
1936	794	1,337,041	26	956,704	3.3	72
1937	959	2,123,826	35	1,549,984	3.6	73
1938	1,146	2,495,335	41	1,746,899	3.6	70
1939 (June)	1,290	3,790,787	45	1,951,382	3.5	70
1941 (July)	2,177	5,124,988	70	2,633,917	3.2	51

INDEX NUMBER OF HSINKING WHOLESALE PRICES (1933=100)

		1939	1940	1941	1942 (June)
Staple products	202.9	271.4	294.8	342.0	387.9
Cereals	141.6	195.8	298.8	235.1	262.1
Foodstuff & delicacies	124.9	155.4	204.2	204.3	257.2
Textiles	151.6	191.9	218.6	249.1	242.7
Fuels	106.9	129.8	179.0	227.7	263.8
Hardware	211.6	155.7	162.3	174.0	194.5
Building materials	128.6	166.6	183.9	198.3	209.0
Miscellaneous	149.5	198.8	296.2	210.9	297.2
Average	149.6	181.3	225.8	248.2	263.4

INDEX NUMBER OF HSINKING COST OF LIVING (1936=100)

		1939	1940	1941	1942 (June)
Food and drink		160.8	225.0	268.6	307.5
Clothing		205.1	298.3	320.9	341.5
Housing		138.4	166.7	171.2	179.3
Light and fuel		137.3	175.0	214.6	250.5
Miscellaneous		145.7	183.7	223.4	259.0
General index		158.8	213.4	249.8	276.4

Japan's Investment in Manchoukuo
Japan's investment in Manchoukuo was estimated to have amounted to about ¥1,700,000,000 before the Manchurian Incident of 1931. According to the South Manchuria Railway Company, the pre-Incident investments were distributed as follows: 30 per cent in transportation; 11.6 per cent in finance; 6.7 per cent in commerce; 16.2 per cent in agriculture, forestry and mining; 9.2 per cent in industry; and 26.3 per cent in other enterprises. It is further classified that out of the ¥1,700,000,000 investments, ¥837,000,000 took the form of investments in securities and the remaining ¥863,000,000 in limited and unlimited partnership companies and private companies.

Investments in securities before the Incident consisted of those in debentures and stocks and loans, which may be partially regarded as investments in securities. At the end of 1931, the total

investments of Japan in securities relating to Manchuria amounted to ¥837,536,000, of which ¥710,906,000 was connected with the S.M.R.Co. The fact shows Japan's investments in Manchuria before the Incident were almost exclusively limited to the railway company.

To the above huge total were added new investments amounting to ¥900,521,000 during 1932-35 or first four years of the new State, making the total investments up to 1935 around ¥2,600,000,000. During the period under review, according to the reports of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau, ¥262,985,000 were added in 1936, ¥341,273,000 in 1937, ¥430,981,000 in 1938, and ¥1,103,713,000 in 1939. The grand total of Japanese investments in Manchuria at the end of 1939 is thus estimated to be around ¥4,739,483,000. The total amount of Japanese investments in the form of shares and bonds in 1941 reached ¥3,724,697,000.

JAPANESE INVESTMENTS IN MANCHOUKUO DURING 1941 (In ¥1,000)

	Amount Newly-Issued	Conversion	Total	Redemption	Outstanding At the End of the Year
National bonds	220,000	—	220,000	2,397	842,062
Bank bonds	40,000	—	40,000	450	114,550
Company shares	351,500	—	331,500	6,175	1,104,025
Shares of Japanese companies in Manchoukuo	289,000	10,000	299,000	19,545	1,664,060
Total	900,500	10,000	910,500	28,566	3,724,697

Agriculture

General The vast plains of Manchuria consist for the most part of agricultural land, covered with fertile soil or humus, and agriculture has always been the main occupation of the people of Manchuria. The recent development of transport facilities has encouraged the coming of immigrants in large numbers from China, especially from Shantung province. Undeveloped land is being thus brought under cultivation, and every year sees some increase in the total amount of farming products. Unfortunately, these immigrants possess neither scientific knowledge nor capital, and, as they still follow primitive methods of cultivation, the productiveness of the land is not yet fully exploited. The wide plains that characterize the country invite the use of machinery for large-scale cultivation.

Arable Land The area of arable land in Manchoukuo in 1935 follows:

**AREA OF ARABLE LAND
IN MANCHURIA**

(Unit: hectare)

Provinces	Total Area	Arable Land
Kirin	11,276,777	4,618,860
Lungkiang	16,042,130	8,223,280
Heiho	2,858,260	873,180

Sankiang	9,685,380	4,090,750
Pinkiang	16,882,840	6,347,340
Chientao	4,629,220	1,853,780
Antung	8,160,250	425,000
Fentien	7,068,350	3,252,560
Chinchow	2,290,330	795,090
Jehol	13,606,060	1,217,930
Total	92,499,590	31,697,870

Number of Farmers In 1934, there were 4,008,053 farming households in Manchoukuo. It represents 85.2 per cent of the total number of households in the country. The number of house members of those homes was estimated at 25,667,000 or 84.7 per cent of the total population.

Agricultural Products and the Area of Cultivated Land As it is commonly known, the primary crops of Manchuria are soya beans, kaoliang, millet, corn, and wheat. The total land area used for the raising of these products is 80%. The remaining crops are paddy rice, upland rice, beans, green peas, buck wheat, cane, barnyard grass, rye, and barley, which are raised throughout Manchuria, while cotton, tobacco, hemp, flax, perilla, gingelly, etc., are widely raised. Together with cabbage, hop, fruits and lucerne, the entire agricultural products of Manchuria number some 40 or 50 species.

CULTIVATED AREAS AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS**Cultivated Areas**

(In 1,000 hectares)

	Soya Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Rice	Other Cereals
1936	3,468.4	378.1	2,994.7	2,554.9	1,312.7	1,094.4	289.4	983.0
1937	3,590.8	375.7	3,046.0	2,613.2	1,418.8	1,216.1	315.4	1,036.6
1938	4,034.9	452.2	3,805.3	3,530.9	1,827.7	1,162.5	354.5	1,598.2
1939	4,156.5	521.5	3,928.6	3,690.1	2,006.8	1,282.1	389.1	1,704.9
1940	3,821.5	523.1	4,106.8	3,902.1	2,301.9	1,021.9	429.6	1,756.9

Production

(In 1,000 metric tons)

	Soya Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Rice	Other Cereals
1936	4,147.2	340.7	4,240.7	3,187.3	2,072.0	959.0	597.6	1,093.1
1937	4,352.4	326.7	4,314.6	3,226.1	2,239.6	1,125.9	689.3	1,069.4
1938	4,624.9	365.3	4,803.0	3,726.5	2,602.5	904.1	723.0	1,410.9
1939	3,955.9	343.5	4,618.7	3,526.5	2,463.6	949.0	790.9	1,294.1
1940	3,799.2	377.5	4,739.3	3,897.5	3,070.7	870.6	647.6	1,370.0

Immigration of Japanese and Chosenese Farmers As a result of the Manchurian Incident the various obstacles brought to bear upon the Japanese, were effectively eradicated in 1931. The Japanese settlers were now entitled to hold land and to carry on commerce, and contrary to the previous situation, received much encouragement from the Manchoukuo Government, under whose efficient administration, peace, order and safety replaced the chaotic conditions prevalent in the past years. Consequently, the Overseas Ministry of the Japanese Government drew up definite plans in 1932 to promote the immigration of Japanese farmers into Manchuria seeking to send as many individuals or families that desired or were capable of cultivating farm lands. Great care was taken by the above authorities to pursue a different immigration policy from that followed heretofore in sending contract laborers or employees destined for settlement in the Kwantung Leased Territory or the South Manchuria Railway Zone.

Thus, the Overseas Ministry decided to carry out its initial experimental immigration program which called for the sending of approximately 2,800 families in five stages during the years beginning with 1932 and ending in 1936. The results of this program were carefully studied from all angles.

Simultaneously with the above program, other immigration projects were carried out, some of them being private undertakings. The main ones included the immigration sponsored by the Tenrikyo Sect, Tenshoen, and the railway guard settlements sponsored by the South Manchuria Railway's General Directorate of Railways.

The experimental immigration projects were generally successful. On the one hand, the Government of Manchoukuo passed a law to protect and aid Japanese agricultural immigrants coming into the country. In 1935, the Manchuria Immigration Association was formed, and carried on advertisements, recruiting of prospective immigrants, and looked after preliminary training of the recruits. Then in the earlier part of 1936, the Manchuria Colonization Joint-stock Company capitalized at ¥15,000,000, was formally inaugurated, and authorized to handle immigration affairs in behalf of settlers such as negotiation for land leases, jurisdiction and distribution of land, to create es-

tablishments and institutions for immigrants, and to handle financial matters. Finally, in July of the same year, the Overseas Ministry in Tokyo adopted concrete plans to send a total of 1,000,000 families (5,000,000 persons) to Manchuria over a period 20 years, as a result of careful deliberation in the Japanese Cabinet supported mainly by the success of the Fifth Experimental Immigration. The first five years of the plan ended in March, 1942, with 80,000 families immigrated to Manchoukuo. Encouraged by this result the Japanese Government decided in 1942 to send 220,000 families as settlers during coming five years, while 130,000 volunteers are to be sent for temporary works.

In conformity with the mass immigration plan, the Manchuria-Chosen Development Company, which took over the Chosenese immigrant farmers' encouragement work in the new State, conducted formerly by the Toa Kangyo Company, upon its establishment toward the end of 1936, has purchased suitable lands in various parts of the country for the settlement of Chosenese farmers, and is making every effort to stabilize their livelihood. For this purpose, it is establishing various facilities necessary for their settlement, is advancing loans to them to engage in independent farming, and is planning to transfer the ownership of farms to the settlers on an annual instalment payment plan.

The Colonization Law of May 1940 was revised and the new Colonial Plantation Law was promulgated on November 13, 1941 to be enforced from April 1, 1942. The law provides the status of Japanese farmers who are welcomed to the land, the conditions of acquiring lands and cultivation and management of the farms, with the purpose of holding the settlers permanently as an important element in the nation.

Chosenese in Manchuria The Chosenese population of Manchuria at present is put at 1,000,000, of which approximately 90 per cent is engaged in rice growing on flooded fields. The Chosenese have advanced well over the land with Chientao Province and the Tungpian-Tao region as the center, even into the deepest interiors.

The road the Chosenese have traveled in the past, however, has not been easy. The history of Chosenese immigration to Manchuria shows what pre-

sure and persecution Chosenese immigrants to Manchuria have suffered in the past at the hands of Chinese officials.

But, fortunately for them, the state of Manchoukuo has been founded with perfect harmony between the five races and fair distribution of state benefits to all of them as its fundamental national principles. With its establishment, the Chosenese too have been enabled to take a free and resolute step into a new life. This is now evident from the actual situation of the old Chosenese agricultural settlers whose forefathers had first settled in the areas, which are now called Chientao Province, the Tungpjen-Tao region and the Antung-Mukden Railway zone, as early as several hundred years ago. This is also true of the group immigrants who have come to settle of late by the agency of the Manchuria-Chosen Development Company in conformity with the national policy.

According to an announcement made by the Japanese Embassy toward the end of 1937, the number of Chosenese households in Manchuria was 193,554 with a population of 988,959.

But it is apparent that their real number is far greater than that checked up. Moreover, it is already several years back that the Chosenese population of Manchuria was stated to be one million. It is thus quite possible that their population at present has reached 1,200,000 or 1,300,000, or even the two-million mark.

Below is shown the state of increase in Chosenese population before and after the Manchurian Incident:

	1927	1930
Population	558,280	607,119
During the Inter-vening 3 Years		Annual Average
Increase	48,839	16,279
Population	673,794	888,181
During the Inter-vening 3 Years		Annual Average
Increase	214,387	71,462

The above figures show that the Chosenese who have entered Manchuria after the Incident are more than four times as many as those who entered before it. It is even conjectured that during the last few years quite a large number of them, indeed several times as many as those shown in the above statistics, must have immigrated from Chosen into Manchuria.

Several score years of endurance and perseverance by the Chosenese have at last brought a laurel of success to them. This is in evidence in every part of the land of peace and happiness of Manchoukuo. The credit is due especially to the Chosenese farmers, who are actually playing a very important part in agricultural industry in Manchuria, besides acting as a leading factor for the propulsion of Chosenese life.

CHOSENESE IMMIGRANTS

IN 1938-1940

	Households	House Members
1938	7,309	29,437
1939	7,595	36,631
1940	5,824	18,501

Forestry

General The total forest area in Manchoukuo is estimated at 358,684 sq. km. which is equal to about 36 per cent of the entire area of the country. Some 350 species of timber are found in the forest regions located in the Yalu Valley, Tumen Valley, Mutan Valley, Lalin Valley, Sanhsing District, Great Hsingan Range and Small Hsingan Range. The volume of standing timber is estimated at 15,000,000,000 koku. Investigation conducted by the Manchoukuo Government, however, shows that the deforestation seems to have been done in a reckless manner in the past and the real volume of the standing timber may perhaps be about 9,000,000,000 koku.

STANDING TIMBER IN MANCHOUKUO

Districts	Estimated Standing Timber in 1,000 koku	Principal Species of Timber
Right bank of the Yalu and the Hunho valley	276,635	Chosen pine, Chosen fir, Chosen larch, silver-fir, maple, birch, oak, ash, doronoki.
Sungari valley	874,036	
Tumen valley	420,401	Chosen pine, fir, spruce, larch, lime, oak, elm, ash, birch.
Hurka valley	420,951	

Districts	Estimated Standing Timber in 1,000 koku	Principal Species of Timber
Lalin valley	300,490	
North Manchuria Railway eastern line district	898,296	Chosen pine, fir, spruce, maple, birch, doronoki, Siberian cork-tree, Manchurian walnut.
Sansing district	2,615,302	Chosen pine, fir, spruce, Siberian cork-tree, ash, birch, oak, lime.
Great Khingan range	5,600,000	Larch, Japanese birch, Siberian
Little Khingan "	3,500,000	red pine, willow, alder.
Total	14,906,111	

Species of Timber In Manchuria there are as many as 350 species of timber, but the more common species are the following:

Evergreen: Chosen pine, silver fir, Chosen fir, spruce, larch.

Deciduous: Chosen oaks, birch, Amur lime tree, ash, elm, willow.

The proportion of evergreen to deciduous is 4 to 6, and in the evergreen the Chosen pine constitutes more than half of the total.

Lumber Industry Lumber industry is carried on in the districts of Antung, Kirin and Harbin, but that in Antung district is best known. Production of lumber in Manchoukuo in 1939 reached over 4,000,000 cubic meters.

The Industry in Eastern Manchuria. There has been a boom recently in the timber industry due to bristling building activities in the principal cities and the construction of additional railways throughout the country. At present there are 13 large lumber-mills in this region working at full capacity. If timber sawn by coolies in a primitive method is taken into consideration, the annual amount of timber sawn in this region may even reach 1,500,000 koku (1 koku—10 cu. feet). The 13 large lumber-mills capitalized at M¥12,600,000 produced 2,700,000 koku: 1,300,000 koku of sleepers and 1,400,000 koku of others in 1936.

Pulp Industry With abundant timber resources, Eastern Manchuria is also expected to occupy an important position in the pulp industry. Four companies, the East Manchuria Rayon Co. (Kaishantun), Manchuria Pulp Co. (Hualin), Oriental Pulp Co. (Shih-hsien), Japan-Manchuria Pulp Co. (Shih-hsien), Japan-Manchuria Pulp Co.

(Tunhua), capitalized at M¥7,500,000, started operation in 1938. The demand for timber by these companies will amount to no less than 880,000 koku. The production of pulp for paper in Manchoukuo in recent years was as follows:

	In metric tons
1934	13,737
1935	13,718
1936	13,171
1937	15,011
1938	23,484
1939	33,882

Fisheries and Mining Industry

(See pp. 960-964, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Manufacturing Industries

In regard to the general expansion of industry in Manchoukuo, mention has been made in foregoing paragraphs. The conditions of individual branches of the manufacturing industry are briefly explained here.

Bean Oil Industry Making of soya bean oil and bean cake by pressing the soya beans early developed in Manchoukuo. With almost limitless supplies of soya beans, the industry advanced from mere handicraft work into the modern advanced industry as soon as the real worth of bean oil and bean cake was recognized. The bean oil and bean cake produced in this way constitute the most important items of Manchoukuo for export. The annual output of soya bean oil amounts to 150,000 metric tons. In 1939, the exports reached 72,967 metric tons valued at ¥23,051,000.

Textile Industry Tusser silk is another export article next only to bean

and bean manufactures in importance. With the increased demand for pongees in Europe and America, the Japanese silk weavers in Fukui, Gifu and Kyoto prefectures began weaving them and the demand for this silk comes from these prefectures in Japan. The reeling is carried on by the Chinese farmers as a side line, and necessarily on the household basis. The production is largest in Antung and Fengtien provinces. There are 540 factories with 35,000 reels in Manchoukuo, and the annual amount of exports reaches ¥13,000,000, 80 per cent of which goes to Japan.

Of the total population of 30,000,000 in Manchoukuo, about 90 per cent wear cotton clothes. Therefore, from ancient times, there existed in Manchoukuo small, primitive plants for cotton weaving, but no large modern factories rose before the Great War. The establishment of the Cotton Spinning and Weaving Plant by Chinese at Mukden was followed by the establishment of three companies by Japanese, viz.: the Manchurian Cotton Spinning Company, the Chinchou Factory of the Naigai Spinning Company, and the Manchuria Fufang Company. At present, there are 10 companies engaged in the business including the three companies aforementioned, with an aggregate number of ring spindles of 484,000, doubling spindles 71,000 and looms 9,000. The production of course cannot keep pace with the demand, and cotton cloth constitutes one of the principal imports for Manchoukuo, the amount reaching from ¥40,000,000 to ¥84,000,000.

Production of cotton yarns in 1937 amounted to 24,453,700 kg. and that of cotton textiles to 2,278,700 tan.

Flour Milling Flour milling industry is one of the three main industries of Manchoukuo. It is carried on either by the old-fashioned native mills or the modern mills run by machinery. Harbin is the center of flour milling and there are over 90 mills in Manchoukuo with a daily producing capacity of 20,000 bags. The consumption in 1930 was only about 24,000,000 bags a year, which included both domestic and imported products. This increased in 1934 to 23,000,000 bags, exclusive of domestic product. If, therefore, the domestic product amounted in the year to 15,000,000 bags, the amount

of consumption totalled 38,000,000 bags. Even this per capita consumption in Manchoukuo was a little over one bag, so that there is still a vast room left for further consumption. Imports in 1939 amounted to 298,942 metric tons valued at ¥68,300,000.

Paper Industry The demand for paper in Manchoukuo has been on the increase for years. However, the rise in production has failed to keep pace with the advance in demand. As a result, Manchoukuo imports a greater quantity of paper from foreign countries, principally from Japan. Imports of paper by Manchoukuo in 1938 totalled ¥42,000,000, up by ¥12,000,000 or 42.0 per cent over 1937 imports. The gain was chiefly caused by the increase in market prices of paper, the advance in quantity amounting to only about 14 per cent. On the basis of the total paper consumption within Manchoukuo as compiled by the Yalu River Paper Manufacturing Company, the paper production in Manchoukuo is estimated as follows:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF PAPER IN MANCHOUKUO

(In 1,000 Kins)

Year	Consumption	Domestic Production	Imports
1936	180,503	39,666	140,837
1937	220,578	43,764	176,814
1938	257,286	57,693	199,593

It is thus seen that the domestic production corresponds to only 23 per cent of the total consumption. This situation is attributable to various factors such as the short supply of raw material, coal, power and chemicals and the consequent shortage of enterprise in this line. The capacity operation of paper mills throughout Manchoukuo is not sufficient to meet the consumption of paper in Manchoukuo. Specially of late the mills in the State are operating at 63 per cent of the capacity because of the production curtailment caused by the shortage of materials. Due to the increasing stringency of the supply of materials with the progress of the China Affair, a further cut in production is believed likely. In 1938, the paper production stood at 63 per cent of the full capacity, as shown in the following table:

**PAPER MILLS IN MANCHOUKUO: THEIR PRODUCTION CAPACITY AND
ACTUAL PRODUCTION IN 1938**

Mills	Kinds of Paper Produced	Production Capacity (In 10,000 kins)	1938 Production	Per- centage
Manchuria Paper Industrial	Paper board	1,200	625	52%
Sungpu Paper Mfg.	Joss paper			
Selhatsugo Paper	Joss paper	1,300	1,140	88%
Bokudo Paper	Joss paper			
Fushun Paper	Joss paper			
Kangte Paper	Joss paper			
Luhø Paper Manufactory	Foreign-style paper & joss paper	1,700	1,388	82%
Antung Paper Manufactory	Cigarette paper	270	188	70%
Yalu River Paper	Ordinary paper & pulp	6,494	3,570	55%
Total		10,964	6,991	63%

It is reported that Manchoukuo will not be self-supplied in paper unless 12 paper mills of the Yalu River Paper Mill capacity are additionally constructed even though all paper mills in Manchoukuo, with raw materials sufficiently supplied, may alleviate the shortage to some extent by operating at full capacity.

According to available statistics, the paper production in Manchoukuo is said to have increased by a little more than 20 per cent annually in the past. Even admitting that the production will gain at the same rate in the future, the supply will not keep pace with the demand, unless more than three mills of the capacity of the Yalu River Paper Company are built every year.

Chemical Industry in Manchoukuo
With an extensive territory extending over 1,300,000 square kilometers holding ample underground resources such as coal and iron and favored with rich agricultural products as well as low-costing water-power, the chemical industry in Manchoukuo is destined to make a good and steady progress. Despite the fact that the chemical industry in Manchoukuo is more or less an old origin, however, it failed to make any noticeable progress in the past, except the low-temperature carbonization of coal and the oil-shale industry at the Fushun Coal Mine. It was after the founding of the State of Manchoukuo in 1932 that the so-called newly-rising chemical industrial enterprises have come into the limelight in Manchoukuo.

The first chemical industry which rose in Manchoukuo was the soya bean oil industry. This industry was followed by the Mond-gas industry, petroleum indus-

try with oil-shale as material, explosives industry, sulphuric acid industry, acetic acid industry and oxygen industry. However, with the exception of a few undertakings under the charge of the South Manchuria Railway Company, little progress was noted in those chemical enterprises. After the founding of the State of Manchoukuo, however, many industrialists proceeded to a new field in Manchoukuo in pursuit of new undertakings. At the same time, already-existing industrial plants either expanded their premises or improved their facilities by means of capital expansion or other measures. Thus, the chemical industry in Manchoukuo received a fresh impetus. Amidst such activities, the Manchuria Chemical Industrial Company was first established for the purpose of manufacturing ammonium sulphate. This concern, created in May, 1933, was capitalized at ¥25,000,000, and is producing 180,000 tons of ammonium sulphate annually as well as a number of by-products such as sulphuric acid, ammonium nitrate, nitric acid, benzol, tar, creosote, pitch, coke, etc. As raw materials, this company consumes 220,000 metric tons of Fushun coal and 103,000 metric tons of pyrite. The birth of this company, manufacturing materials for other chemical industries, accelerated the rise of many other chemical undertakings in the State. In July 1934, the Central Laboratory of the South Manchuria Railway Company succeeded in industrializing the extraction of soya-bean oil by the alcohol extraction process. This was followed by the creation of the Manchuria Soya Bean Industrial Company with ¥1,500,000 capital. The product of this process, known as "soya lex flake" is oil-extracted and refined

soya bean and may be used extensively as raw material for many chemical industries. As by-products are also produced "soyalex oil" and others. In September 1934, the Kwantung Industrial Company was established for the purpose of manufacturing alcohol with kaoliang and Indian corn as raw materials with ¥1,000,000 capital. Later, the Manchuria Oil Company and the Manchuria Soda Company was organized. The latter concern was established in May, 1936 by the joint promotion of the Kwantung Army, the Manchoukuo Government and the South Manchuria Railway Company. All those concerns were created within the Kwantung Leased Territory. Due to the steady return of peace and order in Manchoukuo as well as the progress of industrial development and economic reconstruction activities, many and various chemical enterprises rose within the State. Representative of those companies were the Manchuria Oil Chemical Industrial Company, Manchuria Synthetic Fuel Company, Kirin Artificial Oil Company, Fushun Colliery Coal Liquefaction Plant, Manchurian Coal Liquefaction Works and Showa Steel Works Gas Synthetization Plant in the artificial oil division. As

pulp industrial enterprises, the Manchuria Pulp Industrial Company, East Manchuria Rayon Pulp Company, Nichman Pulp Manufacturing Company, Kangte Reed Pulp Company and Manchuria Bean-Husk Pulp Company came into existence. Many other companies were also created for the production of vegetable oils, industrial chemicals, paints, hides and leathers, paper and rubber. In Manchoukuo, coal, iron, light-metal raw materials, salt and agricultural products are produced in abundance, although in small varieties, thus affording a special feature to the chemical industry of Manchoukuo. Coal deposits within Manchoukuo are estimated to total 20,000,000,000 metric tons while arrangements are being made for acquiring several millions of kilos of electric power from the Sungari River as well as Yalu River.

In order to further bolster the chemical industry of Manchoukuo, which has not yet reached a stage of sufficient maturity, the Manchurian Chemical Industrial Association was created recently.

Details of the chemical industry undertakings in Manchoukuo follows:

STATUS QUO OF LEADING INDUSTRIAL COMPANIES IN MANCHOUKUO

Names of Companies	Location	Established	Capital (¥1,000)	Principal Lines
1. Pharmaceuticals:				
Tatung Pharmaceutical Industrial Co.	Mukden	Dec., 1933	1,500	Medicines
Manchurian-Takeda Pharmaceutical Co.	Mukden	Nov., 1939	3,000	Medicines, Ind. Chemicals
Shionoyoshi Pharmaceutical Co.	Mukden	June, 1940	1,000	Medicines
Wakaso Pharmaceutical Co.	Mukden	July, 1940	1,500	Medicines
2. Industrial Chemicals:				
Manchurian Soda Co., Dairen Plant	Dairen	May, 1936	16,000	Soda Ash, Caustic Soda, Bleaching Powder, Hydrochloric Acid
Kwantung Industrial Co.	Dairen	Sept., 1934	2,000	Alcohol
Manchurian Staples Industrial Co.	Mukden	June, 1935	3,000	Alcohol
Tatung Alcohol Co.	Harbin	Nov., 1933	1,670	Alcohol, Butanol, Acetone
Manchurian Chemical Industrial Co.	Dairen	Sept., 1933	25,000	Sulphuric Acid, Nitric Acid.

Names of Companies	Location	Established	Capital (¥1,000)	Principal Lines
Kwantung Potassium Industrial Co.	Dairen	May, 1939	4,000	Potassium Hydrochloride, Britten chloride, Bromine
3. Dyes and Paints:				
Yamato Dyes Co.	Mukden	Nov., 1937	1,000	Dyes
Manchurian Kwansai Paints Co.	Mukden	July, 1938	1,500	Dyes
Manchurian Shantung Paints Co.	Mukden	Sept., 1938	1,000	Dyes
Japan Paints Co.	Mukden	July, 1939	4,000	Dyes
4. Soap:				
Tungho Arsenal	Mukden	Apr., 1938	500	Soap
5. Explosives:				
Manchurian Explosives Industrial Co.	Mukden	Feb., 1941	8,500	Explosives
6. Petroleum:				
Dairen refinery, Manchuria Oil Co.	Dairen	Feb., 1932	40,000	Petroleum products
Manshuria Synthetic Fuel Co.	Chinchow	Aug., 1937	50,000	Artificial petroleum
Manchuria Oil Chemical Industrial Co.	Szeping kai	Feb., 1938	20,000	Artificial petroleum
Kirin Artificial Oil Co.	Yung-chihhsien	Sept., 1939	100,000	Artificial petroleum
Manchuria Coal Liquefaction Laboratory	Mukden	Aug., 1939	6,000	Artificial petroleum
7. Vegetable Oil:				
Manchuria Oil & Fat Co.	Mukden	June, 1938	5,000	Fatty Acid
Manchuria Cotton Seed Industrial Co.	Liaoyang	Oct., 1939	5,000	Cotton Seed Oil
Kangte Oil Co.	Yingkow	Sept., 1940	2,000	Soya Bean Oil
Manchuria Oil and Fat Industrial Co.	Harbin	Feb., 1939	1,500	Soya Bean Oil
8. Paper:				
Liuho Paper Mill	Antung	July, 1935	1,500	Japanese-style and Foreign-style paper
Manchuria Paper Industrial Co.	Mukden	Oct., 1936	2,000	Paper Board
Antung Paper Co.	Antung	Sept., 1936	3,000	Cigarette paper
Manchuria Paper Manufacturing Co.	Mukden	Apr., 1939	1,000	Japanese & foreign style paper
Manchuria Special Paper Manufacturing Co.	Hsinking	Mar., 1939	2,500	Japanese and Foreign style paper
9. Pulp:				
Manchuria Pulp Industrial Co.	Mutanchiang	May, 1936	10,000	Paper & Rayon Pulp

Names of Companies	Location	Established	Capital (¥1,000)	Principal Lines
Nichiman Pulp Mfg. Co.	Tunhua	Sept., 1936	10,000	Paper & Rayon Pulp
Toyo Pulp Co.	Wang-ching-hsien	Sept., 1936	10,000	" "
Kangte Reed Pulp Co.	Yingkow	Nov., 1936	5,000	" "
Manchuria Bean Husk Pulp Co.	Yingkow	Sept., 1936	10,000	" "
Chinchow Pulp Co.	Chinchow	June, 1939	30,000	" "
10. Artificial Fertilizers:				
Manchuria Chemical Industrial Co.	Dairen	May, 1933	25,000	Ammonium Sulphate
Manchuria Ammonium Sulphate Ind. Co.	Hsinking	Feb., 1939	50,000	"
11. Hides and Leathers:				
Taitung Leather Co.	Dairen	Sept., 1939	1,000	Leather Tanning
Toa Leathers Co.	Mukden	Sept., 1937	2,000	"
Manchuria Leathers Co.	Mukden	July, 1934	1,500	"
12. Rubber, Manufactures Thereof:				
Taiyo Rubber Co.	Liaoyang	Nov., 1937	5,000	Rubber Shoes, Taps
Asia Rubber Industrial Co.	Liaoyang	June, 1940	5,000	Tires, Tubes
Manchuria Rubber Co.	Mukden	Oct., 1937	1,000	Rubber Shoes
Kokka Rubber Industrial Co.	Mukden	Feb., 1938	2,000	Rubber Manufactures
Toyo Tire Industrial Co.	Mukden	June, 1938	10,000	Tires
Shenyang Rubber Plant	Mukden	Oct., 1938	1,000	Tires
Manchuria-Bando Belt Co.	Mukden	Jan., 1939	1,000	Rubber Belts
Manchuria Re-Manufactured Rubber Industrial Co.	Mukden	Dec., 1940	4,000	Rubber Goods
Manchuria Synthetic Rubber Co.	Hsinking	Apr., 1939	5,000	Synthetic Rubber
13. Others:				
Toyo Staple Fiber Co.	Hsinking	Sept., 1939	10,000	Staple Fiber
Manchuria Electro-Chemical Industrial Co.	Hsinking	Oct., 1939	30,000	Carbide

OILS AND FATS COMPANIES IN MANCHOUKUO

Names of Companies	Location	Established	Capital (¥1,000)	Principal Lines
Nisshin Oils Co.	Dairen	Apr., 1907	6,000	Soya Bean Oil, Peanut Oil
Sanshin Oil Plant	Dairen	May, 1907	5,000	Soya Bean Oil, Perilla Oil
Fuchang Chemical Industrial Co.	Dairen	Oct., 1939	400	Lubricating Oil, Machine Oil
Manchurian-Mongolian Development Co.	Dairen	Mar., 1920	500	Bone Fat, Lard Oil

MANCHOUKUO

Names of Companies	Location	Established	Capital (¥1,000)	Principal Lines
Tatung Pharmaceutical Industrial Co.	Mukden	Dec., 1933	1,500	Perilla Oil, Castor Oil
Manchuria Oils & Fats Co.	Mukden	June, 1938	5,000	Soap, Glycerin
Manchuria Cotton Seed Industrial Co.	Liaoyang	Oct., 1939	5,000	Cotton Seed Oil Materials for Soap
Kangte Oils Co.	Yingkow	Sept., 1940	2,000	Rapeseed Oil, Nut Oil
Antung Oil Co.	Antung	Feb., 1940	150	Chrysalis Oil
Manchuria Oils and Fat Industrial Co.	Harbin	Nov., 1939	1,500	Soya Bean Products

BUSINESS RESULTS OF MANCHURIA CHEMICAL INDUSTRIAL COMPANY

(In ¥1,000)

Years	Authorized Capital	Paid-Up Capital	Reserves	Profits	Profit Rates (Per cent)	Dividend Rates
1935:						
1st half	25,000	12,500	363	1,344	21.5%	80%
2nd half	25,000	18,740	1,233	2,907	42.7%	80%
1936:						
1st half	25,000	18,750	1,423	1,615	17.2%	70%
2nd half	25,000	18,750	1,673	1,652	17.6%	70%
1937:						
1st half	25,000	18,750	2,163	2,366	25.2%	80%
2nd half	25,000	18,750	2,783	2,561	27.3%	80%
1938:						
1st half	25,000	25,000	3,463	3,100	24.8%	80%
2nd half	25,000	25,000	3,933	2,522	20.1%	80%
1939:						
1st half	25,000	25,000	3,858	299	2.3%	60%
2nd half	25,000	25,000	3,865	138	1.1%	—
1940:						
1st half	25,000	25,000	3,936	1,420	11.3%	50%
2nd half	25,000	25,000	3,939	1,281	10.2%	50%

BUSINESS RESULTS OF MANCHURIA SODA COMPANY

(In ¥1,000)

Years	Authorized Capital	Paid-Up Capital	Reserves	Profits	Profit Rates	Dividend Rates
1937:						
2nd half	8,000	4,000	9	84	3.9%	—
1938:						
1st half	8,000	4,000	159	473	23.6%	80%
2nd half	8,000	6,000	415	591	19.7%	80%
1939:						
1st half	8,000	8,000	568	454	12.2%	80%
2nd half	8,000	8,000	726	510	12.7%	80%
1940:						
1st half	16,000	11,000	893	576	13.1%	80%
2nd half	16,000	11,000	1,050	404	7.3%	70%

BUSINESS RESULTS OF MANCHURIA OIL COMPANY

(In ¥1,000)

Years	Authorized Capital	Paid-Up Capital	Reserves	Profits	Profit Rates	Dividend Rates
1934	5,000	5,000	66	289	6.7%	3.0%
1935	5,000	5,000	590	1,541	30.8%	6.0%
1936	10,000	7,500	810	962	36.7%	6.0%
1937	10,000	10,000	1,360	1,925	26.9%	7.0%
1938	20,000	15,000	2,310	3,161	25.0%	7.0%
1939	20,000	20,000	3,820	4,328	27.3%	7.0%
1940	20,000	20,000	5,170	3,498	17.4%	7.0%

BUSINESS RESULTS OF MANCHURIA-TATUNG ALCOHOL COMPANY

(In ¥1,000)

Years	Authorized Capital	Paid-Up Capital	Reserves (Yen)	Profits (Yen)	Profit Rates	Dividend Rates
1934:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	1,805	40,518	—	—
2nd half	1,670	1,670	6,987	109,091	13.1%	—
1935:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	18,398	121,707	14.3%	6.0%
2nd half	1,670	1,670	30,537	119,553	14.3%	6.0%
1936:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	40,846	71,935	8.6%	5.0%
2nd half	1,670	1,670	56,897	121,274	14.5%	6.0%
1937:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	67,141	61,612	7.3%	—
2nd half	1,670	1,670	75,553	126,467	15.1%	8.0%
1938:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	98,825	190,114	22.4%	8.0%
1st half	1,670	1,670	98,825	190,114	22.7%	8.0%
1939:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	185,524	220,307	26.3%	8.0%
2nd half	1,670	1,670	201,926	183,130	21.9%	8.0%
1940:						
1st half	1,670	1,670	241,776	177,290	21.2%	7.0%

Foreign Trade

In parallel with the expansion of productive power brought about by world-wide rearmament, the trade policy of the Powers is aimed at closer economic relationship within their economic spheres of influence on the one hand, and, on the other, efforts for the development of international trade are being made not in accordance with free trade policy but within the sphere of controlled economy. Manchoukuo's foreign trade of 1937, too, moved in the direction of a closer Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc on the basis of the Five-Year Industrial Development Plan. This tendency became stronger with the outbreak of the China Incident, and, with the strengthening of Manchoukuo's international position, her trade policy for the regulation and extension of foreign

trade developed along the line of controlled trade. This policy of controlled trade took concrete forms upon revision of the Manchoukuo-Germany Trade Agreement in May, upon the establishment of the Otto Wolf Credit in September, and upon the revision and enforcement of Exchange Control Law in October.

With the expansion of the Five-Year Industrial Development Plan the Manchoukuo-Germany Trade Agreement which was extended for another three years and the Two Million Pound Otto Wolf Credit, gained in importance with the expansion of the Five-Year Plan. The revision of the Exchange Control Law and the Trade Control Law were aimed at the regulation of international balance of payment on the basis of Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc in con-

cert with the trade control policy of Japan, the former through the regulation of 'money' and the latter through the control of 'goods.' The outbreak of the European War in 1939, necessitated the strengthening of the Japan-Manchoukuo exchange pool system in 1940. This placed all foreign exchange bills, which are due to Manchoukuo, in Japanese hands, who in turn, supplied Manchoukuo with all materials for development and other commodities. The export business of Manchoukuo with third countries will be carried out by Japan. The economic relations between Japan and Manchoukuo made marked progress not only in the movement of capital but

also in trade through these measures. The revised Customs Law at the end of December 1937, further strengthened the inseparable economic tie of the two countries. The number of trade goods controlled was increased by the revision of the law in July 1938, in May 1939, and in December 1939, to over 140 kinds. Under a series of these measures the foreign trade of Manchoukuo achieved remarkable progress in these years, as it will be seen in the following figures. The total amount of trade in 1939 increased by 32.5 per cent to ¥2,650,840,000 the largest since the establishment of Manchoukuo.

(Amount in ¥1,000)

	Exports		Imports		Total		Excess of Imports
	Amount	Index Number	Amount	Index Number	Amount	Index Number	
1933	448,478	100.0	515,832	100.0	964,310	100.0	67,354
1934	448,427	99.9	593,562	115.1	1,041,989	108.1	145,155
1935	421,078	93.9	604,149	117.1	1,025,227	106.3	183,071
1936	602,759	134.4	691,830	134.1	1,294,589	134.3	89,130
1937	645,298	143.9	887,412	172.0	1,532,709	158.9	242,115
1938	725,454	161.7	1,274,747	247.1	2,000,202	207.4	549,293
1939	834,717	186.1	1,816,123	353.4	2,650,840	274.8	981,406
1940							
(Jan.-Sept.)	544,629	121.4	1,397,716	270.9	1,942,345	201.4	853,057

The causes of the remarkable increase in the value of trade were, the rise of commodity prices, especially those of imports; the increase of export value and the increase of volume of raw ma-

terials exported. The increase of import trade was due to the tremendous demand for construction materials as shown in the following table:

IMPORTATION OF HEAVY CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS

(Unit: 1,000 Yuan)

Goods	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Iron and steel products	58,227	51,540	39,506	76,429	122,074	104,535
Machinery and tools	28,056	33,510	38,918	65,901	121,501	—
Vehicles and vessels	30,946	38,471	38,670	44,724	81,734	124,284
Electrical appliances	14,484	18,778	21,683	34,014	39,767	—

According to Countries Japan's share of the foreign trade of Manchuria has been larger than that of any other nation for many years. This tendency has been strengthened further after the emergence of Manchoukuo and the creation of the Japan-Manchoukuo economic bloc. This result is natural when one takes into consideration various factors, especially the geographic propinquity and the phenomenal expansion in all phases of industrial activities in Japan.

During the period under review, the Manchoukuo trade with Japan kept on steadily increasing and far outdistanced other nations in its volume as indicated in the following table.

Next to Japan, China for years has occupied an important place in the Manchurian trade and the position second only to Japan has been consistently maintained. Since the Manchurian incident, the Manchurian trade with China has declined for obvious reasons.

from a total of 135,022,000 yuan in 1933 to 123,399,000 yuan in 1934 and to a low watermark of 97,346,000 yuan in 1935. It began to pick up again in 1936 when a total of 176,288,000 yuan was chalked up, followed by 153,077,000 yuan in 1937, 192,398,000 yuan in 1938 and 235,842,000 yuan in 1939.

If we turn to Western countries, the Manchurian trade with the United States has shown a most noticeable development in the recent years. The American trade with Manchuria totalled only 22,758,000 yuan in 1932 but it has jumped to 40,088,000 yuan in 1936, 76,197,000 yuan in 1937, and 104,430,000 yuan in 1938; but in 1939 it decreased to 102,850,000 yuan.

The Manchurian trade with Germany gradually dropped from 79,716,000 yuan in 1932 to 47,541,000 yuan by 1935 and began to regain the lost ground again since 1936, reaching 63,303,000 yuan in

1936, 76,330,000 yuan in 1937, and 87,700,000 yuan in 1938. Unlike the American trade, however, the bulk of the Manchurian trade with Germany was made up of exports. Thus, the Manchurian exports to Germany, which amounted to 73,946,000 yuan in 1932, dropped to 32,799,000 yuan in 1935 and began to rise again in 1936 with the conclusion of the new trade Agreement, rising to 50,278,000 yuan in that year and to 59,052,000 yuan in 1937, and dropping slightly to 50,396,000 yuan in 1938, and to 50,358,000 yuan in 1939.

The Manchurian imports have been increasing during the same period, increasing from 5,770,000 yuan in 1932 to 13,025,000 yuan in 1936, 17,278,000 yuan in 1937 and jumping to 37,304,000 yuan in 1938, to 52,240,000 in 1939.

The Manchurian trade with other Western countries has been almost negligible as the following two tables clearly indicate:

MANCHURIAN TRADE ACCORDING TO COUNTRIES

(Unit: 1,000 Yuan)

Countries	1938		1939		1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
Japan	416,825	993,413	521,324	1,540,755	378,446	1,241,484
China	121,683	70,716	169,193	66,649	139,283	60,223
U.S.A.	11,360	93,070	15,395	87,455	16,107	55,530
Germany	50,396	37,304	50,358	52,240	—	—
England	5,447	7,376	3,270	4,686	27	13,268
Br. India	46	30,603	44	24,339	115	16
Netherlands	8,001	799	5,041	—	5,194	3,682
Italy	3,457	2,393	12,658	4,359	4,134	22,202
Others	—	108,239	39,074	35,640	1,423	1,301
Total	725,454	1,274,748	834,717	1,816,123	544,629	1,397,716

PERCENTAGE OF MANCHURIAN TRADE ACCORDING TO COUNTRIES

Countries	1937		1938		1939	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
Japan	49.8	75.1	57.5	77.9	62.4	84.8
China	17.6	4.4	16.8	5.5	20.2	3.6
U.S.A.	2.9	6.5	1.6	7.3	1.8	4.8
Germany	9.1	2.0	6.9	2.9	6.0	2.8
England	1.4	1.3	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.2
Br. India	0.0	5.1	0.0	2.4	0.0	1.3
Netherlands	2.6	0.1	1.1	0.1	0.6	0.0
Italy	0.4	0.0	0.5	0.2	1.5	0.2
Others	16.2	5.5	14.9	3.1	6.8	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES OF EXPORT

(In Yuan)

Commodities	1937	1938	1939	1940 (Jan.-Sept.)
Soya beans	222,932,539	234,263,340	206,584,000	11,984,000
Other beans	15,685,474	15,286,626	23,722,000	67,104,000
Bean cakes	62,335,743	70,575,007	125,253,000	58,163,000
Bean oil	25,342,855	14,099,414	23,051,000	8,915,000
Kaoliang	9,843,121	18,845,746	27,063,000	6,235,000
Millet	14,196,991	20,260,226	33,694,000	15,742,000
Maize	8,525,859	18,328,435	29,072,000	11,491,000
Groundnuts	16,369,566	12,115,315	6,271,000	8,920,000
Seeds	18,821,683	17,867,980	—	—
Coal	35,610,491	28,198,127	25,867,000	—
Ammonium sulphate	9,675,958	16,571,204	11,777,000	—

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES OF IMPORT

(In yuan)

Commodities	1937	1938	1939	1940 (Jan.-Sept.)
Cotton goods	104,644,996	88,224,678	10,377,000	9,383,000
Raw cotton	32,202,253	42,663,883	9,043,000	—
Silk and rayon goods	36,460,702	61,344,988	107,612,000	333,000
Woolen goods	35,900,864	23,345,191	36,232,000	—
Iron & steel	71,428,998	122,074,161	104,525,000	400,000
Vehicles, vessels	44,724,290	81,733,602	124,294,000	300,379,000
Machinery, tools	65,900,611	121,500,810	—	—
Electrical equipments	34,014,327	39,767,207	—	—
Gunny bags	19,273,736	20,909,887	33,313,000	—
Sugar	22,426,980	35,778,943	42,396,000	19,551,000
Paper	25,055,858	37,230,076	49,589,000	—
Wheat flour	13,827,593	47,088,571	68,300,000	—
Timber	13,127,193	26,347,896	76,151,000	—

Transportation

(See pp. 967-970, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

South Manchuria Railway Company

The South Manchuria Railway was acquired by Japan as a result of the Portsmouth Treaty of September 1905, and the Sino-Japanese Treaty of December 1905. The rights Japan secured in respect to the railway line between Dairen and Hsinking, and branch lines, were those originally held by Russia. The paid-up capital of the company amounts to ¥696,208,000 as outstanding in 1939. The company is entrusted with the management as mentioned elsewhere. The number of regular employees is about 125,000.

The president and vice-president of the company are appointed by the Japanese Government with Imperial sanction, while the directors are also appointed by the Government, though without Imperial sanction. The auditors are elected from among the shareholders.

(1) Business Conditions in 1940
Total railway revenue for 1940 amounted to ¥799,228,000 and expenditure to ¥722,510,000 which left a favorable balance of ¥76,710,000. It was decided that a 4.4 per cent dividend would be paid on Government shares and 8 per cent on shares held by the general public, out of the profits realized. The dividend rates were identical to those of the previous year.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF S.M.R.

During 1940-41
(In ¥1,000)

Items	Revenue	Expenditure
Railways	609,979	485,034
Ports	26,173	24,508
Sea transportation	6,125	9,197
Buses	20,098	24,322
Mining	81,646	68,158
Oil extraction	11,426	10,407
Miscellaneous	25,272	48,831
Interest	18,505	72,062
Total	799,228	722,517

DISPOSITION OF PROFIT

Profit	
	(In yen)
Net profit for the year ending on March 31, 1941	78,711,000
Balance from previous year	33,552,000
Total	110,263,000
Disposition	
Legal reserve	9,540,000
Dividend on Japanese Government shares	16,889,000
Dividend on Manchoukuo Government shares	220,000
Dividend on shares other than those held by the Governments	25,495,000
Second dividend on the same	8,498,000
Special reserve	15,000,000
Bonuses to officials and social expenses	500,000
Balance carried forward	34,119,000

When comparing the business revenue and expenditure of 1940 with those of the previous year, income for 1940 increased by ¥67,000,000 and expenditure by ¥68,000,000 over the previous year. There was a decrease by ¥1,130,000 in the net profit.

The total length of South Manchuria Railway lines open to business at the end of October 1939 was 1,237 kilometers, an increase of 108 kilometers over the previous year.

Communications

(See pp. 972-975, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Justice and Police

(See pp. 975-979, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Education

(See pp. 979 and 980, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Religion

(See pp. 980-982, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Medicine and Sanitation

(See pp. 983-985, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Kwantung Leased Territory

General and Historical The Kwantung Leased Territory under Japanese rule which was ceded to Japan by Russia and the lease of which lasts till 1997 forms the most civilized area of Manchuria with all kinds of modern facilities introduced by the Japanese.

Occupying a small southern portion of Liaotung Peninsula, the Leased Territory covers an area of 3,462.45 square kilometers with a population of 1,493,491 at the end of 1941. (See the second page of this chapter.)

Government The government of the Kwantung Leased Territory at Dairen is in charge of the civil administration office under the supervision of the Kanto Bureau, which is again placed under the Embassy at Hsinking.

In the beginning the territory was under military rule with an army officer as governor-general. This system was changed in 1919, and since then a civilian officer was appointed governor of

the territory by the Emperor of Japan. A drastic change was made in this system on December 26, 1934, in which the Kanto Bureau was established at Hsinking under the control of the Ambassador at Hsinking, and most of the administrative powers formerly vested in the governor of the Leased Territory were transferred to the president of the newly created Bureau. The president takes charge of the civil administration within the territory and supervises the business of the South Manchuria Railway Co. The Bureau is sub-divided into the president's secretariat, home affairs, police, and controller's divisions. At the same time a separate office was created for administration of the Peninsula. Under this office, which is at Dairen, falls the administration of civil affairs in the Peninsula, the prisons, the Ryojun Engineering College, the middle schools, the girls' high schools, the normal school for natives, the commercial school for natives, the

agricultural schools for natives, the Police Training School, the Meteorological Observatory, the government hospitals, the Agricultural Experimental Station, the Sericultural Experimental Station and several other institutions in the territory.

Finance Taxes are regularly collected, but due to a large expenditure required for improvement in hygiene, strengthening of police force, extension of educational facilities, development of industries, etc. The budgets for the financial years of 1940-41 and 1941-42 are as follows:

BUDGET OF KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY FOR THE FISCAL YEAR 1941 AND 1942

(In yen)

Revenue

	1941	1942
Ordinary		
Taxes	28,342,201	43,792,542
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	11,726,129	12,995,742
Stamp receipts	1,812,870	1,931,601
Miscellaneous receipts	2,435,328	2,859,478
Total including others	44,508,130	61,788,358
Extraordinary		
Proceeds of sale of State property	1,083,217	1,145,399
Special profits tax	9,512,345	12,894,732
Surplus of the preceding year transferred	10,593,427	7,981,372
Total including others	39,544,900	38,401,317
Grand total	84,053,030	100,189,775

Expenditure

	1941	1942
Ordinary		
Expenditure of the Kwantung Government	2,793,788	3,104,548
Expenses of law-courts and prisons	810,608	1,123,280
Police expenses	2,633,997	2,750,938
Education expenses	4,404,781	4,896,745
Expenses for encouragement of industries	715,837	743,838
Expenses for Monopoly Bureau	4,116,033	4,087,600
Communications expenses	3,216,102	3,413,700
Expenses for Marine Bureau	275,820	517,200
Expenses for hospital & sanatorium for opium addicts	239,226	236,217
Expenses for the prevention of infectious disease	129,672	137,609
Transferred to National Debt Consolidation Fund		
Special Accounts	3,319,016	7,337,800
Contribution under the Pension Law	2,630,009	2,023,650
Miscellaneous expenses	280,013	284,800
Reserve funds	600,000	700,000
Total including others	37,906,012	45,219,300
Extraordinary		
Expenses for undertakings	13,019,094	7,889,100
Subsidies	717,683	515,700
Expenses for encouraging Chinese language	8,728	8,728
Expenses for special guard	219,418	490,170
Total including others	46,147,018	54,970,200
Grand total	84,053,030	100,189,775

Banking and Currency The first Japanese currency in Manchuria consisted of the silver certificates issued during the Russo-Japanese War in connection with war expenses. These certificates were displaced by the silver notes issued by the Yokohama Specie Bank in 1910. Gold notes were also issued in 1913 by this institution, but the issue of gold notes has since 1916 been entrusted exclusively to the Bank of Chosen. From the point of view of the unification of currencies in Manchuria, however, the Japanese Government reached a decision to ban, as from October 1, 1936, the issue of silver notes by the Yokohama Specie Bank in Kwantung Leased Territory, the South Manchuria Railway's leased districts and Manchoukuo. It may also be noted that steps were already taken by the Kwantung Government to prohibit, from April 1936 onward, the use of the local currency, namely, coins of small denominations circulating for many years among the natives. Since the business carried on by the branches in Manchoukuo of the Bank of Chosen was turned over to the Industrial Bank of Manchou in December 1936, no Japanese currency has been issued in Manchoukuo. In Kwantung Leased Territory, however, there are now 2 branches of the Bank of Chosen issuing gold notes.

On June 30 1939, the banks having head offices in Kwantung Province numbered only 1, while there were many branches and agencies totalling 25, consisting of 8 of Japanese nationality, 11 of Manchoukuo, 4 of Chinese, 1 of the United States, and 1 of British nationality. Apart from these banking institutions, 11 associations called credit associations have been established in Kwantung Leased Territory under the assistance of the Kwantung Government for the purpose of facilitating the supply of agricultural credit and the funds for the lower class merchants and manufacturers. A federation of these associa-

tions was further established in 1929. In the Territory, furthermore, there are 3 mutual loan companies, called *mujin kaisha*.

Agriculture The total area of land under cultivation in Kwantung Leased Territory at the end of June 1942 was about 146,217 hectares; and the largest in yield of the cereals and pulse are the maize, kaoliang (Indian millet), Italian millet, soya beans, peanut, green peas, millet, green gram, wheat, black beans and buckwheat, and among vegetables, the largest in yield are the oriental radish, Pei-tsai, Welsh onion, fragrant-flowered garlic, cucumber, musk melon, and sweet potato.

Among the live-stock raised in the Territory, the largest in number are swine, cattle, horses, mules, asses, goats, sheep and poultry.

Industry The most promising of the manufacturing industries is the manufacture of bean-oil, bean-cake, paint, glass, portland cement, brick, lime, dye-stuff, cotton thread, hemp-sack, instruments, implements, locomotives, railway-carriages, machinery, etc. The total of all value came up to about 484 million yen in 1937.

The most prosperous of marine products is salt. The total area of salt-fields was 8,575 hectares at the end of 1936, and 9,082 hectares at the end of 1937, their aggregate output reaching 413,084 and 429,188 metric tons respectively.

The fishing industry is also prosperous; the principal fishes caught are the tai (*pagrus cardinalis*), cod, tachinouwo (*trichiurus lepturus*), guchi (*Sciæna sina*), ei (*Raja kenoei*), ebi (shrimps), etc. The total value of the catch in the year came up to about 6 million yen.

Trade The value of various commodities exported from and imported into Kwantung Leased Territory in 1938 was as follows:—

	Exports Yen	Imports Yen	Total Yen
Japan proper	243,699,637	691,395,574	935,095,211
Chosen	10,503,209	16,888,729	27,391,938
Taiwan	22,316,730	17,796,641	40,113,371
Manchoukuo	13,433,322	3,871,201	17,304,523
China	74,659,027	37,889,198	112,548,225
Hongkong	3,445,185	6,610,666	10,055,851
British India & Straits Settlements	253,582	28,044,420	28,298,002
Netherlands India	988,453	8,235,105	9,223,558

Great Britain	5,143,084	6,235,350	11,378,434
France	1,579,592	1,248,687	2,828,279
Germany	15,048,787	31,700,685	76,749,472
Belgium	994,863	11,450,180	12,445,043
Italy	2,363,319	3,785,503	6,148,822
Netherlands	10,287,038	4,811,484	14,598,522
United States of America	11,921,919	66,603,709	78,525,628
Other countries	37,968,626	4,443,682	42,412,308
Total	484,606,373	940,510,814	1,425,117,187

1940 Trade The value of exports reached ¥600,360,000 and imports ¥1,036,724,000 during 1940, making a total of ¥1,637,084,000.

Justice and Communications In regard to the administration of justice in the Leased Territory, a judicial system was established in 1906 whereby the courts of justice were empowered to adjudicate in all civil and criminal cases, irrespective of the nationalities of

the persons involved.

The defence of the Leased Territory is secured by a neutral zone along the northern frontier.

The communication system and educational, hygienic and other modern institutions are well organized in the territory. In matters concerning hygiene and sanitation, the Kwantung government is collaborating with the South Manchuria Railway Company.

CHINA



CHINA

(Mentions are limited to those subjects in which Japan has special interest.)

Area and Population

Owing to the lack of scientifically compiled statistics it is difficult to grasp the actual size of the territory and the population of China. The ambiguity of the international position is also in some way responsible, for in many cases, the Chinese made their calculations with Manchuria and Outer Mongolia considering as integral parts of China while both of them have been clearly independent of the Chinese Republic. As regards the various divisions and separations which have occurred from the political viewpoint following the outbreak of the China Affair, however, it would be more convenient to keep them out of consideration because the events closely associated with the occurrence are still in progress.

Area

The following figures are those available showing the area of the provinces included in China proper and the border regions:

North China

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers
Hopei	140,526 (153,682)
Shantung	153,711 (179,269)
Honan	169,782 (172,736)
Shansi	161,842 (155,935)
Shensi	195,076 (187,394)
Kansu	380,863 (378,059)
Total	1,201,800 (1,227,075)

Central China

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers
Kiangsu	105,605 (108,339)
Chekiang	101,061 (103,058)
Anhui	143,447 (134,426)
Kiangsi	168,326 (200,209)
Hupei	183,724 (207,692)
Hunan	215,457 (273,231)

Location	
French Concession	Tientsin

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers
Szechwan	403,634 (431,309)
Total	1,321,165 (1,458,264)

South China

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers
Fukien	121,050 (158,702)
Kwangtung	223,844 (217,404)
Kwangsi	219,876 (217,578)
Kweichow	176,480 (179,478)
Yunnan	398,583 (320,051)
Total	1,139,833 (1,093,213)

Border Regions

Name of Province	Area in Square Kilometers
Chahar	258,815 (278,957)
Suiyuan	304,058 (291,432)
Ningshia	302,451 (274,910)
Chinghai	
(Kokonor)	728,198 (697,194)
Sikang	472,704 (371,599)
Tibet	904,999 (1,215,788)
Sinkiang	1,641,554 (1,828,418)
Total	4,612,779 (4,958,298)
Grand total	8,275,577 (8,736,850)

(Note: The figures in parentheses were published by the Ministry of the Interior of the National Government on March 17, 1937, and do not cover the cities of Nanking, Shanghai, Peking (then Peiping), Tientsin, Tsingtao and Weihaiwei.)

In passing, it may be noted that the area of Outer Mongolia is given as 1,612,912 square kilometers (the figures published by the Ministry of the Interior of the National Government on March 17, 1937, being 1,621,201 square kilometers).

Foreign Concessions Following is a list of the foreign concessions, international settlements and leased territories in China:

Location	Date of Creation	Area
French Concession	1806	About 2,360 sq

	Location	Date of Creation	Area
Italian Concession	Tientsin	1902	771 se
Japanese	"	1898	2,150 "
"	Hankow	1898	186 "
French	"	1896	360 "
Japanese	Shasi	1897	—
"	Chungking	1899	—
"	Soochow	1897	484 "
"	Hangchow	1897	1,689 "
"	Amoy	1896	40 "
"	Foochow	1842 (opened)	—
French	"	1861 (opened)	54 "
"	Shanghai	1844 (")	14,900 "
International Settlement	Wuhu	1905	689 "
"	Kulangsu	1902	—
"	Yentai	1866	309 "
"	Shanghai	(dating from 1863 when the British concession created in 1845 and the American concession created in 1847 were merged)	32,504 "
Territory leased to France	Kwangchow Bay	1899	—
Territory leased to Portugal	Macao	1887	—

(Note: One "se" corresponds to 160 square feet.)

Population

The inhabitants of China are generally divided into six tribes, the Hans, Tibetans, Miaos, Manchus, Mongols and Turks. The Hans, found all over China, account for more than 90 per cent of the total population. They are prolific, highly civilized and have great economic power. The total number of Tibetans is estimated at approximately 2,000,000, all living in Tibet. Their standard of civilization is low. The Miaos are aborigines of China and at present inhabit the two provinces of Kweichow and Yunnan, having been gradually driven to these southwestern provinces by the Hans. The Manchus, who were the founders of the now defunct Ching (or Manchu) Dynasty, migrated, during the time they were in power to various parts of China proper, where they were assimilated with the Hans. At present they are estimated to number some 5,-

000,000 persons. The Mongols, of whom there are probably about 800,000, inhabit chiefly Inner and Outer Mongolia, though some of them are found in Sinkiang and Chinghai (Kokonor). The Turks live in Kansu, Shensi and Sinkiang their number being estimated at about 10,000,000.

Figures for the total population of China vary according to estimates from different sources. The Ministry of the Interior of the National Government reported in 1928 that the country had a total population of 474,787,386 persons. The Year Book published by the Shen Pao gives the total population as 433,077,785 persons. The average density of population in the 18 purely Chinese provinces is given as 110 persons to each one square kilometer. Details of the figures compiled by the Shen Pao, excluding those for Manchuria and Outer Mongolia, are tabulated as follows:

	Number of Households	Population	Density of Population (per square kilometer)
Kiangsu Province	6,998,389	35,102,524	336.77
Chekiang "	4,737,223	20,663,754	204.89
Hangchow City	117,674	574,439	259.54
Anhui Province	3,832,813	22,020,591	153.51
Kiangsi "	2,988,709	15,746,765	93.59
Hupai "	4,759,559	25,137,732	139.67
Hunan "	4,059,938	22,329,658	103.63

	Number of Households	Population	Density of Population (per square kilometer)
Honan Province	6,099,427	33,658,673	198.24
Hopei "	5,018,500	28,466,530	203.74
Shantung "	6,782,114	37,214,088	244.03
Shansi "	2,155,856	11,610,778	71.74
Kwangtung "	5,894,177	32,023,496	143.06
Kwangsi "	2,556,051	12,882,532	58.58
Kukien "	1,814,133	11,987,986	99.03
Szechwan "	7,671,412	37,427,593	92.73
Yunnan "	2,338,272	11,795,486	29.59
Kwelchow "	1,600,817	6,906,361	39.13
Shensi "	1,975,379	9,752,015	49.99
Kansu "	1,061,784	6,360,075	16.69
Ninghsia "	74,100	417,751	1.38
Suiyuan "	402,216	2,321,879	7.64
Chahar "	393,651	1,876,461	7.25
Nanking City	190,953	989,045	2,073.47
Shanghai City	407,721	3,703,430	4,147.55
Peking City	305,636	1,575,606	2,983.33
Tientsin City	240,808	1,209,998	13,296.68
Tsingtao City	94,337	465,912	412.36
Weihaiwei	36,487	199,983	270.91
Sinkiang Province	544,721	2,506,719	1.53
Chinghai "	206,779	1,190,509	1.63
Tibet	141,666	769,249	0.85
Sikang Province	92,527	416,113	0.88
Total	75,594,802	399,303,731	

The Central Government of the Chinese Republic

Wang Ching-wei, the former President of the Executive Yuan and Foreign Minister of the Chungking Government, who had expressed his ideals for peace, left Chungking on his own accord on December 18, 1938, accompanied by colleagues, and took refuge at Hanoi. On July 10, 1939, Wang publicly renounced all relations with Chiang Kai-shek, and on August 9, broadcasted from Canton on "How to Bring About Peace in China." Later on numerous occasions, he issued statements in regard to his designs to institute peace in China in a firm conviction and belief on Japan's policies enunciated in the Konoé statements in November and December, 1938.

Wang Ching-wei's peace movement steadily progressed during the latter half of 1939 with the full support of Japanese authorities in China and Tokyo. A seven-day conference (January 23-29, 1940) was held at Tsingtao between Wang and delegates from the provisional governments in Nanking and Peking. The conferees agreed to unite the three elements and organize a new central government at Nanking to save China from destruction and adjust relations with Japan for permanent peace.

Decisions of Central Political Conference The Central Political Conference, charged with the colossal mission of giving birth to a new Central Government of China, was opened in Nanking, the new Capital City of China, for three days from March 20, 1940, the culmination of peace restoration movement sponsored by Wang Ching-wei and his followers. As a result of the opening of this historic central political gathering, the long-awaited new Central Government of China was formally brought into existence in Nanking on March 30, 1940. The opening of the Central Political Conference had been decided on at the sixth general meeting of the Kuomintang held in Shanghai, August 1939, as an extraordinary and supreme political organ for forming a new Central Government. Details of the organization and governing regulations together with the list of members of the conference were announced by Lin Fai-sheng, Director of Publicity, on March 19, 1940, and the whole phase of the system, organization and mission of the conference was clarified.

Establishment of the Nanking Govern-

ment The new Central Government of the Chinese Republic was formally established at Nanking on March 30, 1940, in accordance with the decision of the Central Political Council. The personnel of the administrative departments of the new Nanking Government at its establishment was as follows:

Chief Executive: Wang Ching-wei (pro tem; the position was left vacant for Lin Sen should he return from Chungking).

Executive Yuan

President: Wang Ching-wei
Interior (Minister): Chen Chun
Foreign Affairs: Chu Min-yi (concurrently)

Finance: Chou Fu-hai
War: Pao Wen-yueh (acting)
Navy: Wang Ching-wei (concurrently)

Education: Chao Cheng-ping
Justice: Li Sheng-wu
Industry & Commerce: Mei Sze-ping
Agricultural & Mining: Chao Yu-sung
Railways: Foo Shih-shuh
Communications: Chu Ching-lai
Social Affairs: Ting Mo-chun
Publicity: Lin Pai-sheng
Police: Chou Fu-hai (concurrently)

Legislative Yuan

President: Chen Kung-po

Judicial Yuan

President: Wen Chung-yao

Control Yuan

President: Liang Hung-chih
Audit (Minister): Hsia Chi-feng

The new Government immediately following the inauguration proclaimed its basic policy of national administration, as follows:

- (1) To preserve independence and national sovereignty of China;
- (2) To respect foreign powers' legitimate rights;
- (3) To promote Sino-foreign friendship;
- (4) To counteract subversive activities such as communism;
- (5) To rehabilitate troops; to eradicate military dictatorship;
- (6) To raise level of officials;
- (7) To convene national assembly;
- (8) To invite investment of foreign capital;

- (9) To promote overseas trade;
- (10) To improve taxation system.

Area under the new Central Government Out of the 24 provinces of China, 15 are entirely or partially under the rule of the Nanking Government, including the whole of Hopei, Chahar, Shantung, Anhwei and Kiangsu; the greater portions of Shansi, Suiyuan, Honan, and Hupeh; and lesser sections of Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hunan, Kwangtung; Kwangsi and Fukien Provinces. The 15 provinces comprise most of those which are termed wealthy with "vast land and abundant product" as the Chinese phrase goes. In density of population, richness of mineral and agricultural resources, and in respect of communications and trade, they are of far greater importance than the regions remaining under Chungking.

Movement for Restoring Sovereignty A marked progress has been made of the movement for restoration of the sovereign rights, which the new National Government initiated. The first step was the repudiation of the lease of Liukungtao. Great Britain counselled the Chungking régime to renew for 10 more years the expired lease of the island, which right that country had reserved at the time of the retrocession of Weihaiwei. The National Government refused to sanction such an agreement between them and, on September 30 1940, effected the rendition of the island. Then, the Second District Court in the French Concession in Shanghai was taken over by the Nanking Government early in November. As is well known, some remnants of the Chiang régime, such as a court of justice, survived in the International Settlement of Shanghai. The fact of the matter is that Chinese malefactors in the Settlement might be arrested by agents of the Municipal Council, which is under the British domination, and be brought into the court for trial. The presence in the Settlement of judiciary officials appointed by the Chiang régime would endeavor to pervert the Chinese attitude toward the Wang Ching-wei régime. The National Government, therefore, had made the necessary preparations: appoint its own judiciary officials; the negotiations with the authorities of the French Concession had fallen through. Recently, however, a satisfactory arrangement has been made

tween the parties concerned, which may be considered a diplomatic success for the new Government. Further, upon the entry of Italy into the European War, the Government issued in the name of the Foreign Minister, a statement demanding the withdrawal of the belligerent troops and warships in China. The consequence was the wholesale evacuation of the British troops on August 10, 1940. Moreover, a pledge has been made by Japan through the instrument of the Basic Treaty for the abolition of the extraterritoriality and rendition of the concessions, which formed the central issues of the drive for the abolition of unequal treaties, and which China had demanded from time to time, viz. at the Versailles Conference as well as the Washington Conference of 1921. Article 7 of the Treaty referred to stipulates as follows: "According to the development of the new relations between Japan and China under the present Treaty, the Government of Japan shall abolish extraterritorial rights possessed by Japan in China and render to the latter its concessions; and the Government of China shall open its territory for domicile and business of Japanese subjects." In accordance with this provision, extraterritorial rights will be abolished and concessions returned to China; and the domicile of Japanese in the interior will be recognized. No Japanese subject has enjoyed, in the past, the rights of residence and of business, except in the settlements and treaty ports; and he has had to carry his own "huchao" passport when travelling in the interior. Hereafter, the Government at Nanking, will carry out gradually negotiations with other countries for the full restoration of the sovereignty of China.

Wang Ching-wei President Another important move forward in the political life of new China was the election of Wang Ching-wei to the Presidency of the Republic of China, a post which remained long vacant. At the sessions of the Executive Yuan and the Central Political Council held on November 28, 1940, a paragraph in Article 11 of the old Organic Law of the National Government, which read "The President shall be held in no way accountable in political affairs," and also the whole of Article 12, which read "The President is not permitted to assume any other office concurrently," were rescinded. And at the same sessions they unanimously

adopted the proposal for electing Wang Ching-wei, the Deputy Chairman, the new President of the Republic of China, thereby establishing the center of political organization of the country.

Constitutional Government in Preparation The most pressing issue of Chinese internal politics today is to enforce constitutional government. The fact is that the Kuomintang Party in its development has passed from the military into the tutelage and into the constitutional phase. In anticipation of a successful execution of the national revolution, the Chungking régime had drawn up and published the draft constitution. It had expected to call the National Convention on November 13, 1940, to adopt the constitution. However, under the pretext of a lack of preparation due to the emergency, the convocation of the Convention was indefinitely postponed. The new Government repudiated, from the outset, party government and dictatorship as espoused by the old Kuomintang and proceeded to advance the cause of constitutional government by the cooperation of all parties and factions.

At the 6th plenary session held in August 1939, a proclamation was issued by the Nanking Government "to convene the National Convention, draw up the constitution and to carry out constitutional government within the shortest time." Again on March 30, 1940, it was announced that the major policy of the New Government was to bring about peace and effect constitutional government. In the basic policies formulated by that Government, also, the same measures were prominently included. On July 29, 1940, the Commission for the Execution of Constitutional Government was set up under the leadership of Wang Ching-wei and composed of 27 members elected from among Government and private leaders. The Commission is divided into 4 sections, the first dealing with the outline of the draft constitution and the National Convention, etc.; the second with the local government system; the third with national economy; and the fourth with education. It is expected that the draft constitution passed in 1934 by the Legislative Yuan of the former National Government will be adopted as a basis for discussion.

As for the improvement of administration, it is noted that the new Government has embarked upon the reform

of the local administration structure. The reorganization of the five Provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei and Hupui and of the three special Municipalities of Canton, Hankow and Nanking was completed early in October 1940. The system of Provincial Governor has been superceded by that of Provincial Chairman placed under the direct control of the Central Government, thereby bringing to an end the past trend toward feudalism.

Financial and Banking Reorganization

The finances of the new Government have an important bearing upon its future development. The new régime has taken firm hold on three main sources of revenue, such as customs revenue, salt gabelle and consolidated taxes. Sound as they have been, the finances of the new Government still have to undergo some changes owing to the current wartime situation, which has caused a considerable decrease in customs revenue and consolidated taxes.

The Nanking Government, therefore, in its forward move along various lines, was forced to expedite its financial reorganization. On the one hand, it had to do away with the extortions and miscellaneous taxes of the past in order to stabilize the life of the people and, on the other, to carry out retrenchment in Government expenditures. It was found in this connection, that independence in respect of the right of taxation must be realized in order to effect readjustment of national taxes. With this in view, Article 1 of the Agreed Terms of Understanding concerning the Annexed Protocol of the Basic Treaty has stipulated that "with regard to those various organs for collecting taxes in China, which are at present in a special condition owing to military necessity, an adjustment shall be made promptly in accordance with the spirit of respecting the financial independence in China." As the new Government is located in the rich section of China, there is every reason to believe that the financial adjustment of the country will bring about a steady and sound development of its finances.

An adjustment of the financial machinery is of vital importance to the economic reconstruction of China. Yet, it is indeed a very difficult task. It had to proceed with the utmost caution. As a rule, the urban concentration of financing operation or the preference of investment in Government

bonds, practised in the past, has been replaced by the policy of localized financing. With a view to rehabilitating rural life and to developing commerce and industry, an attempt has been made to reorganize provincial and city banks as well as cooperatives. At the end of August 1940, the Regulations governing the Provincial and City Banks were issued, thereby establishing banking institutions in every province and city, through which institutions local reconstruction will be facilitated and the aid to agricultural and industrial enterprises carried out.

Currency unification is one of the most stupendous tasks allotted to the new Government. The control of provincial and city banks as well as agricultural, commercial and industrial banks through the instrumentality of a central financial organ is indispensable. The most important measure along this line is to work out some means of dealing with the old fapi, which is still in circulation under the financial support of Britain and America, as well as of unifying the monetary system of North and Central China. For this purpose the Central Bank of China was established in Nanking on December 21, 1940.

New Central Bank of China Significant was the establishment, on January 6, 1941, of the Central Reserve Bank of China capitalized at 100,000,000 yuan to be disbursed from the State Treasury, and also the creation of a new currency. Chou Fu-hai, Finance Minister, was appointed governor of the new bank and Tien Tai-kuei vice-president. In his statement of December 19 announcing the National Government's decisions on the new bank and currency, Chou Fu-hai said that the economic reconstruction and financial growth of the Republic would be possible only through the creation of a State bank. With the Chungking fapi slowly slipping down and commodity prices climbing steeply, the need for a currency bolstered by solid governmental backing had become more and more acute. Hence, after careful planning, these steps were decided on.

The new central bank is prepared to pay out, without limit, any of the varieties of legal tender hitherto in circulation or foreign currencies in exchange for the new legal tender at par. Separately from the Japanese army scripts now in circulation, it is linked with fapi at par and is expected

gradually to spread over the territory of the old currencies and consolidate its own.

Three laws governing the new institution and its issues were promulgated on December 19. The first, a Provisional Law Implementing Monetary Adjustment, stipulates that the National Government shall invest the Central Reserve Bank of China with the privilege of issuing convertible notes in order that the bank may eventually unify the currency system of the Republic. The convertible notes so issued are to be the legal tender of the Chinese Republic and to circulate without limit. The bank may withdraw from circulation the old legal tender now in use by employing the new currency and the procedures to be adopted for the purpose are to be decided from time to time according to regional and seasonal circumstances. By this law the right of issue of the Huahsin Commercial Bank was revoked and means of withdrawing its notes still remaining in circulation were separately stipulated.

The second law, governing the Central Reserve Bank of China itself, sets forth that the bank shall hold specie reserves equivalent to 40 per cent of its total issues, while the balance may be covered by fiduciary reserves consisting of securities issued or guaranteed by the National Government or by bills under the provisions of Clauses 6 to 8 of Article 24 of the law. The denominations of the new money are one yuan, five yuan, 50 yuan and 100 yuan and subsidiary coins follow the usual decimal system.

The third law has to do with regulations governing the Foreign Exchange Fund Management Commission.

On January 3, Dr. Masutaro Kimura, formerly a director of the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, left for Nanking to assume the post of adviser to the new bank and to assist Chou Fu-hai.

On January 11, the American-managed China Press of Shanghai reported smooth circulation of the new legal tender, while Chinese courts of justice in the French Concession, which had been transferred to the National Government, clarified their attitude by announcing that they would accept payment of various commissions and costs in the new bank note. In accordance with the attitude on the part of law-courts, the Greater Shanghai Municipality promulgated regulations permit-

ting receipt of the new note for tax payment.

Financial Conditions A report from Nanking on March 26 said that in the twelvemonth that the National Government had been in existence under President Wang Ching-wei, the State revenue of the Republic had increased by leaps and bounds.

The tax revenue for five months up to November 1940 announced by the Finance Ministry of the National Government totalled 136,894,000 yuan, indicating the huge increase of 66,323,000 yuan over the corresponding months in 1939.

The total revenue in 1941 amounted to 389,770,000 yuan against the total expenditure of 327,560,000, leaving a balance of 62,210,000 yuan.

Japan Gives Loan of ¥300,000,000 Plans of concrete collaboration between Tokyo and Nanking reached a complete concord with the visit of President Wang Ching-wei of China to Japan (June 16-26), and its first step was seen in Japan's loan of ¥300,000,000 to Nanking as announced by the Japanese Government on June 28. The statement said that "In response to the desire of the National Government of China, the Japanese Government have decided to extend to them a loan to the maximum of ¥300,000,000. With regard to its execution the Yokohama Specie Bank, etc., will be in charge."

The 4th Plenary Session The fourth plenary session of the Central Executive Yuan of the orthodox Kuomintang at Nanking was successfully concluded with a closing ceremony on November 12, 1941.

In the session which covered three days, 85 bills were introduced but only two were approved. Noteworthy is the plan for presentation of a new national movement for uplifting moral of the nation which was introduced by President Wang Ching-wei and approved at the session.

After the session, the following declaration was made by the Kuomintang: "The plan for presentation of a new national movement which the Kuomintang has approved at its fourth plenary session is one proposed by President Wang himself, after 10 years of study of measures for heightening national moral.

"We know the two great movements of General Chiang Kai-shek, viz, the new

national life movement and the national economy construction movement in pre-China-Affair times.

"These two movements had defects. One was the placing of too much importance to spiritual side, the other being that to material side. Besides, these two movements were too bureaucratic in nature to appeal to the nation and had other purpose than that for the prosperity of the nation.

"We should not repeat these errors. The movement advocated by President Wang is intended to highten the national moral and increase interests of the people thereby to accomplish the national policy of constructing the country by way of peace. We are firmly convinced that the movement will inspire the country and the people to go on whatever difficulty they may meet."

Diplomacy

Conclusion of the Basic Treaty between Japan and China The Sino-Japanese conference to deliberate on a fundamental treaty between the two countries began at Nanking on July 5, 1940, after discussing the Japanese draft of the basic pact at 15 meetings and completed its labors on the whole text on August 28 and ended the parley on August 31. General Nobuyuki Abe, envoy extraordinary of Japan, after travelling in North China, returned to Tokyo on October 27, and the Treaty Concerning the Basis Relations between Japan and China was announced on November 30. The text of the treaty and announcements thereof follow:

DOCUMENTS CONCERNING THE TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND CHINA

**Announcement of the Government,
November 30, 1940**

The Plenipotentiaries of Japan and China signed today at Nanking the Treaty Concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China, the Protocol annexed thereto and the Agreed Terms of Understanding between the Plenipotentiaries of the two countries; following which the Plenipotentiaries of Japan, Manchoukuo and China signed the Joint Declaration of Japan, Manchoukuo and China.

By virtue of the above, the Japanese Government have formally recognized the National Government of the Republic of China headed by Mr. Wang

Ching-wei, the National Government of the Republic of China have recognized Manchoukuo, and the Government of Manchoukuo have recognized the National Government of the Republic of China.

The documents relating to the above are as follows:

1. Treaty Concerning the Basic Relations Between Japan and China

The Imperial Government of Japan and

The National Government of the Republic of China:

Being desirous that these two countries should respect their inherent characteristics and closely cooperate with each other as good neighbors under their common ideal of establishing a new order in East Asia on an ethical basis, establishing thereby a permanent peace in East Asia, and wish this as a nucleus contributing toward the peace of the world in general, and

Desiring for this purpose to establish fundamental principles to regulate the relations between the two countries, have agreed as follows:

Article 1

The Governments of the two countries shall, in order to maintain permanently good neighborly and amicable relations between the two countries, mutually respect their sovereignty and territories and at the same time take mutually helpful and friendly measures, political, economic, cultural and otherwise.

The Governments of the two countries agree to eliminate, and to prohibit in the future, such measures and causes as are destructive of amity between the two countries in politics, diplomacy, education, propaganda, trade and commerce, and other spheres.

Article 2

The Governments of the two countries shall closely cooperate for cultural harmony, creation and development.

Article 3

The Governments of the two countries agree to engage in joint defense against all destructive operations of communistic nature that jeopardize the peace and welfare of their countries.

The Governments of the two countries shall, in order to accomplish the purpose mentioned in the preceding paragraph, eliminate communistic elements

and organizations in their respective territories, and at the same time co-operate closely concerning information and propaganda with reference to the defense against communistic activities.

Japan shall, in order to carry out the defense against communistic activities through collaboration of the two countries, station required forces in specified areas of Mengchiang and of North China for the necessary duration, in accordance with the terms to be agreed upon separately.

Article 4

The Governments of the two countries undertake to cooperate closely for the maintenance of common peace and order until the Japanese forces sent to China complete their evacuation in accordance with the terms as provided for separately.

The areas for stationing Japanese forces for the period requiring the maintenance of common peace and order and other matters pertaining thereto shall be determined as agreed separately between the two countries.

Article 5

The Government of the Republic of China shall recognize that Japan may, in accordance with previous practices or in order to preserve the common interests of the two countries, station for a required duration its naval units and vessels in specified areas within the territory of the Republic of China, in accordance with the terms to be agreed upon separately between the two countries.

Article 6

The Governments of the two countries shall effect close economic co-operation between the two countries in conformance with the spirit of complementing each other and ministering to each other's needs, as well as in accordance with the principles of equality and reciprocity.

With reference to specific resources in North China and Mengchiang, especially mineral resources required for national defense, the Government of the Republic of China undertake that they shall be developed through close co-operation of the two countries. With reference to the development of specific resources in other areas which are required for national defense, the Government of the Republic of China shall

afford necessary facilities to Japan and Japanese subjects.

With regard to the utilization of the resources referred to in the preceding paragraph, while considering the requirements of China, the Government of the Republic of China shall afford positive and full facilities to Japan and Japanese subjects.

The Governments of the two countries shall take all the necessary measures to promote trade in general and to facilitate and rationalize the demand and supply of goods between the two countries. The Governments of the two countries shall extend specially close cooperation with respect to the promotion of trade and commerce in the lower basin of the Yangtze River and the rationalization of the demand and supply of goods between Japan on the one hand and North China and Mengchiang on the other.

The Government of Japan shall, with respect to the rehabilitation and development of industries, finance, transportation and communication in China, extend necessary assistance and cooperation to China through consultation between the two countries.

Article 7

According to the development of the new relations between Japan and China under the present Treaty, the Government of Japan shall abolish extraterritorial rights possessed by Japan in China and render to the latter its concessions; and the Government of China shall open its territory for domicile and business of Japanese subjects.

Article 8

The Governments of the two countries shall conclude separate agreements regarding specific items which are necessary to accomplish the object of the present Treaty.

Article 9

The present Treaty shall come into effect from the date of its signature.

In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed the present Treaty and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate, in the Japanese and Chinese languages, at Nanking the 30th day of the 11th month of the 15th year of Shōwa, corresponding to the

30th day of the 11th month of the 29th year of the Republic of China.

2. Annexed Protocol

In proceeding this day to the signature of the Treaty Concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China, the Plenipotentiaries of the two countries have agreed as follows:

Article 1

The Government of the Republic of China, understanding that, during the period in which Japan continues the warlike operations it is at present carrying on in the territory of China, there exists a special state of affairs attendant upon such warlike operations, and that Japan must take such measures as are required for the attainment of the object of such operations, shall accordingly take the necessary measures.

Even during the continuation of the said warlike operations, the special state of affairs referred to in the preceding paragraph shall, in so far as there is no obstacle to the attainment of the object of the operations, be adjusted in accordance with the changing circumstances and in conformity with the Treaty and its annexed documents.

Article 2

While the affairs previously administered by the Provisional Government of the Republic of China, the Reformed Government of the Republic of China and others have been taken over and temporarily maintained as they are by the Government of the Republic of China, those which require adjustment but are not yet adjusted shall be adjusted in conformity with the purpose of the Treaty and its annexed documents through consultation between the two countries, as promptly as circumstances may permit.

Article 3

When general peace is restored between the two countries and the state of war ceases to exist, the Japanese forces shall commence evacuation with the exception of those which are stationed in accordance with the Treaty Concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China signed today and the existing agreements between the two countries, and shall complete it within two years with the firm establishment of peace and order; and the Government

of the Republic of China shall guarantee the firm establishment of peace and order during this period.

Article 4

The Government of the Republic of China shall compensate the damages to rights and interests suffered by Japanese subjects in China on account of the China Affair since its outbreak.

The Government of Japan shall, with respect to the relief of the Chinese rendered destitute by the China Affair, cooperate with the Government of the Republic of China.

Article 5

The present Protocol shall come into effect simultaneously with the Treaty.

In witness whereof the Plenipotentiaries of the two countries have signed this Protocol and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate, in the Japanese and Chinese languages, at Nanking the 30th day of the 11th month of the 15th year of Shōwa, corresponding to the 30th day of the 11th month of the 29th year of the Republic of China.

3. Agreed Terms of Understanding Between the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and China Concerning the Annexed Protocol

In proceeding this day to the signature of the Treaty Concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China, the following understanding has been reached between the Plenipotentiaries of the two countries in connection with the stipulations of Articles 1 and 2 of the Annexed Protocol of the Treaty.

1. With regard to those various organs for collecting taxes in China which are at present in a special condition owing to military necessity, an adjustment shall be made promptly in accordance with the spirit of respecting the financial independence of China.

2. With regard to those industrial mining and commercial establishments under governmental or private management which are at present controlled by Japanese forces, the necessary measures shall be taken for their prompt transfer to Chinese management in a rational manner, with the exception of those which are of enemy character or under special circumstances of unavoidable character including military necessity.

3. In case any Sino-Japanese joint enterprise requires modification in the evaluation of original assets, the proportion of capital investments and other matters, measures for their rectification shall be taken in accordance with the terms to be agreed upon separately through consultation between the two countries.

4. The Government of the Republic of China shall, in case they find it necessary to institute control on foreign trade, effect such control autonomously. They may not, however, infringe upon the principle of Sino-Japanese economic cooperation mentioned in Article 6 of the Treaty; and they shall consult with Japan with regard to such control during the continuation of the China Affair.

5. With regard to matters pertaining to transportation and communication in China which require adjustment, they shall be adjusted, as promptly as circumstance may permit, in accordance with the terms to be agreed upon separately through consultation between the two countries.

Done in duplicate, in the Japanese and Chinese languages, at Nanking the 30th day of the 11th month of the 15th year of Shōwa, corresponding to the 30th day of the 11th months of the 29th year of the Republic of China.

4. Joint Declaration By the Governments of Japan, Manchoukuo And China

The Imperial Government of Japan;
The Imperial Government of Manchoukuo; and
The National Government of the Republic of China:

Being desirous that the three countries should respect one another's inherent characteristics and closely co-operate with one another as good neighbors under their common ideal of establishing a new order in East Asia on an ethical basis, constituting thereby the mainstay of a permanent peace in East Asia, and with this as a nucleus contributing toward the peace of the world in general, declare as follows:

1. Japan, Manchoukuo and China will respect mutually their sovereignty and territories.

2. Japan, Manchoukuo and China will bring about general cooperation on a reciprocal basis among the three countries, especially a good neighborly

friendship, common defense against communistic activities and economic cooperation, and for that purpose will take all the necessary measures in every direction.

3. Japan, Manchoukuo and China will promptly conclude agreements in accordance with the present Declaration.

Done at Nanking on this the 30th day of the 11th month of the 15th year of Shōwa, corresponding to the 30th day of the 11th month of the 7th year of Kangte, and to the 30th day of the 11th month of the 29th year of the Republic of China.

President Wang Visits Manchoukuo

President Wang Ching-wei of the National Government of China at Nanking, accompanied by Foreign Minister Chu Min-yl, Chief of Staff General Yang, Publicity Minister Lin Po-seng and others left Nanking on May 4, 1942, on his first formal visit to Manchoukuo. The party arrived in Hsinking by way of Dairen. Normal international relations between Manchoukuo and China were established by the joint declaration of Japan, Manchoukuo and China on November 30, 1940, which provided for their mutual recognition. President Wang's recent visit to Manchoukuo as Chief Executive of China will not only thicken the relations of the two countries, but will have great significance in perfecting coalition and co-operation of the three countries as pillars of the Greater East Asia co-prosperity sphere. President Wang on his arrival in Hsinking on May 7 was received in audience by His Majesty the Emperor of Manchoukuo. He also saw General Yoshijiro Umezui, Commander of the Kwantung Army. In his official statement issued in Hsinking, President Wang said that the current war was not a mere question of the rise or fall of one nation and one country in East Asia, but a serious question of life and death for East Asia as a whole. Therefore, he said, all people in East Asia must unite among themselves and be conscious of the necessity of their joint assistance and co-operation, thereby gaining victory. He hoped for the continuation of inviolable friendship between Japan, Manchoukuo and China. After successfully fulfilling his mission, President Wang and his party left Hsinking on May 10 and arrived at Nanking the following day.

New Japanese Ambassador After the return of General Abe to Japan, Kuma-

taro Honda was installed as Ambassador from Tokyo on December 7, 1940. K. Honda had been active as a lecturer and writer on international subjects since his retirement from the diplomatic service in 1926 after a meritorious career. Honda tendered resignation on account of illness and Mamoru Shigemitsu, former Ambassador to London was appointed the new Ambassador to Nanking on December 19, 1941.

Japan-China Collaboration Strengthened Wang Ching-wei, President of the National Government of China and concurrently President of the Executive Yuan, in order to repay the courtesies tendered him from various quarters in Japan since the establishment of the new Central Government as well as for the purpose of discussing with the authoritative quarters concerning the question of cooperation between Japan and China, left Shanghai on board the Yawata Maru for Japan in June 1941 and landed at Kobe on the 16th, arriving at Tokyo Station the next morning. As President of the National Government, Wang paid his call at the Palace on the 18th; and after the 19th, in his capacity as President of the Executive Yuan, met the Prime Minister as well as the Foreign, Army, Navy and Finance Ministers.

President Wang's party included Wang, Chou Fu-hai, Vice-President of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance; Hsu Liang, Minister for Foreign Affairs; Lin Po-sheng, Minister of Publicity and several others.

The party was warmly received by the Imperial House, the Government and the people during its stay in Tokyo for a week, and left Tokyo on June 25 for Osaka after completing its mission in the capital, to return to Nanking on June 28.

On June 23, the following joint statement of Premier Prince Fumimaro Konoe and President Wang Ching-wei was published through the Board of Information:

"With a view to speedily settling the present Affair and, with this as a turning point, to establishing a permanent relationship between Japan and China and marching forward toward the common goal of co-existence and co-prosperity as well as the reconstruction of East Asia, we respectively made declarations some time ago concerning the establishment of the new order in East Asia consisting of good neighborly and

amicable relations, a common defense against Communism and economic co-operation. The purposes of the Basic Treaty concluded between Japan and China on November 30, last year, and the Declaration of Japan, Manchoukuo and China issued on the same day are no other than this.

"The significance of the establishment of the new order in East Asia lies in the eradication of the evils of aggression and of Communism existing in East Asia and the establishment of States characterized by mutual cooperation, co-existence and co-prosperity on the basis of morality inherent in East Asia. There seem to be not a few among the people of China who, though being desirous of the reconstruction of East Asia through the collaboration of Japan and China, lack confidence in the actual realization of such an undertaking and persist in an attitude of hesitation and irresolution. But, the great task of reconstructing East Asia can only be accomplished by revealing as much as possible, even at the present stage, the first light of the dawn of this new era, thereby winning the confidence of the majority of the people, and also by resolutely striving for the realization of general peace.

"As the result of our conversation, the Governments of Japan and China have pledged their word to put forth increasing efforts toward the above-mentioned common goal. The National Government of China will endeavor to make their people understand that the collaboration between Japan and China and the reconstruction of East Asia are the common missions of the peoples of our two countries, by presenting concrete facts regarding the cooperation of Japan and China in political, military, economic and cultural spheres; and the Japanese Government also will exert themselves, by extending increasing assistance therefor, to enable the National Government fully to demonstrate their independent and free authority and power, so that they may share the responsibility of constructing the new order of East Asia."

British Concession Handed Over to Nanking Upon the opening of the War of Greater East Asia, Japan sent her troops into the British Concessions in Tientsin and Canton, and since then the Imperial forces have held these concessions under their control. The Japanese Government, however, have decided to transfer the administrative functions of

these concessions to the jurisdiction of the National Government at Nanking and have notified the latter government to that effect on February 18, 1942.

Visit of Dr. Chu Min-i With an important mission of expressing its determination to co-operate with Japan for a successful finish of the Pacific war, to thank Japan for its support rendered to the National Government at Nanking since the start of the war and also to congratulate the Japanese Army and Navy upon their brilliant war results, Dr. Chu Min-i, Nanking's Foreign Minister, was sent to Japan as proxy of President Wang Ching-wei. The special envoy was accompanied by General Yang Kuei-i, Chief of the Army General Staff, and Admiral Jen Yen-tao, Navy Minister, of that Government as assistant proxies. The party left Nanking by air on May 29, 1942. Dr. Chu and his suite were received in audience by His Majesty the Emperor on June 1 and Dr. Chu presented a personal letter from President Wang to the Emperor. He and other members of his suite were given an Imperial luncheon on the same day. In the course of a dinner sponsored to welcome Dr. Chu and his party by Foreign Minister Shigenori Togo on the same day, the Foreign Minister made a speech, in which he said that, in view of the nature of the war, the Japanese Government believed that the disposal of the China affair through strengthening of the National Government formed the basis of the construction of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. He also declared that the fundamental policy of the Japanese Government toward the National Government had not been affected at all by the outbreak of the war. At the dinner held in honor of the special envoy at the Premier's official residence on June 2, Premier Hideki Tojo emphasized the mounting friendship between Japan, Manchoukuo and China and said that this was ample proof of perfect harmony of relations among the three countries, stressing at the same time that Japan would render its ungrudging efforts toward stabilizing the Nanking Government. In his radio message broadcast on the night of June 1, Dr. Chu expressed China's determination to share the joy and hardships with Japan for the common cause of the construction of a new East Asiatic order and march together to carry through the objective of the present Greater East Asia War.

Special Ambassadors to Nanking Wang Ching-wei, President of the Republic of China and concurrently the President of the Executive Yuan of the National Government, paid a visit to Japan in 1941, and that Government sent to Japan the Special Ambassador, Chu Min-i, through whom the National Government expressed their firm determination to co-operate with Japan for the prosecution of the war of Greater East Asia. For the purpose of returning courtesy to the National Government and at the same time strengthening further the co-operation between Japan and China, the Japanese Government dispatched Special Ambassadors to China in September 1942.

Upon the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, the National Government promptly issued a statement, in which they made clear their determination to meet all difficulties with an unshakable spirit in order to realize the common purpose of Japan and China to establish a new order in East Asia, and to bring about a complete fulfillment of the ultimate purpose by co-operating with Japan wherever and whenever required. The determination of the National Government has since been translated into concrete action through their various administrations. The Japanese Government, keenly conscious of the increasing importance of the cooperation between the two countries at the present stage of the war, and not stinting in extending wholehearted co-operation for the growth of the National Government, Japanese Government had decided to send the Special Ambassadors to Nanking.

The following were the principal members of the mission: Ambassadors—Baron Kichiro Hiranuma, ex-Premier; Hachiro Arita, ex-Foreign Minister; Ryutaro Nagai, ex-Communications Minister; Members of the Suite—Minoru Tanaka, Secretary of the Board of China Affairs; Sadakichi Kawato, Secretary of the Board of China Affairs; Kumaichi Yamamoto, Director of the Bureau of East Asiatic Affairs, Foreign Office; Hisanari Yamada, Secretary of the Foreign Office; Shigenobu Shima, Secretary of the Foreign Office; Koki Naganuma, Secretary of the Finance Ministry; Lieutenant-General Kyoji Tomimaga; Lieutenant-Colonel Etsuo Miyamoto; Vice-Admiral Ryoza Fukuda; Commander Yoshitane Kisaka and Kohzo Ohta, member of the House of Peers.

Recognition by Powers Germany, Italy, Rumania, Slovakia, Croatia, Hungary, Spain and Bulgaria all formally recognized, on July 1, 1941, the National Government of China in Nanking.

The recognition of Nanking by these eight countries is the best proof of their admission of the actual strength of Nanking and its unflinching devotion to the cause of the new order in East Asia. The recognition has consolidated the international status of Nanking, and its future activities are expected to be even spectacular.

Speaking about this recognition, President Wang, among other things, stated: "That the Governments which mutually trust one another should give expression to their sincerity at this time of the world crisis and tide over diverse difficulties by cooperating among themselves will save mankind from various misfortunes and eventually realize peace of the world."

Denmark formally recognized the Nanking Government on August 18 and Thailand on July 7, 1942, making a total of 12 such countries, including Japan and Manchoukuo.

BANKING AND CURRENCY PROBLEM

Reserve Bank of China

The Central Reserve Bank of China, which had been established in January 1941, celebrated its first anniversary on January 6, 1942. According to the reports of the management on its business conditions in the first year of its establishment, the total amount of deposits reached 602 million yuan, while advances and investments totalled 447 million yuan. The total volume of its notes issued by the end of 1941 reached 260 million yuan.

100 Million yen Loan Loan extension to the Central Reserve Bank of China by the Bank of Japan was announced by the Board of Information on July 28. The announcement states: "The Government has decided to advance a loan of ¥100,000,000 to the Central Reserve Bank of China in compliance with the request of the National Government of the Chinese Republic, so that it may contribute to the wholesome development of the note issue system of the said bank. The contract concerning the said advance of the loan was signed between the Bank of Japan and the Central Reserve Bank of China today." The outline of the contract is as follows: (1) The Bank of Japan advances a loan amounting to ¥100,000,000 in Japanese money to the Central Reserve Bank of China for a period of five years. (2) The Central Reserve Bank of China pays the interests on the said loan at the rate of 3.5 per cent. per annum. (3) The Central Reserve Bank of China may redeem the said loan at any time within the said period of redemption. (4) The term of redemption may be renewed upon mutual agreement of the high contracting parties. Finance Minister

Okinori Kaya commenting on the advance of loan from the Bank of Japan to the Central Reserve Bank said that the present measure signified a tangible example of what the new order in financing within the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere should be like. The present loan, he continued, has nothing to do with that of last year, the new loan having been decided in order to help facilitate the wholesome development of the currency system of the Nanking Government.

Abolition of Old China Legal Tender

The National Government of China issued on May 27, 1942, the proclamation depriving, on and after June 1, 1942, the old legal tender of its legal value and recognizing only the notes of the Central Reserve Bank as legal tender. The circulation of the old legal tender as legal currency will be prohibited for the present in the three provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Nanking and Shanghai and the old legal tender will be exchanged generally for Reserve Bank notes at a ratio of two of the former for one of the latter. Following the determination of the above policy, it has been decided to dispose of the four Chungking banks seized by the Japanese at the end of 1941 with their advance into the foreign settlement and to close the Peasants' Bank of China and the Central Bank of China on account of their obvious hostility to the Nanking Government and to allow the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications to resume business after reorganization. Of course, the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications have been deprived of the right to issue notes.

The Central Reserve Bank was found-

ed on January 6, 1941, when it was officially decided to allow the circulation of the old legal tender at par for the time being.

The outbreak of the War of Great East Asia and the American and British defeats have, however, isolated Chungking, which in consequence has become more and more destitute of commodities, while the old legal tender has had a growing tendency to become requisition notes, resulting in the severe depreciation of the old legal tender. In order not to have Reserve Bank notes ill-affected by the heavy fall in the currency, the Nanking Government resolutely cut off the par link between the old legal tender and Reserve Bank notes on March 30, 1942, and on the day following it decided on an exchange rate of 100 yuan of the old legal tender to 77 yuan of Reserve Bank notes. For about 50 days since then, this rate was unchanged by the Reserve Bank, during which the old legal tender declined so markedly as to compel the exchange rate to be reduced at first to 74 yuan on May 20 and then to 50 yuan on May 26 in order to meet the decline in value. The downward tendency was so keen that if it was left to take its natural course, it was thought that it would go down to 40 yuan or to 30 yuan.

This confusion was brought to an end when the Ministry of Finance in Nanking ordered the abolition of the old fapi as legal tender and fixed the exchange rate of C.R.B. notes at two to one. The situation was further clarified when the authorities decided to exchange old fapi for the new legal tender notes in unlimited amounts.

Carrying out on a large scale its recent decision to withdraw old fapi notes from circulation exchanging them with the C.R.B. currency at the official 2-1 rate, the National Government of China announced a 10-point ordinance specifying regulations which govern the exchange and effect the withdrawal of fapi in the provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei. The measure went into effect from June 8, and will remain in effect until further notice.

The text of the ordinance is as follows:

Article I.—The National Government of China will dispose of the old fapi in accordance with this ordinance.

Article II.—The old fapi to be withdrawn for the purpose of this disposal will be bank notes issued by the Central

Bank of China, the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications.

Article III.—The Central Reserve Bank of China will be charged with the task of calling in the old fapi.

Article IV.—The Central Reserve Bank of China will exchange the old fapi with its own notes at the rate of two to one. However, the Government will be able to issue Government bonds of the same face value in place of the C.R.B. notes, or record the sum as a deposit with the Central Reserve Bank of China.

The Government may transfer to the Central Reserve Bank of China government bonds to the same face value as the value of C.R.B. notes issued in redemption of old fapi and to the same face value as the deposits made through the exchange.

Article V.—The old subsidiary notes will temporarily be permitted to remain in circulation at half the value of those issued by the Central Reserve Bank of China.

Article VI.—Existing credit and obligations based on the old fapi will be regarded as having automatically shifted to the C.R.B. notes as base at the rate of two to one.

Article VII.—New contracts based on the old fapi after this ordinance takes effect, will be invalid.

Article VIII.—The areas in which this ordinance will be operative are for the time being the provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei and the cities of Shanghai and Nanking.

Article IX.—Detailed rules governing the withdrawal of the old fapi will be fixed by the Central Reserve Bank of China.

Article X.—This ordinance will remain effective until further notice.

The enactment of this measure, amounting to actual withdrawal of the old fapi from circulation, makes the C.R.B. note the sole legal tender for the three provinces of Chekiang, Anhwei and Kiangsu including Nanking and Shanghai.

Every precaution has been taken to guard against severe economic dislocation as a result of the move.

The Nanking Finance Ministry assured that the Central Reserve Bank of China would continue to exchange old fapi for its own bank notes at the official rate of 2-1. There was such a rush to take advantage of this offer that bank

officials limited the amount of fapi which could be exchanged to \$150 per person. This gave black market operators an opportunity to jack up their prices and charge 3-1.

It was to counter this that officials of the Central Reserve Bank announced that the bank was creating a special section to redeem the old fapi notes at the official rate and in unlimited quantities. This had its desired effect upon the black market, causing the exchange rates to subside to the official level.

In order to cooperate in every possible way with the Chinese authorities in withdrawing old fapi, Japanese banks decided not to receive deposits in old fapi and advance loans in old fapi as from June 8. Simultaneously, Chinese banks will refrain from concluding new contracts on the basis of old fapi as from the same day.

These steps were taken following an appeal made by Mr. Masaki Obara, Japanese Financial Commissioner in Shanghai, to representatives of the Japanese banks. The Japanese financial commissioner announced that no permit would be necessary for the exchange of military yen less than ¥100,000 into C.R.B. notes and the exchange of C.R.B. notes corresponding to ¥100,000 into military yen, as from June 1. The exchange of military yen into old fapi and fapi into military yen will be limited to ¥1,000 as before, he added.

The Central Reserve Bank of China announced the detailed regulations concerning the withdrawal of the old fapi notes which will begin on June 8 in accordance with the ordinance issued by the National Government. The regulations are:

1. The old fapi to be withdrawn shall be those issued by the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications, except those of small denominations below 50 cents. However, old fapi issued by these banks bearing the names of issuing places other than Shanghai, such as Tientsin, Paoting, Tsingtao, Shantung, Hankow and Chungking, shall be excluded from the withdrawal.

2. The redemption of old fapi shall be enforced in Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei Provinces and in the cities of Shanghai and Nanking.

3. The offices where the official exchange of old fapi for the C.R.B. notes will be conducted are:

- (a) The offices of the Central Reserve Bank of China.

- (b) Offices of the Central Reserve Bank which will be temporarily established in Shanghai, Nanking and other places.

- (c) The Hwa Hsing Commercial Bank.

- (d) The Bank of Japan.

- (e) Exchange shops and Chinese native banks specially assigned with the withdrawal of old fapi. The names of these exchange shops and banks will be announced separately.

4. The withdrawal of fapi notes possessed by those except financial organs shall be conducted by the following methods:

- (a) Those who wish to exchange old fapi less than \$10,000 with C.R.B. notes will be able to do so at the above-mentioned banks, exchange shops and native banks at the official rate of 2-1.

The period during which the redemption of old fapi shall be conducted shall be limited to 14 days between June 8 and June 21, 1942.

Those banks, exchange shops and native banks are required to transfer their redeemed old fapi to the Central Reserve Bank of China within the above-mentioned period and receive C.R.B. notes at the official exchange rate.

- (b) Those who possess old fapi more than \$10,000 should apply for the exchange to the Central Reserve Bank and its designated banks the names of which will be announced separately, between June 8 and 21, 1942. The Central Reserve Bank and its designated banks shall record thus redeemed old fapi as cash deposits in C.R.B. notes at the official rate of 2-1.

Those designated banks shall transfer the redeemed old fapi notes during the above-mentioned period to the Central Reserve Bank which shall record them as cash deposits.

5. Financial organs such as Chinese commercial banks, exchange shops, Chinese native banks and trust companies which receive deposits and advance loans, are required to transfer the old fapi in their possession to the Central Reserve Bank not later than June 10, together with statements specifying the total amount of old fapi in their possession on June 7.

The old fapi thus received by the Central Reserve Bank from the financial organs shall be converted into C.R.B.

notes at the official rate of 2-1, and they will receive half of the amount they handed in, in Finance Stabilization Bonds. The remaining half shall be recorded by the Central Reserve Bank as cash deposits. The Central Reserve Bank may record part or the total sum of the old fapi forwarded by some financial organs as Wah Tou deposits.

The Central Reserve Bank shall pay annual interest of three percent for the Wah Tou deposits and may change them into cash deposits of the same value within three months.

With the promulgation of the regulations concerning the withdrawal of old fapi, the Old Fapi Disposal Committee was formerly established by the Central Reserve Bank of China and was ordered to assume its business immediately. The Committee was set up by the Central Reserve Bank by order of the National Government for the purpose of calling in old fapi. The Committee informed exchange shops and banks of the detailed regulations regarding the withdrawal of old fapi. Chien Ta-ku, Vice-Governor of the Central Reserve Bank, was announced as chairman of the committee which consists of the planning, revenue, according and general affairs departments.

The Shanghai branch of the Central Reserve Bank on May 30 called a conference of directors of the leading Chinese banks, during which the significance of the ordinance newly promulgated was explained.

Regulations issued by the Government on June 1 authorized the Finance Ministry to issue a maximum of C.R.B. \$1,500,000,000 worth of the Finance Stabilization Bonds provided for under the Governmental ordinance governing the withdrawal of the Chungking fapi from circulation. The bonds, carrying an interest of 5 percent, will mature in 3 years. They will have face value of \$100,000, \$50,000, \$10,000, \$5,000, and \$1,000, and will be known as the 1942 Finance Stabilization Bonds.

One of the important financial changes in 1942 was the decision of the Japanese authorities to liquidate the Central Bank of China and the Farmers Bank and the reorganization of the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications.

In a proclamation on May 27, the High Command of the Imperial Japanese Army and Navy in the Shanghai Area declared:

"Simultaneously with the dispatch of

Japanese forces into the International Settlement upon the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, Japanese military authorities seized four banks operated by the Chungking Regime, namely the Bank of China, the Central Bank of China, the Bank of Communications and the Farmers Bank of China, and appointed special auditors to conduct investigations of these banks. The reports made by these auditors have made clear the scope of business operations conducted by these institutions.

"It is hereby proclaimed that the four banks shall be disposed of in accordance with the principles specified here.

"1. In view of their hostile nature, the Central Bank of China and the Farmers Bank of China shall be closed, and prompt liquidation of the two banks shall be made according to the principles to be announced separately.

"2. In order to maintain stability in financial circles in China, lenient measures shall be granted to the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications. The two banks shall be permitted to resume business after completing necessary reorganization such as the severance of their relations with Chungking elements. Concrete steps for the reopening of these banks shall be decided upon through consultations with the National Government of China."

The financial situation as a whole was further stabilized by various measures introduced by the authorities. Aside from the withdrawal of old fapi notes in the Wuhan areas, the Central Reserve Bank notes were greatly strengthened by the loan of ¥100,000,000 concluded between Chow Fu-hai, Governor of the Central Reserve Bank and Toyotaro Yuki, Governor of the Bank of Japan in the latter part of July.

The most important measure taken by the authorities in August for financial stabilization was probably the promulgation of a set of new regulations governing the organization and function of monetary institutions in Central China including Shanghai. These measures were appropriate at this time as numerous new banks and financial establishments were organized in the months of June, July and August in Shanghai and many of them were engaged in speculative activities.

Explaining that these new regulations aim to protect the interest of the public and to strengthen the financial foundation of the nation, Chow Fu-hai, Min-

ister of Finance, stressed four points on August 21 in an interview with the press, following the promulgation of the new regulations. The four points include:

(1) In order to readjust the economic condition and stabilize finance it is necessary to prescribe proper regulations and strict rules. All monetary institutions shall conduct their business in accordance with the 19 articles provided in the new regulations which have been carefully formulated and evolved from the various rules promulgated by the government since March 1931.

(2) The regulations shall be enforced first in the provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei and the two municipalities of Shanghai and Nanking. All financial and monetary establishments shall conduct their business according to these newly promulgated regulations.

(3) According to Article 11 of the regulations, all existing monetary institutions shall be registered with the Ministry of Finance within one month after August 2, 1942—the date for the promulgation of the regulations.

(4) These regulations shall be enforced together with the existing Amended rules governing the Registration of Banks and the By-Laws for the enforcement of the Amended Rules.

The next important move on the part of the authorities to develop financial conditions in Central China was the re-opening of the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications. These two banks with a long history and high prestige were re-opened on September 1. The month of August proved a period of busy preparation on the part of the authorities in reorganizing these banks as they were semi-official monetary institutions with close affiliation with the Chungking Government.

Capitalized at C.R.B.\$20,000,000 and C.R.B.\$10,000,000 respectively and re-organized so that all trace of Chungking influence has vanished, the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications opened for business on September 1 as purely commercial institutions under the supervision of the Central Reserve Bank of China. All arrangements were made by the Sino-Japanese Joint Committee, which was appointed by Japanese military authorities, to undertake the re-organization of the two former Chungking banking houses. All necessary arrangements, including the complete severance of former connections with the Chungking regime, election of a new Board of Directors, and conversion of old shares at the rate of two old shares to one new share, have been completed.

Industries

Agriculture

Only 17 per cent of the entire area of China is now under cultivation. Those engaged in farming, however, account for more than three-fourths of the entire population of the country and four-fifths of the national incomes are composed of receipts from agricultural enterprises. The agricultural community is composed of big landlords, medium landlords, independent farmers, tenant farmers and farming laborers.

The tenant farmers accounted for 32 per cent of the entire agricultural community during 1933, increasing from 28 per cent in 1912, while the percentage of independent farmers during the same period decreased from 49 per cent to 45 per cent.

The principal agricultural products with the amounts of production are shown in the following table (the figures being given in units of 1,000 piculs):

	1931	1933	1935	1936
Rice	817,481	879,017	878,627	871,002
Wheat	432,360	450,562	426,052	461,555
Barley	153,552	143,295	158,112	162,748
Kaoliang	131,535	138,324	132,051	153,532
Millet	128,678	132,829	131,098	135,487
Maize	127,744	114,988	129,974	122,602
Rye	30,691	30,360	32,786	32,467
Sweet potatoes	316,537	358,041	369,459	341,797
Oats	—	15,888	17,444	18,036
Peas	—	58,118	66,901	69,096
Beans	—	55,410	63,442	62,253
Glutinous rice	41,140	86,736	83,161	87,286

	1931	1933	1935	1936
Soya beans	114,327	145,428	112,311	118,220
Rape-seeds	43,462	42,132	49,749	49,572
Ground-nuts	—	59,613	50,355	52,622
Sesame	—	19,266	15,640	17,300
Leaf tobacco	—	12,598	11,294	12,673
Raw cotton	14,570	16,595	14,586	20,639

According to a Chinese report the total area of arable land in China is 966 million acres. Of the total, 406 million acres lie in the part occupied by the Japanese forces, the remaining 560 million acres in the free portion of the country. The former embraces 136,969,000 farmers who have 78,623,000 head of animals, the latter 213,787,000 farmers with 14,679,000 head of animals. As compared with the crops in 1936, the latest figures for the crop of rice represent 81 per cent of the 1936 crop, wheat 45 per cent, barley 58 per cent, maize 20 per cent, soya beans 34 per cent, kaoliang 23 per cent, sweet potatoes 76 per cent, raw cotton 29 per cent, groundnuts 43 per cent, and leaf tobacco 69 per cent.

The total amount of crops in North China in 1940 is estimated at 2,668,000 metric tons, an increase of 450,000 metric tons or 25 per cent over the previous year, including wheat 563,000 metric tons (5 per cent increase), kaoliang 267,000 metric tons (18 per cent increase), maize 348,000 metric tons (53 per cent increase), Indian corn 196,000 metric tons (38 per cent increase), rice 42,000 metric tons (7 per cent increase) and raw cotton 39,000 metric tons (21 per cent increase). The figures, however, do not as yet recover those for a normal year.

The crops in Mongolian districts in the same year are estimated to have attained amounts more than normal, the estimated crop of wheat being 151 metric tons (53 per cent increase over the previous year), barley 347 metric tons (131 per cent increase), kaoliang 274 metric tons (116 per cent increase), maize 284 metric tons (71 per cent increase), millet 129 metric tons (121 per cent increase) and buckwheat 74 metric tons (101 per cent increase).

Mining

More than 1,000,000 tons of iron ore has been produced annually with Chinese capital, including about 380,000 tons at Tayeh, about 70,000 tons at Hsiangpishan, about 280,000 tons at Fangchang and about 200,000 tons at

Tangtu. The annual output of coal has amounted to some 20,000,000 tons, 39 per cent of which has been produced with the aid of foreign capital, the rest being accounted for by Chinese capital. The production of antimony in China is about 70 per cent of the world's total. China is also a leading producer of tungsten, accounting for 42 per cent of the world's total production.

On account of insufficient facilities the production of steel is small, and considerable supplies, therefore, have to be obtained from abroad.

More Supplies to Japan Many vital mineral deposits exist in the areas occupied by the Japanese troops and are being developed with the superior engineering technique furnished by Japan. The development of iron and coal resources is progressing smoothly despite the difficulties facing all such efforts. At the end of last year there were eight iron mines in the Yangtze valley, one along the Lunghai Railway, four along the Shihkiachwang-Taiyuanfu line and in Shansi Province, one in another part of North China and one on the island of Hainan, totalling 15 mining areas.

There are a dozen prospective mines in other parts of China which are expected shortly to be worked. The production of coal is concentrated in North China on the whole, and with peace and order established and machinery and equipment made more complete, the output is steadily increasing. At present there are being operated 14 anthracite mines, 20 caking coal mines, nine non-caking coal mines and other mines not yet worked. Tsingtao is the shipping center of North China and Shanghai of Central China. Both were hit severest by the China Affair, but thanks to the appropriate measures for restoration, their recovery has been rapid and Japanese mills are now operating, in some respects, at greater capacities.

There are about 20 vital materials which are produced in the territory under the rule of the National Government and are supplied to Japan, including coal, salt, iron ore, tungsten and

the like, the output of which has of late markedly increased in South China. Also conspicuous for their increase in supply to Japan are asbestos, black lead and mica. Also increasing are the supplies of sheepskin, cowhide, hemp, tung oil and lacquer.

Development Companies

North China Development Company
The total amount of the North China Development Co.'s loans and investments made in North China at the end of December 1939, following the year of its

establishment (November 1933) was some ¥226 million, and at the end of December 1940, the figure had increased by 2.44 times, at the end of March 1941 by 2.7 times, and at the end of March 1942, by 3.96 times, or about 4.0 times with some ¥896 million, of which 38% was on account of the North China Transportation Co., which would probably be in a position to pay a dividend from the current business year, according to President Tsushima of the North China Development Co.

Details follow:

(In millions of yen)

Date	Investments	Loans	Total	Index Number
Dec.-end 1939	—	20.9	—	—
" 1939	104.7	121.9	226.6	100
" 1940	239.4	313.2	552.6	244
" 1941	244.3	368.0	612.4	270
Mar.-end 1942	301.0	595.7	896.7	396

Central China Development Company
The total outstanding amounts of loans and investments made by the Central China Development Co. show a similarly

rapid growth to those of the North China Development Co., although smaller in amount than the latter. The following gives the details:

(In millions of yen)

Date	Investments	Loans	Total	Index Number
Dec.-end 1939	34.0	8.7	42.7	100
" 1940	51.5	47.1	98.7	219
" 1941	54.4	60.7	115.1	269
Mar.-end 1942	61.7	108.8	170.5	399

Business conditions of the Company in the first half year of 1941 was in general not as good as that of the second half of 1940, according to statistics released for publication by the different subsidiary companies. For instance, although the Shanghai Inland Water Navigation Company, the Central China Marine Products Company and the Central China Salt Company continued to pay dividends of 10 per cent the Central China Mining Company, the Central China Silk Company and the Hweinan Coal Mining Company found it only possible to pay 6 per cent, 8 per cent and 7 per cent respectively.

That the Central China Mining Com-

pany has to decrease its dividend by 2 per cent is due to the fact that large sums of money have been spent by the company in the development of new mines. The Central China Silk Company decreased its dividend for this period by 2 per cent because of the general poor silk business in the world market. The Hweinan Coal Mining Company decreased its dividend by 1 per cent because of poor operation conditions caused by natural calamities in the mines. The following table gives the amount of dividends paid by each of the thirteen subsidiary companies during the past few years:

Central China Mining Company
Central China Water Works & Electricity Co.
Shanghai Inland Water Navigation Co.
Central China Telecommunication Co.
Central China Silk Co.
Central China Bus Co.

1st Period	2nd Period	1st Period
1940	1940	1941
8%	8%	6%
—	5%	5%
10%	10%	10%
6%	6%	6%
10%	10%	8%
6%	6%	6%

Shanghai Real Estate Co.
Central China Marine Products Co.
Greater Shanghai Gas Co.
Hweinan Coal Mining Co.
Central China Salt Co.
Chung Hwa Shipping Co.
Central China Railway Co.

1st Period	2nd Period	1st Period
1940	1940	1941
6%	6%	6%
10%	10%	10%
—	6%	6%
6%	8%	7%
8%	10%	10%
—	—	—
5	—	—

Foreign Trade of China

With 1931 as the peak, the volume of China's foreign trade steadily tended downward and hit the bottom in 1935. However, it started to regain ground since 1936, and has kept on increasing ever since with the exception of 1938 when a marginal drop was recorded. Specially, the advance in the recent two years, 1939 and 1940, was unprecedented. As table 1 shows, foreign trade of China in 1940 totalled 2,027,000,000 yuan in imports and 1,970,000,000 yuan in exports with the resultant import excess at 57,000,000 yuan. Those figures were an increase of 694,000,000 yuan or 51.8 per cent in exports and 943,000,000 yuan or 91.7 per cent in imports and a drop of 249,000,000 yuan or 81.3 per cent in import excess as compared with the corresponding figures for 1939. The combined total of exports and imports in 1940 was about three times as much as in bad years. Thus, apparently China's trade in 1940 was noted in a very favorable tone. However, this was just a superficial phenomenon. In substance, the trade in 1940 was little different from 1939, the situation having been attributable to the fall of the currency value due to the decline of credit in the yuan, China's national currency. This fact can be seen from the following table showing trade figures in sterling:

CHINA'S TRADE IN 1939 AND 1940

(In million pounds sterling)

Year	Imports	Exports
1939	80.7	24.4
1940	90.9	32.0
Increase rate	12.4%	31.2%

Thus, it can be found that the increasing rate of the trade as expressed in pounds sterling was not so remarkable as in yuan. China's trade depends largely upon Japan and the United States. In China's imports, these two countries account for more than one-half of the total amount. Other principal sources of imports of China are Hongkong, British India, French Indo-China and the Netherlands East Indies. Im-

ports from these six sources amount to about 74 per cent of the total imports of China. In exports of China, the United States dominates with 28.6 per cent of the total export volume. Hongkong follows with 18.6 per cent and Britain with 9.96 per cent. The situation is that those countries enjoy special rights and interests in China, acquired in olden times, and have a monopolistic hold on the domestic products of China. It is for that reason that China's exports to Japan remain extremely small as compared with its imports from Japan. Because of the extension of coastal blockade operations by the Japanese Navy to Central China, however, the foreign trade of Shanghai, which accounts for 70 per cent of the total exports and 30 per cent of the total imports of China, has been severely hit, resulting in a heavy blow to the trade of China in general. Tientsin ranks next in importance to Shanghai as a trade port of China through which the major part of the transactions with Japan are conducted. Swatow, although excelled by Shanghai and Tientsin, was one of the principal trade bases of China, its exports and imports averaging 35,000,000 yuan each annually. Under Japanese blockade operations, however, trade transactions through Swatow last year dropped to about one-hundredth as much as in ordinary years.

Cereals and flour were the most important items in China's imports in 1940, those articles accounting for 358,000,000 yuan or 17.7 per cent of total imports. Cotton yarns and other cotton manufactures followed last year with 320,000,000 yuan or 15.8 per cent of the total imports while oils and fats and wax manufactures came third with 152,000,000 yuan or 7.5 per cent. In exports, cotton goods and fibers amounting to 341,000,000 yuan (17.3 per cent of the total exports) and animals and animal products amounting to 322,000,000 (15.8 per cent) lead all export items in 1940. Other major export items are textiles, ores and minerals, metal goods, tea, vegetable waxes, etc.

FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA
(000 omitted)

		Merchandise				Excess of Imports
		Imports		Exports		Imports
Year & Month		Gold Units	Standard Dollars	Gold Units	Standard Dollars	Standard Dollars
1938		389,499	895,211	331,707	763,732	105,687
1939		542,595	1,343,018	408,958	1,027,247	315,771
1940		748,852	2,027,143	..	1,970,121	57,022
1940	October	58,862	159,340	..	179,797	— 20,457
	November	53,928	145,983	..	157,290	— 11,307
	December	64,410	174,358	..	190,038	— 15,680
1941	January	79,938	216,392	..	232,416	— 16,024
	February	72,990	197,584	..	171,862	25,722
	March	67,457	182,606	..	208,130	— 25,524
	April	87,883	237,898	..	257,532	— 19,634
	May	78,548	212,630	..	248,465	— 35,835
	June	84,711	229,312	..	347,471	— 118,159
	July	92,508	250,419	..	269,246	— 18,827
	August	71,770	194,282	..	283,366	— 89,084
	September	60,915	164,897	..	268,844	— 103,947
	October	102,599	277,736	..	290,112	— 12,376

(Source: Statistical Department Inspectorate General of Customs, Shanghai
"—" Indicates Excess of Exports)

MERCHANDISE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF CHINA, BY COUNTRIES
(In gold units: 000 omitted)

Countries	1941	1940	1941	1940
	January-October	January-October	January-October	January-October
	Imports		Exports	
Algeria	5	13	33	981
Argentina	814	1,113	556	250
Australia	38,931	19,421	3,818	4,672
Belgium	703	5,146	..	275
Brazil	20,558	13,208	349	142
British East Africa	121	1,829	223	57
British India	59,909	56,572	38,449	27,064
British North Borneo	185	220	49	18
British West Africa	54	16	3	152
Burma	37,555	3,927	12,510	5,922
Canada	13,788	3,782	5,035	7,060
Central America: Republics of	34	67	1,336	1,033
Central America: U.S. Territories	..	..	1,007	747
Ceylon	168	158	594	748
Czechoslovakia	19	127	..	6
Denmark	1	57	..	965
Egypt (incl. Anglo-Egypt, Sudan)	1,275	3,060	8,013	1,096
Finland	21	389	..	..
France	1,047	2,716	3	11,754
French Indo-China	53,956	44,379	33,243	15,874
Germany	16,590	17,606	7,377	1,292
Great Britain	16,254	25,893	33,340	57,471
Hongkong	125,112	36,352	228,827	115,750
Hungary	12	65	..	..
Italy	295	2,385	44	2,451
Luxemburg	..	29	..	..
Macao	3,296	3,254	17,124	6,600
Morocco	..	2	176	5,056
Netherlands	156	1,262	..	979

FOREIGN TRADE

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Countries	1941	1940	1941	1940
	January-October	Imports	January-October	Exports
Netherlands Indies	47,471	32,484	53,861	14,062
New Zealand	33	44	492	385
Norway	590	761	..	184
Philippine Islands	3,482	7,863	25,033	9,140
Poland	50	424	..	..
South Africa, Union of, and Rhodesia	290	402	5,929	3,299
Straits Settlements and F.M.S.	6,181	7,098	33,797	19,070
Sweden	484	890	..	117
Switzerland	3,869	2,047	78	1,448
Thailand	20,694	15,261	26,233	12,732
Tunis	..	..	..	282
U.S. of America	157,346	138,393	209,154	174,428
U.S. Pacific Territory & Possessions	7	..	649	518
U.S.S.R. (Russia), Asiatic Routes	215	32	831	..
Kwangchowwan Leased Territory	628	539	15,081	13,440
Total including others	806,125	635,250	955,600	601,338

(Source: Statistical Department, Inspectorate General of Customs, Shanghai)

VESSELS ENTERED INTO AND CLEARED FROM CHINESE PORTS BY FLAGS

(In tons)

Flags	August, 1941			September, 1941		
	Entered	Cleared	Total	Entered	Cleared	Total
American	54,978	63,147	118,125	75,295	64,286	139,581
British	66,167	58,601	124,768	65,171	55,943	121,114
Chinese	23,168	28,122	51,290	23,933	27,002	50,935
Chinese Junks	23,179	27,252	55,431	16,167	17,525	33,692
Finnish	..	2,941	2,941	2,941	..	2,941
French	29,118	18,162	47,280	17,028	26,324	43,352
German	..	..	..	..	..	..
Italian	..	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	14,195	10,514	24,709	12,830	13,809	26,639
Norwegian	3,605	3,605	7,210	2,160	2,160	4,320
Panamanian	14,602	19,108	33,710	20,224	15,009	35,233
Portuguese	4,754	2,410	7,164	2,410	4,754	7,164
Swedish	..	..	..	2,853	..	2,853
Thai (Siamese)	2,008	4,004	6,012	2,008	2,008	4,016
Total (incl. Others)	720,599	742,725	1,463,324	745,095	716,874	1,461,969

	October, 1941			January-October	
	Entered	Cleared	Total	1941	1940
American	36,025	38,893	74,918	1,121,658	1,183,974
British	56,703	58,773	115,476	1,594,408	3,771,696
Chinese	39,810	39,647	79,457	600,771	557,155
Chinese Junks	38,500	38,966	77,466	701,655	969,267
Finnish	2,941	2,941	5,882	16,852	..
French	34,587	37,595	72,182	450,980	399,929
German	..	..	..	..	..
Italian	..	..	..	..	198,951
Netherlands	18,352	23,153	41,505	585,759	846,162
Norwegian	..	..	..	163,115	1,096,950
Panamanian	24,095	27,289	51,384	390,259	267,002
Portuguese	5,236	5,236	10,472	102,998	54,565
Swedish	..	2,853	2,853	51,572	94,994
Thai (Siamese)	1,996	1,996	3,992	36,736	..
Total (incl. Others)	683,064	695,791	1,378,855	16,953,824	21,335,278

(Source: Statistical Department, the Inspectorate-General of Customs, Shanghai.
August figures for Kowloon not received.)

Custom Revenue A statement of the Chinese Maritime Customs Revenue collection for the year 1941 was issued on December 31, 1941 by Mr. H. Kishimoto, Inspector-General of Customs. It may be noted that out of the total collection of approximately \$541,670,000, no less than \$341,410,000 was contributed by Shanghai, the next largest contribution, that of Tientsin, amounting to only \$72,890,000. The statement, as issued by Mr. Kishimoto, follows:

The Customs Revenue for 1941, composed of Import and Export Duties, Tonnage Dues, Flood Relief Surtax and Revenue Surtax, amounted to \$541,670,-

000, approximately, excluding revenue collected in the month of December at the ports listed hereunder particulars of which are not available: Chungking, Wuchow, Wanhhsien, Nanning, Ichang, Pakhoi, Changsha, Luichow, Wenchow, Lungchow, Santuao, Mengtsz, Foochow, Szemao, Kowloon, Tengyueh, Lappa.

The figure of \$541,670,000 represents an increase of \$65,930,000 as compared with \$475,740,000 for 1940.

The contributions under each heading towards this total, as well as the corresponding figures for 1940, are shown below:

	1941	1940
Import Duty	C.G.U. 86,500,000 (=\$ 363,990,000)	C.G.U. 98,190,000 (=\$ 343,600,000)
Export Duty	\$ 32,370,000	\$ 27,550,000
Interport Duty	\$ 103,030,000	\$ 63,810,000
Tonnage Dues	\$ 2,000,000	\$ 3,106,000
Flood Relief Surtax:		
On Import Duty	C.G.U. 4,330,000 (=\$ 18,260,000)	C.G.U. 4,910,000 (=\$ 17,170,000)
On Export Duty	\$ 1,880,000	\$ 1,670,000
Revenue Surtax:		
On Import Duty	C.G.U. 4,330,000 (=\$ 18,260,000)	C.G.U. 4,910,000 (=\$ 17,170,000)
On Export Duty	\$ 1,800,000	\$ 1,670,000

The total Import Duty collection of C.G.U. 86,500,000 was collected in local currency according to exchange rates ruling locally on the date of payment of duty.

The collections made at the principal

revenue-producing ports during the year 1941, and the respective increases/decreases when compared with the collections for 1940, are given hereunder in order of collection:

Port	Collection 1941	Increase (Against 1940)	Decrease
	\$	\$	\$
Shanghai	341,410,000	68,270,000	
Tientsin (incl. Peiping Office)	72,890,000		19,370,000
Tsingtao	26,410,000		9,530,000
Canton	20,820,000	14,120,000	
Chungking	15,750,000*	8,840,000	
Luichow	14,700,000*	6,870,000	
Changsha	11,690,000*	5,090,000	
Tengyueh	5,990,000*	4,170,000	
Chinwangtao	5,940,000		1,470,000
Amoy	3,570,000	870,000	
Wuchow	3,470,000*	1,500,000	
Mengtsz	3,190,000*		1,430,000

Note: (*) Not including collections for December 1941.

Rise in Prices in North and Central China

Prices of commodities are steadily rising in North and Central China, not to speak of still greater rise in Chungking. Prices of daily necessities have

become over 6 to 20 times as high as 1936, the greatest rise being witnessed in the case of metals as shown in the following tables (in indices):

WHOLESALE PRICES

Tientsin (1926=100)

Year & Month	Cereals	Clothing & Materials	Metals	Building Materials	Fuel	Others	Average
1938 Average	156.4	135.0	241.1	176.5	191.2	165.3	168.2
1939 "	224.7	218.4	418.6	255.5	252.6	228.3	250.8
1940 "	423.3	443.9	774.6	373.3	323.4	396.2	441.5
1941 June	451.1	485.1	850.0	427.0	332.3	382.6	476.2
July	439.1	519.3	870.7	426.1	332.0	391.7	478.7
August	463.3	532.6	896.3	431.5	352.7	411.6	498.3
September	472.4	534.7	912.4	439.2	377.1	416.7	509.5
October	486.5	548.2	926.1	444.7	388.7	429.9	522.3
November	526.6	565.7	931.7	475.7	416.9	483.8	554.5
December	549.1	566.6	942.3	500.3	430.8	544.0	573.6
1942 January	586.8	584.4	946.3	505.2	466.8	577.3	600.5
February	623.3	590.6	947.4	511.0	501.0	623.2	624.8
March	636.5	590.3	948.0	581.4	520.1	654.3	635.3
April	646.0	596.2	947.6	528.7	539.1	642.7	643.7
May	659.1	605.9	949.3	530.3	526.8	626.8	648.7
June	668.8	605.5	953.2	535.2	519.9	650.6	653.7

Peking (Monthly Average, 1936=100)

Year & Month	Cereals	Other Food & Table Delicacy	Clothing & Materials	Metals	Fuel	Building Materials	Others	Average
1940 Average	416.7	337.2	441.4	643.1	250.9	345.0	403.1	395.3
1941 "	552.3	414.1	535.9	762.9	276.3	363.7	408.5	451.1
1941 May	437.6	386.0	492.3	673.4	261.6	372.2	403.9	427.2
June	445.0	397.4	501.0	771.7	261.0	372.5	397.7	438.5
July	439.3	396.8	535.3	806.1	261.0	372.5	398.4	444.8
August	453.8	399.3	549.8	820.7	285.1	352.1	404.5	454.2
September	463.4	407.2	536.4	835.8	288.3	352.7	409.0	457.9
October	467.5	433.7	553.1	861.7	295.4	357.5	420.0	470.4
November	498.0	468.0	591.3	907.4	298.0	371.3	433.4	498.7
December	533.3	480.6	603.4	944.6	367.3	388.6	433.4	518.4
1942 January	555.7	498.4	625.1	945.0	306.7	392.5	438.5	533.6
February	570.9	536.3	647.9	950.7	306.7	393.7	447.0	550.7
March	586.3	531.5	667.7	1,013.1	306.7	418.1	459.5	565.1
April	613.3	532.7	502.9	1,089.1	311.2	449.9	490.2	590.2
May	659.9	534.3	728.3	1,433.5	320.2	453.1	494.7	631.2
June	676.6	531.6	719.3	1,628.2	320.2	454.7	494.7	645.7

Calgan (Last decade of August, 1938=100)

Year & Month	Food	Seasoning & Table-Delicacy	Textile Fabrics	Animal Hair & Hide	Fuel & Lighting	Building Materials	Other	Average
1939 Average	115.6	124.8	143.4	101.7	113.4	141.4	119.1	123.8
1940 "	128.9	183.6	277.5	113.8	158.2	251.5	181.9	187.4
1941 "	447.6	274.6	601.2	171.2	234.9	303.5	245.9	328.5
1941 February	164.2	225.2	372.2	203.2	186.2	281.2	214.5	237.7
March	164.2	226.2	404.7	203.2	194.3	291.9	218.6	245.5
April	164.2	219.7	404.3	203.2	194.3	203.1	218.6	243.9
May	164.2	222.7	404.3	203.2	194.3	293.7	218.6	244.8
June	164.2	225.2	405.7	203.2	197.5	295.8	217.8	246.2
July	164.2	237.2	412.6	203.2	195.7	295.2	221.6	250.5
August	176.0	242.7	479.8	203.2	197.5	294.9	225.8	263.6
September	199.4	251.7	555.4	203.2	209.1	295.1	235.0	282.3
October	427.2	260.0	542.0	192.6	214.3	294.3	244.4	312.5

Year & Month	Food	Seasoning & Table-Delicacy	Textile Fabrics	Animal Hair & Hide	Fuel & Lighting	Building Materials	Other	Average
November	395.1	267.5	552.6	171.2	216.0	294.3	244.4	309.0
December	447.6	274.6	601.2	171.2	234.9	303.5	245.9	328.5
1942 January	492.5	285.4	621.8	177.5	237.1	303.8	251.1	341.7
February	456.1	287.5	643.8	177.5	244.8	305.9	259.8	354.6
March	562.6	290.1	641.0	178.9	254.8	305.9	263.6	358.7
April	589.6	328.3	664.6	175.8	263.6	305.9	294.1	378.6

Shanghai (1936=100)

Year & Month	Cereals	Other Food	Clothing & Materials	Metals
1939 Average	194.08	206.35	213.70	353.55
1940 "	527.57	375.64	426.65	709.54
1941 "	595.88	741.89	730.39	2,263.57
1941 June	897.47	663.66	640.38	2,127.77
July	985.78	680.25	693.84	2,329.72
August	914.49	767.14	755.76	2,648.95
September	979.93	856.50	868.72	3,000.07
October	1,063.37	986.54	960.05	3,132.79
November	1,346.40	1,204.30	1,244.25	4,451.28
December	1,394.08	1,254.50	1,173.70	4,697.21
1942 January	1,397.15	1,321.72	1,106.63	4,742.31
February	1,668.32	1,477.89	1,167.41	4,756.67
March	2,267.76	1,607.00	1,520.76	4,895.78
April	2,156.20	1,597.13	1,625.60	3,935.40
May	2,558.01	1,907.01	2,031.52	5,164.75
June	2,775.98	1,944.32	2,107.33	6,103.05

Year & Month	Fuel	Building Materials	Chemical Materials	Others	Average
1930 Average	294.81	231.48	239.24	213.05	226.18
1940 "	713.78	482.28	481.62	452.67	475.86
1941 "	1,346.27	1,156.70	1,092.95	947.37	958.16
1941 June	1,218.12	1,108.17	762.68	901.80	860.06
July	1,261.31	1,083.39	891.60	926.65	903.58
August	1,417.94	1,146.19	1,319.45	983.34	1,008.09
September	1,622.14	1,345.17	1,685.63	1,055.19	1,129.64
October	1,776.47	1,494.80	1,941.71	1,182.08	1,254.45
November	2,349.64	2,312.17	2,970.55	1,561.50	1,659.65
December	2,144.49	2,289.70	3,028.96	1,554.42	1,650.22
1942 January	2,150.28	2,168.23	3,004.30	1,528.65	1,630.81
February	2,069.17	2,095.53	3,146.65	1,563.80	1,730.17
March	3,108.93	2,221.45	3,505.95	1,904.84	2,033.05
April	1,809.42	1,960.85	3,216.89	2,037.00	1,978.65
May	1,715.67	2,623.63	4,244.12	2,303.06	2,384.89
June	1,840.36	3,111.20	4,931.33	2,534.62	2,575.06

Conditions in North China

Governmental Activities When a nation is in the process of a radical and gigantic reconstruction such as we are witnessing today governmental activities naturally play an important part in shaping its life. In North China such activities come under the direction of the Political Council of North China, a special organ which, since the establish-

ment of the new National Government at Nanking in March 1940, has taken the place of the Provisional Government at Peking.

A glance at the past history of this part of China will be sufficient to explain the reason why it should be accorded the special status of an autonomous area under the new Council. Under the old

Nationalist Government, even after the centralization of all governmental powers by Chiang Kai-shek, this area had remained outside the direct control of the Nanking Government, enjoying an autonomous rule as in the case of the Hopei-Chahar Political Council, not to mention the East Hopei Autonomous Regime. Since this area has been most intimately related with Japan politically and economically, it has always been imperative for the Government to shape its policies with this peculiarity in view.

The Council's good-neighbor policy bore an important fruit in November last year, when the North China-Mengchiang Economic Agreement was concluded, thereby enabling North China to import her much needed cereals. The settlement of the silver and Federal Bank note issues in connection with the British Concession in Tientsin have also greatly facilitated the financial and economic activities of the Council.

The Council's main efforts, however, are directed at the establishment of peace and order and the stabilization of living conditions of the people. Such measures as the restoration of the Hsien system, the improvement of the police administration, the perfection of the judicial system and the cleaning up of bandits and remnants of the Chungking and Communist troops have been successfully carried out. The importation of wheat from Mengchiang under the Economic Agreement with the Government of Inner Mongolia (established in 1937), together with the adoption of effective measures for unemployment relief both in urban and rural districts have also contributed greatly toward safeguarding the life of the people. The reopening of higher educational institutions, including the University of Peking, which has been reorganized with five colleges—Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Literature and Science—amalgamating four universities of Peking, Peiping, Chinghua and Chiao Tung, is further evidence of progress along these lines. Prof. Chou Tso-jen, a noted man of letters in China, has taken the place of T'ang Erh-ho as Director of the Board of Education.

Development of Mineral Resources
That North China has an almost inexhaustible wealth of coal and iron deposits, the most essential minerals for heavy industry, is widely known. The North China Development Company, which has been established with the

special purpose of developing those resources, has embarked on energetic and efficient activities.

Communications, transportation and labor are all essential to the successful exploitation of natural resources; lacking in these facilities they cannot be turned to good account. In this point the resources in Hopei and Shantung are the most ideally situated while those in Shansi have yet to await the future development of transportation facilities. The importance of the coal deposits in Shansi Province for the future of East Asia remains undisputed. According to investigations conducted by experts of various countries, they amount to more than 100,000,000,000 metric tons, their quality being anthracite and bituminous. This colossal potential wealth of coal, together with some 3,000,000 metric tons of iron deposits available in nearby districts, constitutes a significant advantage to the iron industry, particularly in the refining of pig-iron into steel. The Taiyuan and Yangchuan Iron Works in Shansi and the Shihkingshan Iron Works near Peking all enjoy similar favorable conditions. The coal mines in Shantung and Honan Provinces are fortunate in commanding good transportation and other facilities. The Shantung Mining Company, Kailan Coal Mine and the newly established Tsingsing Coal Mine have been able to meet the immediate needs of the Chinese industry. These mines also produce caking coal which is indispensable for the production of iron. The importance of the Tsingsing Mine in supplying not only coke to iron works in the neighboring districts but also fuel coal to cities in North China and even to Japan can be appreciated by studying the map. It is situated on the railway line connecting Taiyuan with Shihkiachwang, which is a junction between that line and the Peking-Hankow Railway. Furthermore, the newly opened Shihkiachwang-Tehchow line has greatly increased the importance of that junction between that mine and Tsingtao. Other coal mines of importance to Japan are the Chunghsing Mine in Yih sien, northeast of Hsuehchou, situated on a branch line connecting the Tientsin-Pukow and Lung-Hai Railways, and the mines of the Shantung Mining Company to be found along the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway. With transportation facilities available, they were soon reconstructed after the cessation of hostilities and by 1940 their plants had reached full working capacity.

Manufacturing Industry In the present phase of industrial development the electrical industry is of fundamental importance. In North China this basic industry is in the hands of the North China Electric Company in Peking, the Kiaoo Electric Company in Tsingtao, the Tsinlu Electric Company in Tsinan and the Chefoo Electric Company in Chefoo, all of which are subsidiary concerns of the North China Development Company. Of these enterprises the most important is the first named concern, which is capitalized at 100 million yen. This enterprise, started in February 1940, includes, in addition to the generation and supply of electricity to the Peking, Tientsin and East Hopeh districts, a large-scale generation, transmission and supply of electric power for industrial purposes. The electric-light enterprises in Shansi, Hopei and Honan Provinces, which were formerly managed by the Hsingchung Company, have also come under its control. For the purpose of increasing and strengthening power, generating plants are to be constructed in Kwei-teh, Yucheng and Yangchuan during 1941-42. With a view to economizing equipment and materials and to rationalize enterprise, connections for transmission have been readjusted and perfected, and the unification of voltage and frequency carried out throughout North China. The most important step toward the radical improvement of electrical undertaking in this part of China has been the plan for hydraulic generation utilizing the water power of the Lwan River, a basic investigation of which is now under way. Thus the weakness of North China in this field of industry, where thermal generation plants predominate, will be overcome by the introduction of a powerful hydraulic generating system.

With regard to the iron industry mention has already been made of the deposits of iron ores. The Talyuan Iron Works, which were originally established by Yen Hsi-shan, have been enlarged to substantially increase its output and in the near future will handle the refining of pig iron into steel. Plans are also under way for the expansion of the other two iron works, the Shihkingshan and Yangchuan Works.

Another major industry of North China is the production of salt. For the purpose of supplying Japan, Manchukuo and China with salt for food and industrial purposes, the demand for

which has greatly increased owing to the European War having brought a stoppage of importation of pelagic salt, a plan for increased production in this region has been successfully carried out.

The two noted districts in North China for the production of salt are the Changlu salt fields along Pohai Bay, and the Shangtung salt fields, bordering the Yellow Sea, with Kiaochow Bay as their center. The former are now in course of development by the North China Salt Works, while those at Shangtung are managed by the Shangtung Salt Works.

The North China Salt Works, aiming at an economic regeneration for the local Chinese, has first of all set about rehabilitating the salt fields of Hanku, Simbo, Tanku and Tenku totalling approximately 38 square miles, at the same time carrying out a plan for developing new fields in Taku (19 square miles) and Tatsingho (23 square miles).

The fields under the management, directly and indirectly, of the Shangtung Salt Works are those owned by Chinese and the Yungyu field, which together total some 19 square miles.

Agriculture The task of rehabilitating the agricultural population in North China, who have suffered from severe droughts and unprecedented floods following fast on the heels of war, was by no means an easy one, but by energetic endeavors on the part of both the Chinese and Japanese authorities, the difficulties have been overcome, and the farmers are able to anticipate rich harvests from the vast plain of North China. It may be an exaggeration to say that every necessary measure has been taken for an economic improvement of the Chinese farm population, whose living standard based upon primitive methods of agriculture has been extremely low. Nevertheless, it can safely be said that a comprehensive plan for an increased production of wheat, cotton and wool on the basis of exhaustive investigations has been satisfactorily worked out.

In North China the staple foodstuffs are wheat for the upper classes in cities and towns along the railways and millet, kaoliang and maize for the farm population and the lower classes generally. North China is essentially an agricultural region, and it seems strange that there should be any shortage of foodstuffs. The reason is that technical inefficiency coupled with natural calamities and wars

have greatly lowered the productivity of the soil. The shortage of foodstuffs had accordingly to be met by importation from Australia, Canada, Japan and Central China. New plans aiming at self-sufficiency have been formulated and in addition steps have been taken for an increased production of rice for the benefit of the Japanese population.

With regard to cotton, North China was producing 5,000,000 piculs in the pre-China Affair years, but owing to the quality it was not being imported to Japan in any appreciable quantity. Now that her economic position, particularly trade relations, have undergone a drastic change, it is necessary for Japan to obtain supplies of cotton from North China. This new state of affairs has called for a plan to bring the cotton output up to 10,000,000 piculs, as well as to cultivate improved strains.

The major agencies promoting increased production are the North China Agricultural Experimental Station, the North China Cotton Improvement Association and cooperative societies. These agencies employ more or less the same methods as do similar institutions in other countries. The cooperative societies are mostly promoted by the Hsin-min-hui and have as supervisory organs the Hsien Federations and the Central Federation for North China. Not only do they function as pure socio-economic institutions but also as organizations for the guidance of productive technique. The Cotton Improvement Association also has the cooperative societies under its auspices.

The movement for the protection of railway promoted by the North China Transportation Company is contributing considerably toward increased production in cooperation with the Cotton Improvement Association. It was this movement that was responsible for the drilling of some 3,000 wells last year and is now planning to drill 16,000 this year, for the irrigation of cotton as well as wheat, millet, maize and other crops. Land planning and conservancy work are other essential factors in the promotion of the agricultural industry in North China. For the former purpose the North China Reclamation Company was established. Methods of land conservancy, having far-reaching effects upon the economic and industrial life of the community, calls for superior technique, and an enormous amount of labor, expense and time. The plans, however,

have been partially carried out with success.

Mention must be also made of the activities of the North China Wool Improvement Association, which came into being November 1940 with the object of improving the quality of wool and increasing the output. The Hsishan stock farm near Wanshushan in Peking was established to specialize in the rearing of sheep and goats with supervisory stations in Shantung and East Hopei, all of which work for East Asia's self-sufficiency in wool.

Communications The necessity for communications and transportation facilities in modern industry has already been pointed out in connection with the wealth of mineral resources. In April 1939 the North China Communications Company was established in Peking for the purpose of operating all the existing communication enterprises, excluding air transportation, in North China and Mengchlang. This semi-official corporation is capitalized at 300 million yen, in which Japanese and Chinese interests have invested 270 million yen and 30 million yen respectively.

North China has long been known as the region whose topography is best expressed by the term "peima" (found in the expression "nunchuan-peima"—boats, in the south, horses in the north), and coupled with the fact that this region had long been the political center of all China, the development of railways is more advanced here than in any other part of China. Prior to the outbreak of the recent hostilities, the total length of lines operated reached to approximately 5,200 kilometers, representing about half the total for all China. Following the cessation of hostilities, these lines were immediately re-opened for traffic, and in addition the following new lines have since been constructed:

	Kilometers.
Kupeikuo and Tungchow	131
Sinslang and Kalfeng	81
Pingwang and Taniutien	209
Paotow and Shihkualtzu	34
Mentowkow and Tatal	31
Tungkwan and Luan	178
Matow and Sitsot	21
Shihmen and Tehhsien	165
Total	857

These are mostly branch lines, with the exception of the Shihmen-Tehhsien line, completed in November 1940, which

connects the two trunk lines of Peking-Hankow and Tientsin-Pukow. This semi-trunk line, traversing the center of the great plain of Hopeh from east to west, is expected to contribute considerably toward ensuring peace and order while at the same time supplying transportation facilities for the Tsingsing, Cheng-feng, and Tzehsien Coal Mines. In addition to these lines, those still in course of construction or preparation reach a total length of over 400 kilometers. In construction work priority is given to the colliery lines such as the important Tatum-Tanku line.

Railway lines operated in North China as on October 30, 1940, are as follows:

	Kilometers
Peking-Shanhaikwan	436
Peking-Kupeikou	153
Peking-Hankow	853
Yuklafen-Tsinghwa	95
Tientsin-Pukow	971
Tsingtao-Tsinanfu	453
Peking-Paotow	918
Shihmen-Yutze	236
Tatum-Puchow	1,138
Haichow-Lanchow	503
Shihmen-Tehhsien	165
Total	5,921

With the completion of rails and the supply of rolling stock, these lines are all now running satisfactorily and most of them have regained their former transportation capacity.

Highway and river transportation facilities have also been planned and constructed by way of supplementing the railways. A five-year plan for the construction of highways now in operation covers 56 major lines with a total length of 11,600 kilometers, and the North China Communications Company is planning to operate some 10,700 kilometers along these new routes as motor-roads.

With regard to inland navigation, the prospects are not too promising in view of topographical conditions in North China. There are certain rivers and canals, however, such as the Hsiao Ch'ing-ho, Nan-yunho, Tsuyaho and Chi-yunho that offer possibilities, so that the North China Communications Company is able to maintain a navigation service covering 584 kilometers. Including chartered boats the total length of the company's inland navigation lines reaches approximately 3,584 kilometers. Plans for excavating canals are under consideration.

Port and Harbors. Natural harbor facilities in North China are by no means all that could be desired; in view of the growing volume of goods being exported to Japan from this region, improvements are urgently necessary. It is true that in North China there are ports and harbors such as Chinwangtao, Tientsin, Tangku, Weihaiwei, Chefoo, Lungkow and Tsingtao. To determine which of these should be made the principal port was no easy matter, but after careful study of economic and geographical considerations decision was made in favor of Tangku, which, have the largest hinterland, will be enlarged and improved to become the key of North China.

The construction of a new harbor of Tangku, which aims at ultimately accommodating a goods traffic of 27,000,000 tons by the end of 1947, will be shortly commenced, and as a first step, it is planned that facilities for handling 7,500,000 tons will be completed by the end of 1943. This plan, which forms the nucleus, so to speak, not only of North China harbor scheme but also of the communications and transportation program as a whole, will eliminate the present disadvantages of having to sterdore some 23 kilometers off Tangku, and at the same time will remove the menace of floods from the Peiho river. The harbors of Tientsin and Tsingtao are by no means overlooked in the improvement scheme and Ylenyun harbor, which was destroyed by Chinese troops, has already undergone temporary repairs and is now being used in the shipment of Chunghsing coal.

Airways. Before the China Affair arose, airways in this part of China were practically monopolized by German and American interests, the Japanese-controlled Hultung-Kungssu having been on a very small scale. After the outbreak of hostilities, a unification of all the existing air services was decided upon and as early as December 1938, the China Airways Company, a corporation jointly invested in by Japan and China, came into being.

This corporation, into which the Hultung-Kungssu had been merged, started off with a capital of 6 million yen, and in September 1939, was enlarged into a corporation capitalized at 5 million yen, thereby making possible consolidation and extension of its activities inland. Air lines operated by the corporation in North China comprise routes: Peking-Dairen, Peking-Shanghai.

Peking-Pootow, Tsingtao-Taiyuan, Tsingtao-Kaifeng and Peking-Kaifeng, all of which maintain a daily service with the exception of the Peking-Kaifeng line which is thrice-monthly. The routes covered by the China Airways Company being confined to inland services, the lines connecting Japan and China are operated by the Dai-Nippon Airways Company, with the Tokyo-Peking and Keijo-Peking lines, which maintain a daily service.

Postal Service. As may be expected, the postal service in North China was considerably disrupted during hostilities; but with the cooperation of the Japanese authorities, conditions soon returned to normal and in August 1938, the Directorate-General of Posts was established by the Provisional Government for the purpose of placing the service under its unified guidance and direction. This agency was later included in the jurisdiction of the North China Political Council and has been able to serve a fairly wide section of the population, although owing to technical difficulties it has not yet altogether severed connections with the Directorate-General established by the old Nationalist Government at Kunming.

Telecommunications. Among public enterprises the telecommunication system was one of the earliest to be restored. On January 1, 1938 the Directorate-General of Telecommunications was created as the supervisory agency and the actual operation of the service is being efficiently carried out by the North China Telegraph and Telephone Company, which was established in July 1938, by joint investments of Japanese and Chinese interests with a capital of 35 million yen.

Broadcasting. Under wartime conditions it is no wonder that this most important means of disseminating news should be under the supervision of the Japanese military authorities. On July 1, 1940, the North China Broadcasting Association was established by joint contributions from Japan and China. The association, which maintains stations at Peking, Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtao, Shihkiachwang, Taiyuan, Tangshan and Hsueh, broadcasts both in Japanese and Chinese, and aims at establishing a broadcasting sphere throughout Japan, China and Manchoukuo.

Foreign Trade The first step in promoting the trade of North China was the

issuance, in March 1938, of the Federal Reserve Bank notes linked with the yen at par, since then the growing strength of the Federal Bank notes and the promotion of the yen-bloc trade are most intimately related. Three months later, in October, the systems of a foreign exchange fund and the linking of exports with imports were carried out, and the function of the F.R.B. notes as foreign-trade currency was considerably strengthened. In March 1939 the system of concentrating foreign exchange in the Federal Reserve Bank was effected in respect of 12 major items of export, which measure was extended in July of the same year to include all export articles. Further, in June 1940, the permission system for non-exchange imports was put in force. All this contributed to the establishment of a new economic structure in North China.

In reviewing the recent trends of the trade of North China, particularly since the outbreak of the China Affair, a remarkable increase is noted, the figure for 1940 being four times as large as that for 1937. This general trade expansion is due of course to a return to peace and order as well as to progress in economic construction; but it also owes in large measure to the development of trade with Japan and Manchoukuo. Particularly noteworthy in this connection is North China's increasing dependency upon Japan in trade and an adverse trade balance.

Her trade within the yen-bloc rose from 35 per cent in 1937 to 56 per cent and 45 per cent respectively in 1939 and 1940. From the point of view of the construction of the co-prosperity sphere of Greater East Asia, such a tendency is reassuring, but on the other hand a too disproportionate excess of imports over exports creates a certain economic problem both for Japan and North China. The characteristics of the yen-bloc trade, however, are more of a political nature. Accordingly, Japan must be prepared to export a great amount of constructional materials and everyday necessities, bearing inevitable economic burdens for the cause of Greater East Asia. The placing of the yen-bloc trade on a planned basis, therefore, has become a matter of paramount importance. With this in view certain measures for trade control were enforced recently as embodied in the Ordinance for Regulating Exports to Manchoukuo, the Kwantung Leased Territory and

China and the Ordinance for Regulating the prices of goods to be Exported to Manchoukuo, the Kwantung Leased Territory and China. In this way the yen-bloc trade has now been successfully regulated in respect of volume and prices, to the mutual advantage of both countries.

The promotion of trade is well reflected in the issue of the F.R.B. notes and the deposits and loans. On December 31, 1940, the note issues amounted to 715 million yen and the deposits and loans to ¥594,700,000 and ¥316,800,000 respectively.

Thus the basis for an economic reconstruction of North China has been firmly laid in the face of many difficulties, and peace and prosperity is assured not only for the two countries but for the whole region of East Asia.

Investments of Japanese in Peking

Activities of Japanese nationals in principal cities in North China have been noteworthy, particularly in Peking. In January, 1937, the Japanese nationals in Peking numbered 4,057. A year later, it increased to 5,023. In January, 1939, the number advanced to 27,236 and further to 47,875 in January of 1940. In January, 1941, it stood at 80,065, thus having increased by 76,000 during the past four years.

On the basis of reports by Japanese nationals, the total investments of Japanese in Peking as at the close of 1940 was estimated at ¥60,066,000. This

figure, however, was a conservative estimate, having been based on the reports of the industrialists concerned, and the actual amount of investments in 1940 is believed to have exceeded ¥100,000,000. Japanese investments in Peking in 1940 are classified by industry as follows:

JAPANESE INVESTMENTS IN PEKING CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY (Value in ¥1,000)

Industry	1939	1940
Mfg. Industry	3,131	8,544
Mining	1,669	5,884
Civil Engineering	5,547	10,302
Foreign Trade	8,858	8,963
Wholesale & Retail.	8,709	13,559
Banking	1,658	3,107
Transportation	1,041	2,179
Hotel & Likes	781	2,861
Restaurants	1,138	3,769
Others	210	1,090
Total	32,740	60,066

In the amount of investments, manufacturing industry, mining, civil engineering, foreign trade and wholesale and retail merchants accounted for 80 per cent of the total investments of the Japanese in Peking. Pure commercial investments such as foreign trade, retail and wholesale merchants, hotels, restaurants, etc. accounted for 48 per cent. Classified by the number of establishments, commercial houses took about 70 per cent with hotels and restaurants accounting for 33 per cent of the total. Relative figures follow:

NUMBER OF JAPANESE ESTABLISHMENTS IN PEKING CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY

Industry	Per cent		Actual Figures
	1939	1940	1940
Manufacturing Industry	5%	6%	138
Mining	1%	1%	14
Civil Engineering	5%	9%	197
Foreign Trade	2%	3%	72
Wholesale and Retail	44%	43%	921
Banking	2%	2%	38
Transportation	2%	3%	61
Hotels	13%	11%	252
Restaurants	18%	12%	274
Miscellaneous	8%	10%	214
Total	100%	100%	2,181

Reconstruction of Shanghai

Administration Reorganization The first problem immediately under consideration within a month after the outbreak of the war was that of the re-organization

of the Administration of the Shanghai Municipal Council. The first step was the stationing of Japanese troops for the protection of the Settlement and

dealing with those of American, British, Dutch, Belgian and other enemy countries still in Shanghai and the liquidation of the Shanghai enterprises of such countries. Meanwhile, there was little interference with the civic administrations of either the Settlement or French Concession both of which have functioned as usual. American and British nationals occupying important posts in these Municipal Administrations were allowed temporarily to continue their duties which enabled the work of administration to proceed almost without a hitch. In adopting this lenient policy towards nationals of enemy countries, the Japanese Authorities were mainly concerned with protecting the livelihood of the people of Shanghai.

It is generally conceded by all concerned that the emergency measures which had to be immediately enforced were successful. However, these were necessarily only temporary as other and more permanent changes had to be made to cover the longer period of the whole duration of the War. Clearly there could be no justification for the retention of British and Americans as executive officials of the Administration and they have wisely acknowledged this fact by submitting their resignations as soon as their services could be dispensed with and the re-organization is being effected in consonance with the new state of affairs. The British and American Councillors withdrew from the Council in January 1942. K. Okazaki was then appointed Chairman of the Council, with Yuan Li-teng (L. T. Yuan) as Vice-Chairman. The next step was to appoint competent Japanese for the important posts of Secretary and Commissioner-General, Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner of the Police formerly held by British subjects, whilst a sweeping re-organization was effected in the personnel of the staffs of these Departments. So far, no such drastic changes have been made in other Departments for the reason that the policy of the authorities is to maintain the efficiency of each Department and to conserve human resources.

In view of the inevitable economic and social changes in Shanghai which resulted from the War, the Administration re-organization has been effected and public safety and livelihood have been maintained far more successfully for all concerned than might well have been expected.

The French Concession and the Shanghai Special Municipal Government are each cooperating with the Settlement in meeting all problems on the basis of a common policy and the general administration of the whole of the Shanghai area is now functioning harmoniously and satisfactorily.

Settlement's Finance Secondly, for several years in succession the Council has been faced with a budgetary deficit. That for the fiscal year following 1939 assumed alarming proportions. These deficits were usually met by the temporary expedients of issuing Municipal Debentures and by increasing certain taxes. The position had become such that in framing the general budget after the outbreak of the War in December 1941, not only were the salaries and allowances of employees considerably reduced but very considerable retrenchment was effected in the purchase of stationery and equipment and other general expenses. Thus notwithstanding the rapid increase in the prices of commodities the estimated ordinary and temporary annual expenditure was reduced to no more than \$120,000,000.

It had by now become clear that the palliatory policy of meeting recurrent deficits by temporary expedients must be abandoned for one that would place the Settlement's finances on a sound basis so that there would continue to be a balanced annual budget not only during extraordinary war conditions but permanently thereafter. With this end in view the Council and the Japanese Authorities concerned held several lengthy conferences and as a result two methods of financial reconstruction were decided upon as follows:

- (1) Increases in the Land Tax, Municipal Rate and Licence Fees, these being the chief sources of revenue. The Land Tax was raised from 1.89% to 2.50% and the Municipal Rate from 37.80% to 50%. A surcharge of 50% was levied on licence fees and the Amusement Tax was raised from 10% to 30%.

- (2) The inauguration of the Telephone Tax, Hotels and Restaurants Bills Tax and the Commodities Retail Sales Tax. The Telephone Tax is \$5 per month for residential and \$10 for office telephones. The Hotels and Restaurants Bills Tax is 10% and the Commodities Retail Sales Tax is 2% on all retail sales.

These two methods for increasing revenue together with the economies in

expenditures referred to will result in a balance of revenue with expenditure for the current year. But even if expenses should be greater than estimated either this year or thereafter, there cannot in future be any such large deficits as have previously occurred. However, Municipal finances are necessarily closely associated with and affected by general economic conditions beyond the control of the Administration. On the other hand, with the gradual revival of economic activities, the re-organization of industries and the promotion of the interchange of commodities between Shanghai and other places, all of which can be confidently anticipated, there is good reason to believe that, with the measures now adopted for financial rehabilitation, there should be no further budgetary deficits of any consequence.

Problem of Currency When Shanghai's close associations with American, British and other enemy countries were severed, it became increasingly difficult to maintain the stability of the old currency and with the collapse of this medium of exchange the foreign trade which it facilitated was inevitably lost. The situation was aggravated by the reckless issue of notes by the Chungking regime for circulation in Shanghai and elsewhere. The results were deplorable. As the value of the old currency depreciated, commodity prices continued to rise rapidly. This led to wholesale and most undesirable speculation. It became quite evident that the only way to safeguard the welfare of the public was to organize, without further delay, a new economic structure for Shanghai on the basis of an official stabilized currency. It was therefore decided to adopt the note issues of the Central Reserve Bank as the only official currency and to exchange, at fixed rates, the old notes for the new currency.

As the first step in establishing the new currency the Settlement Authorities had notified the public in mid-February that payment of all monies due to the Council must be in C.R.B. notes, thus giving the public a clear indication of the official policy that would later be adopted generally. This procedure on the part of the Council was almost immediately followed by all the public utility companies, the factories and department stores, and thereafter all their financial transactions with the public had to be in C.R.B. currency.

These and other preparatory measures undertaken by the Shanghai Authorities not only paved the way for the unification and stabilization of the currency in Shanghai but in Central China generally. So efficiently had these preparatory measures been carried out that when the official proclamation of the National Government of China was issued, requiring the exchange of the old notes for the new currency to come into effect as from June 2 it was possible to make this momentous change in the whole financial structure of Shanghai so quickly and smoothly and with so little public inconvenience that at this date (July 1942) only a few weeks later not a single dollar of the old note issue is now in circulation.

This most urgent matter of currency unification and stabilization having thus been satisfactorily disposed of, other important reorganization measures can now receive serious consideration. These will have an important bearing on the development of the trade and industry of Shanghai under the New Order. Already the currency changes have had a most salutary effect on the whole economic life of Shanghai, raising high hopes of growing prosperity in future not only for the city itself but for the entire Peace Area of which it is the economic center. This whole area can now be organized and developed on a uniform basis for the regulation of commodity prices and the encouragement of industrial and agricultural production.

Price Control of Commodities The continual increase of prices has given rise to much public anxiety and distress. Because these prices continue to rise rapidly just at the time of adjusting the currency problem, many people imagined that the two matters were intimately related. But commodity prices began to rise so rapidly as to cause almost a panic in Shanghai as far back as mid-summer of 1941 and long before any question of currency changes could have been anticipated.

To counteract the disastrous effects of the sensational increases in food and fuel prices which then took place on the local market, the Settlement Authorities began the import of rice and fuel and other public necessities which were sold at prices fixed by official notifications. For all these commodities, whilst severe penalties were provided for those who infringed the Council's published regulations,

lations. By these measures, more drastic than any ever before undertaken by the Council since the establishment of the Settlement, the tendency to increase prices was checked and much public relief was afforded. Obviously, however, such relief could be only temporary, as it was quite impossible to fix prices permanently in a currency that was unstable and continually depreciating by inflation.

Thus it will be seen that the change in currency, now so satisfactorily effected, was the only sound procedure to counteract the deplorable results of the continued inflation of the Chungking currency.

In addition to what has already been done in this connection by far the most essential is the control of prices of rice. It has been found necessary from experience to make important changes in the organization established to control the distribution of rice as between wholesalers and retailers and the price charged to consumers. Prices have been fixed as low as possible as conditions are at present. By fixing the price of rice in this way the fact that it is the largest and most vital item of daily necessities will tend to check increases in the prices of other popular necessities.

Municipal Finance A surplus on both the ordinary and extraordinary budgets of the Shanghai Municipal Council for 1941, were recorded, J. W. Morcher, F.I.M.T.A., F.S.S., Treasurer of the S.M.C., revealed in his financial statement for the year, resulting in \$428,845 being carried forward to 1942 on the ordinary budget and \$2,037,867 on the extraordinary budget.

The total income for the year as per the ordinary budget was \$86,733,008 and the expenditure \$83,248,421, resulting in a surplus of \$3,484,587. However, with a deficit of \$3,055,742 in the education budget, there remained only a surplus of \$428,845.

Under the heading of extraordinary budget, there was a total income of \$12,490,335 and an expenditure of \$10,152,468 (including a deficit of \$1,835,540 brought forward from 1940) leaving a surplus of \$2,037,867. The surplus on the ordinary budget is mainly due to the fact that there was a surplus of \$9,745,068 on the ordinary income during the year.

In reviewing the ordinary expenditure, the treasurer stated that with few exceptions departmental expenditure was

considerably in excess of budget provision. This was, of course, due mainly to the steady rise in the local price level that took place throughout the year necessitating increases in the cost of living allowances granted the staff and reacting adversely on expenditure appropriations as a whole.

Another factor was the fall in exchange below the level on which the budget was based this involving larger outlays in local currency in respect to all foreign currency commitments, the treasurer pointed out, adding that the cost of foodstuffs rose to new high levels during the year resulting in heavy over-expenditure for messing for prisoners at the Ward Road Gaol and for the personnel of the Russian Auxiliary Detachment of the Police Force.

Owing to few employees proceeding on long leave than was contemplated savings were effected in respect to passages and to long leave exchange compensation. There was no budget provision for the substantial expenditure that was incurred in respect to an Inequalities of Taxation Sub-Committee that was set up subsequent to the passing of the budget and also in regard to the price control measures that it became necessary to institute.

Lower exchange rates as regards foreign employees and the application of higher rates of cash bonus than those anticipated in connection with Chinese staff coupled with a larger number of resignations in both cases than was contemplated are responsible for the heavy over-expenditure on super-annuation exchange compensation and on death, invaliding and retirement gratuities.

The outbreak of the Pacific hostilities made it impossible to pay pensions due at December 31 other than to ex-employees resident in China and Japan. The budget was, therefore, relieved of expenditure in respect to pensioners resident in other parts of the world amounting to \$754,972 and it will be seen that if this item was included there would be a deficit on the year of \$326,127 instead of the surplus shown of \$428,845.

Industrial Conditions of Shanghai Industry of Shanghai received a heavy blow in the first half of 1941 because of the aggravation of the profit situation due to the wartime control. Naturally, all branches of industry in the port city, with the lone exception of part of small-scaled factories, were subjected to severe retrenchment. Some of those industries

suspended operation. Many of industrial factories scarcely maintained their management by drastically restricting the working hours and operatives as well as production.

There were four cardinal factors for the industrial depression of Shanghai. The first was the restriction over the power supply. The strengthened control by the Japanese authorities on cereals and other native products, export restrictions by Britain, the United States and the Netherlands and the increasing scarcity of bottoms in the Pacific constituted the second factor. The loss of many good markets and the expansion and strengthening of Chinese coastal blockade were the third factor while the frequent outbreak of labor disputes was the fourth factor. The industrial depression of the port city served to skyrocketing the prices of commodities.

During the first half of 1941, there were in operation in Shanghai 64 spinning mills, including 21 Chinese mills, 5 British mills and 38 Japanese mills, employing a total of 2,186,026 spindles and 26,808 weaving machines. The total production of cotton yarns by those Shanghai mills in the first half of 1941 aggregated 67,636 bales, declining by 35 per cent as compared with the first half of 1940 and 10 per cent as compared with the second half of 1940. Particularly noteworthy was the recession of the production by Japanese-owned mills. The production of cotton tissues in the first half of 1941 totalled 1,065,074 rolls, representing a decrease of 5 per cent from the first half of 1940 and 9 per cent from the second half of 1940. The economization of motive power, decline of raw cotton imports due to the scarcity of bottoms and increasing difficulty to export to unoccupied areas due to the strengthened blockade were the principal reasons.

Cotton yarns and tissues are two important exports of Shanghai, having accounted for 8 per cent and 18 per cent of the total exports of the port city during the first half of 1941. Although Shanghai still is a principal supply source of cotton yarns and tissues for occupied and unoccupied areas, then exports to unoccupied markets have become increasingly difficult due to the strengthened blockade of the Kwangtung coast and the Eastern coast of Chekiang. At the same time, the exports to occupied areas also were heavily

affected by the strengthened wartime control.

Due to the shrinkage of domestic transactions as well as the depression of exports, therefore, Shanghai is being over-supplied with cotton yarns and tissues. Under the circumstances, the accumulation of cotton yarn stocks in Shanghai as at the close of June, 1941, amounted to 282,000 bales. Raw cotton used as raw material for cotton yarns and tissues produced in Shanghai was principally imported from India, the United States, Brazil and Egypt. Raw cotton imports of Shanghai in the second half of 1940 accounted for 20 per cent of the total imports, thus serving as a heavy weight on the exchange market. The delivery of Chinese cotton has decreased markedly due to the strengthened control in occupied areas. In the first half of 1941, only 200,000 piculs of native Chinese raw cotton were used by Japanese mills.

The raw silk industry of Shanghai in the first half of 1941 was hit the hardest due to the scarce supply of cocoons, and the exports of raw silk in that period fell by 38 per cent as compared with the second half of 1940.

The woolen industry, which is still young in Shanghai, has rather prospered in the first half of 1941. At present, two mills are engaged in camel-wool production, 5 mills are producing woolen yarns and 15 others are manufacturing other woolen items. Flour, one of the oldest industries of Shanghai, is almost out of operation at present, although it was a cardinal industry of Shanghai prior to the outbreak of the European War, due to the scarce supply of material wheat. Two Chinese flour mills, three Japanese mills and two British mills are almost out of operation. The high cost of imported wheat is the principal cause of the scarce supply of wheat in the port city. Naturally, the import of flour has increased for re-export to North and South China.

Some 16 rubber plants under Chinese management are operating in Shanghai while leathers and hides as well as paper in Shanghai are still insignificant. Machinery and tools has reduced the production sharply in the first half of 1941 due to the insufficient supply of raw materials. The chemical industry is the one and only industrial undertaking which has taken long strides since the outbreak of the China Affair. Details follow:

NUMBER OF SPINDLES AND WEAVING MACHINES IN SHANGHAI

	At End of Dec., 1940	At End of June, 1941	Increase
1. Spindles:			
Japanese Mills	1,328,418	1,328,418	—
Chinese Mills	604,668	616,608	11,940
British Mills	241,000	241,000	—
Total	2,174,086	2,186,026	11,940
2. Weaving Machines:			
Japanese Mills	18,525	18,525	—
Chinese Mills	4,285	4,595	310
British Mills	3,686	3,686	—
Total	26,496	26,806	310

PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARNS AND TISSUES IN SHANGHAI

	1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
1. Cotton Yarns (Bales):			
Japanese Mills	395,360	203,947	174,997
Chinese Mills	193,389	206,937	197,438
British Mills	35,475	35,450	33,382
Total	624,224	446,333	405,819
2. Cotton Tissues (1,000 Rolls):			
Japanese Mills	9,346	4,926	4,382
Chinese Mills	1,116	1,350	1,347
British Mills	1,107	714	661
Total	11,569	6,989	6,390

EXPORTS OF COTTON YARNS AND TISSUES FROM SHANGHAI
BY COUNTRY

	(In Piculs) 1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
1. Cotton Yarns:			
Dutch East Indies	2,235	11,556	23,870
Hongkong	25,336	17,866	16,103
Taiwan	5,199	14,491	8,613
Thailand	7,092	4,545	4,305
Philippines	642	829	2,553
French Indo-China	246	13	1,102
India	19,453	17,085	94
Others	7,310	1,644	7,917
Total	67,219	67,114	64,534
2. Cotton Tissues:			
Hongkong	30,831	19,784	27,247
Philippines	4,542	4,221	11,164
Thailand	5,593	2,012	6,915
French Indo-China	3,814	8	3,430
British Malaya	4,883	4,754	4,618
Dutch East Indies	5,865	1,117	2,153
India	17,395	2,202	2,773
Others	26,848	6,338	5,227
Total	98,908	39,509	63,376

CHINA

RAW COTTON IMPORTS OF SHANGHAI

(In Piculs)

Origins	1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
India	485,641	657,557	622,075
U.S.A.	683,003	72,291	142,142
Brazil	39,135	319,598	138,533
Egypt	50,845	13,482	11,320
Others	52,370	17,776	12,148
Total	1,310,552	991,249	886,580

RAW SILK EXPORTS OF SHANGHAI

(In Piculs)

Destinations	1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
U.S.A.	666,869	1,479,860	898,592
England	92,736	61,248	70,376
British India	302	13,357	19,542
France	137,955	14,188	—
Others	30,907	18,083	3,682
Total	928,769	1,584,051	992,292

WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR IMPORTS OF SHANGHAI BY ORIGIN

(In Piculs)

Origins	1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
1. Wheat:			
Australia	791,214	164,613	171,166
U.S.A.	177,685	201,710	122,927
Canada	—	—	112,707
Others	11	5	5
Total	968,910	366,328	406,805
2. Wheat Flour:			
U.S.A.	32,997	48,531	260,286
Canada	11,242	17,819	208,458
Australia	3,844	108,898	156,080
Others	137	47	116
Total	48,220	17,290	624,381

IMPORTS OF RUBBER, HIDES AND LEATHERS AND WOOD PULP
BY SHANGHAI

(In Piculs)

	1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
1. Rubber:			
Straits Settlements. Taiwan	10,590	17,334	3,553
Dutch East Indies	9,740	11,534	2,266
Others	10,182	16,059	9,052
Total	27,345	36,428	20,377

	1940 1st Half	1940 2nd Half	1941 1st Half
2. Hides and Leathers:			
French Indo-China	7,747	3,823	9,308
Hongkong	6,715	3,788	3,762
Thailand	1,628	104	2,850
Others	1,418	616	1,748
Total	17,503	8,331	17,668
3. Wood Pulp:			
U.S.A.	23,275	9,154	8,929
Canada	1,161	1,900	1,277
Others	8,737	530	—
Total	32,572	6,815	8,687

Chiang Kai-shek Regime at Chungking

The number of people under the Chungking government of Chiang Kai-shek is estimated at about 200 million. Szechwan Province where the capital is situated alone has 53 million people within its area of 431,309 square kilometers or greater than Japan proper.

Military Strength The military force under the Generalissimo was estimated at 2,271,330 just before the outbreak of the China Affair, not to speak of some half a million Chinese Communists soldiers. Right after the commencement of hostilities with Japan or in March 1938 the Extraordinary National Congress of Kuomintang Delegates passed a resolution on a new conscription system to replenish as many soldiers as possible. The Conscription Law provided that all men coming within the age groups of 20 to 25 years at peace time and 20 to 40 years at war time should be obliged to enter active services. But in a country as China where no census registration had ever been completed there were all ways of slighting the duty of military service for boys of well-to-do families or high officials. In July 1941 the Chungking government with the National Military Council as pivot carried out a movement to encourage the boys of gentries and government officials willingly to bear arms, revising the conscription law so as to empower the National Military Council to take charge in all matters of enlistment, array and discipline. At the same time it moved to effect gradually a reorganization of the Communist Eighth Route Army and the dissolution of the New Fourth Army in order to centralize all military affairs in the unoccupied area. The present strength of the Chungking armies is said to be 3 million. It may be an exaggeration usual to old Chinese, but taking it at

its face value the Chungking government must have succeeded in replenishing about 3 million soldiers during past 5 years of resistance to fill vacancies caused by the defeats in almost all battles against Japanese Forces. Men and boys (younger than 20 years of age) must have been indiscriminately called to services to make up the number. They are at least useful in the works of constructing such military roads as the former Burma Route, the Northwestern Routes or the new Central India Route. The Chungking government is thus utilizing man-power instead of machine-power which is difficult to obtain either in the area under its influence or from outside. This man-power ought not to be undermined in estimating Chungking's power of resistance and endurance.

Supply of Foodstuff Rice is cropped in Szechwan and Kwangtung provinces in quantities, although there may be a shortage of supply for the millions, but, in 1941, the Forestry Department and the Provision Department of the Ministry of Economic Affairs were made independent offices in order to secure the welfare of the masses in regard to their daily life. These offices are making endeavors to improve agriculture, to bring waste lands under cultivation, to encourage cultivation of vegetables and cereals suitable to the soil and as winter crops and to improve the irrigation system. About 300 cooperative chests have been newly established in Szechwan, Sikong, Kweichow, Yunnan and Kwangsi provinces to give economic assistance to farmers, while some 103,440 cooperative societies have been organized in villages in order to increase agricultural products. It is too easy to think that the masses will rise in riots against the

Chungking government simply on account of any shortage of food.

Mining and Manufacturing Industries

Underground resources in Northwestern China are varied in kind and unlimited in quantities. It was so reported by most authors on China and drew a keen attention of Western capitalists in the past century. But there is a limitation in the way of exploiting them. Many of old mines in China had been exhausted and abandoned or the method of mining has been mostly antiquated, specially in the interior far away from seaports and political or commercial centers on the coasts. The outputs of coal, iron, copper, tangsten, tin, antimony, etc. were naturally small in Southwestern provinces, having no large factories near the mines to consume the raw materials supplied. With the removal of capital to Chungking the Nationalist government encouraged and helped the removal of over 200 factories in Peiping, Tientsin, Shanghai and Nanking districts to the interior, and the present number of factories in the area under the influence of the Chungking government is said to reach over 1,400 divided as follows:

Factories	
Chemical	361
Machine	313
Spinning and weaving	294
Metallurgical	93
Electric	48
Others	369
Total	1,478

According to the reports of the Chungking Ministry of Economic Affairs for 1940 the outputs of mining and manufacturing industries were as follows:

Provinces	Before the Affair	Increased after the Affair	Total	Branches of Govt. Banks
Shensi	51	49	89	26
Kansu	17	36	53	18
Tsinghal	—	3	3	3
Ninghsia	5	3	8	3
Sikang	3	30	33	6
Kwelchow	4	30	34	25
Yunnan	21	51	72	25
Kwangsi	29	71	99	29
Chungking city	28	61	82	19
*Szechwan	94	209	291	79
Total	254	543	764	233

Note: (*) Excluding Chungking.

Coal (ton)	5,700,000
Iron (ton)	100,000
Copper (ton)	1,000
Petroleum (gallon)	440,000
Alcohol (gallon)	4,500,000
Cotton yarns (bale)	45,000
Wheat flour (bag)	4,500,000
Soap (box)	308,000
Matches (box)	11,000
Papers (box)	2,000

It may be easily supposed that these outputs are far short to meet the demands of the government and the people even without the confession of Minister Weng Wen-hao who said "it is far from the attainment of the stage of self-sufficiency." The Chungking government commenced the execution of its five-year industrial development plan early in 1940. But it seems to have witnessed no material result in these 3 years, with no expansion of factories which are able only to produce such small arms as rifles, machine-guns, hand-grenade and ammunition. "They have no capacity of manufacturing war-planes, heavy guns or tanks" as revealed by H. H. Kung.

Financial Organs under Chungking Government Chungking Government has endeavored, since the outbreak of the China Affair, to enlarge the financial facilities of inner provinces. During the four years after the outbreak of the China Affair, the number of banks newly established in the southwest and northwestern provinces reached 543 (of which, 180 were branches of 4 Governmental banks), and the total number of banks became three times as many as that before the Affair, especially Szechwan Province, the seat of the Chungking Government increasing 270. Details follows:

Sino-Japanese Hostilities in 1941-42

During July 1941 in North China alone, no less than 1,755 engagements occurred between the Japanese and Chinese troops, the total effectives involved being estimated at some 230,000. The Chinese side left about 85,000 dead behind in addition to some 2,600 taken prisoner. The Japanese lost about 700 in killed and wounded. During the same period Central China witnessed 540 encounters in which approximately 75,000 Chinese troops took part. Their casualties numbered 4,471 killed and 2,041 captives. On the other hand, Japanese loss was only about 500 dead and injured. The total number of brushes in South China during the same month was 276, the Chinese side mustering some 4,000 soldiers. While the Chinese left 855 in killed besides 131 taken prisoner, the Japanese dead and wounded numbered about 50. It will, therefore, be seen that during that single month the total number of battles fought throughout China came up to 2,295, with the aggregated numerical strength of the enemy estimated at about 316,000. The Chinese left 13,849 dead behind in addition to 5,134, taken prisoner. As against this the Japanese, in all, suffered about 1,300 in killed and wounded. These figures clearly illustrate the activities of the Japanese expeditionary forces in China.

No less active parts are being played by Japanese military and naval air forces. Their frequent bombing raids on the interior have undeniably alarmed the Chiang Kai-shek Government, its troops and the people living in major towns in the interior. Such was the sustained intensity of the Japanese aerial attacks in August 1941 that Chungking, capital of the Chiang Kai-shek regime, suspended its activity for seventeen days of the month. As a result of Japanese air bombardments, military works, factories and government offices in unoccupied China have been seriously damaged and production of both munitions and essential merchandise has been considerably curtailed.

North China Front From July 20 to August 24, 1941, the Japanese expeditionary forces in North China carried out a mopping-up campaign in and round Yencheng in Northern Kiangsu Province. As Yencheng is noted for salt production, the Chinese attached importance to it. With the Japanese occupation of the

town, the Chinese effective under General Han Te-chin were reduced to dire straits. Frequent clashes been occurring in Northern Kiangsu Province since January between Chungking soldiers and Communist forces, which had succeeded in forcing their way into the region.

The troops under General Yu Hsueh-chung, former warlord of Manchuria, and the forces under Admiral Shen Hung-leh, former Mayor of Tsingtao, were at loggerheads in Shantung Province. Otherwise peace generally prevailed in this area.

In Shansi and Hunan Provinces, the enemy was concentrating its efforts to reinforce defense fortifications on the south bank of the Yellow River, as a sequel to the crushing blow dealt by Japanese forces to the 200,000 strong army commanded by General Wei Lihuang in the so-called first war-zone during the Shansi campaign in May 1940.

Sian, capital of Shensi Province, and districts surrounding it were guarded by Chinese troops under General Hu Tsungnan belonging to the so-called 8th war-zone.

The interior of Inner Mongolia is still infested by Chinese troops under General Fu Tso-yl. A large-scale mopping-up campaign, launched by the Japanese contingents against the Chinese Communist troops on August 14, 1941 is still continuing along the Peking-Hankow and Shihchiachwang-Taiyuan Railways and the outlying region of Chahar Province. The operation is aimed not only at dislodging the Communist troops from their bases but at rendering them hors de combat by inflicting a knock-out defeat. Consequently, it is developing in a thorough-going way, though not in a spectacular manner. Fighting as they do with Communist soldiers who are veritable denizens of mountains, the Japanese expeditionary forces are going through hardships and privations in climbing the rock-bound region for the Reds.

By September 4, 1941 the Japanese succeeded in dispersing the Communist forces, and have since been searching one district after another for Red remnants. Up to September 14, the enemy left 2,784 dead behind apart from 1,710, taken prisoner, while the Japanese suffered some 50 in killed.

Simultaneously with the launching of

fresh operations in Hunan Province in Central China in the middle of September, a military drive in North China was begun for crossing the New Yellow River. Because of a remarkable diminution in the Chinese resistance, the advance was more rapid than expected inasmuch as Chengchow, an important strategic point, fell into Japanese hands on October 4. This locality is a junction of the Peking-Hankow and the Lunghai Railways.

Central China Front The noteworthy enemy briskness in Central China occurred from midnight of August 25 to the following morning, when Chinese troops under General Ku Chu-tung attempted a mass offensive against Japanese positions at more than 60 points along the Yangtze estuary, by detaching a battalion or regiment of soldiers to each point. In concert with this general onslaught, the Chinese guerillas commenced activities in the Japanese occupied area, but their efficiency was in such a low state that only two cases of terrorism and another two cases of tampering with railway tracks were reported.

Japanese contingents immediately responded to the Chinese general attack and repulsed the bulk of enemy troops by the morning of August 26, 1941. On September 27 and 28, they attempted small sorties at various points, but were immediately driven back. Supported by air units, Japanese forces made a counter-offensive against them along the entire front, which resumed calmness on September 29.

This Chinese general offensive testified to incompleteness of the reorganization, which the Chungking forces had been undergoing for some time in preparation for their so-called large-scale assault. The debacle which they had sustained in the campaign in Eastern Chekiang Province might have been to blame, but there was no gainsaying the fact that the abortive push, staged by them along the estuary of the Yangtze at midnight of August 25, did not rebound to the credit of Chungking's military authorities, who had been magnifying their armed preparedness regarding a general offensive.

Japanese forces which occupied some time ago Foochow, capital of Fukien Province, withdrew from that port city on September 3, following a considerable easing of the local situation.

In the Hankow sector, the Japanese

expeditionary forces on September 18 launched most successful campaign against the Chinese troops in the so-called 9th war-zone under General Hsueh Yueh south of Yochow. Several Japanese divisions which had been massing south of Yochow opened attack on September 18. After dislodging some dozen Chinese battalions from their positions on the Sintsiang River, the Japanese moved south toward the Mi River. At this juncture, the Chinese 26th Army, part of the Chinese forces, attempted to outflank the Japanese from the direction of Tungcheng. Scenting this Chinese move, the extreme left column of our forces resorted to tactics for encircling the 26th Army, which consequently was annihilated. Meanwhile, other columns pushed forward, by contacting and crushing enemy resistance, which stood in their way. The result was that the Chinese 4th Army was destroyed, the 99th Army slipped away sideways and the 37th Army was wiped out. The enemy had constructed quadruple defense lines between Yochow and Changsha, capital of Hunan Province. Such was the lightning speed of the Japanese assault, that the enemy found it impossible to offer any stiff opposition, by falling back upon those defense lines. Thus, the Japanese Hayabuchi detachment entered Changsha on September 27, while on September 29 another Japanese column drove further south and entered Chuchow, junction of the Canton-Hankow Railway and the Chuchow-Pingsiang Railway and a town situated some 30 miles to the south of Changsha.

A Japanese naval detachment cooperated with the military effectives in the Changsha campaign, by operating on Lake Poyang so as to divert the enemy.

The Changsha campaign was concluded over ten days earlier than expected owing to a plan of operations carefully worked out on the basis of mature experience and also to full training of Japanese combatants. The outcome of the expedition demonstrated that the Chinese army in the 9th war-zone, reputed to be the best equipped and strongest of the Chinese forces, was not possessed of much fighting ability against the Japanese army. The Chinese endured more than 80,000 in killed and wounded, while the loss sustained by Japan's side was about 500 in killed. Having attained their objective of operations so rapidly, the Japanese expected

tionary forces left Changsha on October 1 to return to their original positions.

Taking advantage of the departure of Japanese troops from Changsha after a stay of four days, Chungking put out a fabricated claim that its army had driven out the Japanese from Changsha by inflicting heavy losses. This absurd story was accepted at its face value by the British and American public for a time. The Japanese expeditionary forces in China, which have already captured key points essential for the disposal of the China Affair, are now conducting their military operations for the purpose of destroying the Chinese fighting strength, not for occupying any more territory.

During the Changsha campaign, which lasted almost ten days, eleven Chinese planes, all S.B. bombers, made their appearance for the first time in many months. One of them landed near Ichang on the Yangtze, the gateway to Chungking, and surrendered to the Japanese military authorities to their pleasant surprise.

South China Front The Chinese soldiers in the 7th war-zone under command of General Yu Han-mou, namely in Northern Kwangtung Province, apparently are now endeavoring hard to reconnoiter the movements of the Japanese forces.

Naval Air Force To facilitate the withdrawal of Japanese military and naval forces from Foochow, capital of Fukien Province, the Imperial naval air force, which had been assigned to the coast of Fukien Province visited Foochow, Santu and Fuching on September 1, 1941, and bombed and machine-gunned troop concentrations of the Chinese 7th and 80th divisions, inflicting severe losses, and on the following day renewed the attack in same vein. On September 3, it bombed and machine-gunned the enemy bases on the north bank of the Min River east of Foochow, and also key points on the sea coast while storming the enemy near Foochow and Mamoi. On September 4, it made reconnaissance flights over Foochow, Chwanshi Island and Santu Island and attacked troop congestions, which were sighted.

On September 18, when Japanese military forces started their drive on Changsha, capital of Hunan Province, the naval air force, acting in collaboration, rained aerial missiles on positions at Yuanllaoshan, Yingtien and Leishishan

in Northern Hunan Province, causing heavy damages. On September 24, their positions near the mouth of the Sikiang River were effectively battered three times, while on September 25 and 26 enemy field artillery emplacements near Tumitse were repeatedly hit. Chinese bases at Tumitse and Wulungtsse were bombed and destroyed on September 28.

Duties of Naval Craft Every Japanese warship in China waters is in charge of a specified area. The naval craft, besides conducting blockade, inspection of vessels, survey of water routes, and sweeping of mines, are engaged in halting the supply of aid-to-Chiang Kai-shek materials. Landing parties are set on shore at various points of the coast or islands in case of necessity for maintaining peace and order. In the Chushan Group of islands off Hangchow Bay and also in Hainan Island, the landing parties are not only maintaining peace and order, but making substantial contributions to the development of industries, by looking after industrial rehabilitation.

In the meantime, the landing parties. on September 2, 1941, suppressed bandits at Taiho north of Tsingtao. On September 7, they successfully attacked some 300 bandits at a point southwest of Wenchuan-cheng, which stands in the northern part of the Shantung Peninsula. On September 9 and 10, a squad of Japanese bluejackets landed at the southern base of Yuntai Hill north of Lienyun-chiang, the eastern termination of the Lunghai Railway, and restored peace and order there, by liquidating lawless elements.

While cooperating with the military forces in a mopping-up campaign, the Japanese gunboats on the Yangtze estuary were engaged in special patrol of Lake Tahu (Great Lake) from September 11 to September 14. On September 14, the Japanese gunboats opened fire on a strong body of Chinese troops and routed them with heavy losses. The landing parties in Hainan Island captured enormous quantities of arms and ammunition, by attacking Chinese troops about thirty times.

A powerful detachment of the Japanese squadron on the Yangtze River started action at midnight of September 17 and crossed Lake Tungting by escorting transports carrying Japanese troops. On September 18, at 7:20 a.m., the detachment landed a party of bluejackets

at the base of Siahushan Hill and occupied it. Meanwhile, the Japanese warships on Lake Tungting in conjunction with the attack started by Japanese troops on Chinese positions at Chingshan and Yuanliaoshan east of it bombarded retreating Chinese forces. On September 19, the naval craft in concert with the military operations discovered and disposed of seven mines in the lower course of the Slangkiang River. The same afternoon, the naval force occupied Leishishan. Part of the landing party in cooperation with the military force captured Luchiao and Chiumatse.

On September 20, the Japanese naval force devoted its attention mainly to an attack on Chinese positions in the direction of Wanglinghu. The following day, Chinese mountain artillery positions at a point two kilofeters downstream of Yingtien were bombarded and destroyed, while 57 mines were discovered and disposed of in front of Leishihshan. This, coupled with a successful blow-up of a big boom, resulted in opening a water-way. On the other hand, the landing party cooperated with the land force in attacking Lulintan and razed Chinese positions nearby. A group of Japanese warships advanced off the southeastern shore of Lake Tungting and silenced Chinese activities at the mouth of the Slangkiang River one after another, while a mine-sweeping unit on September 22 sailed up the Slangkiang River and made a forced reconnaissance of the water-way south of Leishihshan. On September 23, the water-way up to a point four kilometers upstream of Leishihshan was completely opened, while mine-sweeping operations were in full swing from the Pingkiang River to Hopotan via Shumaihu Lake. The naval force also collaborated with the land contingent in the latter's advance into Lulintan. Paityuchi was occupied on the morning of September 24 and Yingtien on the same afternoon. On September 25, the Kiaokow channel was opened, and mine-sweeping operations off Yingtien were completed. The water-way up to a point 2 kilometers upstream of Yingtien was cleared on September 26, while that to a point 10 kilometers upstream of Yingtien was removed of hindrances on September 28.

Part of the Japanese naval force, operating in the waters near Canton started sailing up the West River. Another detachment early on the morning of September 20 covered landing of Japa-

nese troops on the shore of Kwonghoi in face of the enemy, and continued its protecting operations till the following day. The Japanese naval detachment, which sailed up the Hunklang River, occupied Sunchong on September 23, while sweeping mines and removing obstructions. One more detachment, which went up the North River, succeeded in clearing the water-way to a point 10 miles downstream of Chingkuon on September 27 in cooperation with military forces. Another naval unit, which operated off Kwonghoi, effectively attacked nine armed junks as well as Chinese troops.

The Blockade Squadron The Japanese squadron, which was engaged in blockade operations in China waters, visited 23,178 junks and motor-boats on the Yangtze estuary and off Eastern Chekiang Province and 26,904 junks and motor-boats on the Whangpoo River. In North China waters, 3,400 junks were inspected. Out of them, 79 were dealt with as those of a hostile character. Thus the material supply to Chiang Kai-shek is being effectively suspended by the blockade.

The number of mines, discovered and disposed of during the month of September totalled 115 in the Slangkiang River and 703 in South China waters, aggregating 818. In addition, there were 101 mines, discovered and disposed of during the Changsha campaign in the latter part of October.

Domination of Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway The Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway, along which the Japanese forces had been carrying on military campaigns against the Chungking troops since May 1942 from east and west, was completely placed under Japanese control. The east Chekiang campaign was started on May 15, 1942, and the Kiangsi drive on May 31. The large-scale campaigns against the Chungking troops in the third and ninth war districts thus extended over a vast area covering these two provinces and mainly along the Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway. One key point after another was reduced by the attacking forces with the result that Kihwa, Chuchow, Yushan, Shanyao and other important cities on the railway fell into Japanese hands. Commanders of the two Japanese forces from east and west met and shook hands at Hengfeng on July 1. This meant the wholesale domination of

the railway by the Japanese forces. Another campaign was immediately started in the southern section of Chekiang Province resulting in the occupation of Lishui on June 24. The occupation of these districts has frustrated the American-Chungking joint plan to launch air attacks on Japan, since all the Chungking-controlled airfields have been secured by the Japanese. Great significance, therefore, is attached to the occupation of the railway, as it used to be the only "blood transfusion" route as well as the economic artery to Chungking after the interception of Burma Road. Much of the smuggled materials from Shanghai, Ningpo, Wenchow and other places and products in the neighboring districts used to be transported by the railway to Chungking. It may be mentioned that in the vicinity of Kinwa is produced a good quality flour-spar. Its annual production is not less than 4,000,000 tons. This is a very important material for heavy and light industries in the co-prosperity sphere. Its resources have now been secured by the Japanese forces. The campaign against Wenchow, facing the eastern China Sea, serving as an important supply port for the Chiang regime, was also occupied on July 11 by Japanese troops which started action at Lishui on July 7 along the Wu River. Julian, another important town south of Wenchow, was reduced on July 13. The whole province of Chekiang has thus been placed under Japanese domination.

South Sea Chinese Offer Co-operation

There was a time when overseas Chinese mainly in southern regions numbering 7,000,000 formed a large group of anti-Japanese elements affiliated with the Chungking regime under the latter's instigation. With the elimination of the American and British influences from East Asia following the start of the War of Greater East Asia these Chinese have come to change their past attitude, and

after liquidating their anti-Japanese policy have decided to collaborate with Japan for the reconstruction of Greater East Asia. They have understood the true intention of Japan with the result that the Chinese in Malaya have pledged their allegiance to the Japanese forces. They raised among themselves a sum of ¥50,000,000 and contributed it to the headquarters of the Japanese forces in Malaya on June 25, 1942 as a token of their allegiance. In response to this, many Chinese residing in other occupied regions in the south, including the Philippines, Java and Thailand are pledging themselves for rendering their services wholeheartedly toward the accomplishment of the objective of the war in Greater East Asia. The Chinese in the Philippines have already started a movement to collect 20,000,000 pesos in a year and, taking advantage of the fifth anniversary of the China Affair on July 7, contributed 2,000,000 pesos to the headquarters of the Japanese forces there as the first instalment. Another demonstration of their allegiance to Japan was reported from Thailand, where representatives of the Chinese Chamber of Commerce and others of 2,500,000 Chinese residing there held a convention at Bangkok on July 6 and adopted a resolution which was sent in a circular telegram to Chiang Kai-shek and all Chinese commanders of the fighting areas. The telegraphic resolution reads: "We hope you respect the country and people and quickly give up your Japan-resisting war, never being utilized by America and Britain again, thereby speedily co-operating with Japan for the peace of Asia. The only way to save the country is to change your mistaken policy and renew a policy for relieving the people." One of the most influential Chinese residents in Java called on the Japanese military authorities at Batavia on July 7 as representative of the Chinese there and expressed his intention to co-operate with Japan.

COMPREHENSIVE RESULTS OF THE JAPANESE MILITARY OPERATIONS IN CHINA

During July 1937-June 1941

(Report of the Army Information Section, the Imperial Headquarters)

1. Estimated number of Chinese killed	2,015,000
The loss of Chinese forces, including death, the wounded, captives, etc.	3,800,000
The booty:	
Arms	482,257

Tanks, cars, motor-trucks	1,475
Trains, engines, carriages	2,449
Warships and vessels	410
2. Results of Air Forces' Activities, including Nomonhan Incident :	
Enemy warplanes brought down	1,744
Destroyed on the ground	233
Total loss of the enemy	1,977
3. Losses of the Imperial Army, including Nomonhan Incident :	
Killed	109,250
Lost warplanes	203

During the 6 Months after the Outbreak of the Greater East Asia War

(December 8, 1941—May 31, 1942)

	Chinese Strength Encountered	Loss of Chinese Forces Corpses Left Captives on the Field	Total
North China	900,000	56,300	33,000
Central China	580,000	53,600	10,000
South China (exclusive of Hong Kong)	50,000	2,500	1,000
Total (estimates)	1,530,000	112,400	44,000
			156,400

(See also the "Chronicle of the Sino-Japanese Hostilities" on pp. 998-1,000, the Japan Year Book, 1941-42, and the Greater East Asia War" in this volume.)

NATIONAL DEFENSE

(Section II)

The Greater East Asia War

CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL DEFENSE

(Continued from p. 242)

Section II

THE GREATER EAST ASIA WAR

(The development of diplomatic negotiations with the United States which finally led to the war is mentioned on pp. 196-198, 205-213, while the conditions of the South Seas occupied areas are fully mentioned in the "South Seas Handbook" published with the present volume.)

Principal Records of the War

With all its patient efforts to cultivate friendship among nations and to enjoy prosperity in common with all nations made abortive by the inordinate ambition of Britain and the United States to dominate the Orient, Japan entered into a state of war with the United States and the British Empire on the morning of December 8, 1941.

The December 8th, 1941 On this historic morning, the people of Japan awoke to hear over the nation-wide radio hook-up the memorable announcement of the Imperial Headquarters issued at 6 o'clock that morning. The announcement said:

"The Imperial Army and Navy entered into a state of war with the United States and British forces in the Western Pacific Waters at dawn today."

Immediately, the whole Japan was thrown into a turmoil of happy excitement. An emergency cabinet session was held at 7 o'clock on the morning of December 8 to hear Admiral Shigetarō Shimada, Minister of Navy, report on the progress of hostilities with the United States and British forces.

This was followed by the summoning of Joseph C. Grew, the American Ambassador to Japan, by Shigenori Tōgō, Foreign Minister, who handed to the Ambassador the formal reply of the Japanese Government to the note of Cordell Hull, United States Secretary of State, which was sent to the Japanese Government on November 26, 1941.

At 9 o'clock on the same morning, the

Foreign Office, in a 15-page memorandum addressed to the United States Government in reply to the note of Secretary of State Cordell Hull, announced that the Japanese Government considered it impossible to reach an agreement with the United States through further negotiations. The memorandum explained that the American proposal made by Secretary of State Hull on November 26, while containing certain acceptable items such as those concerning commerce or abolition of the extraterritorial rights in China, ignored Japanese sacrifices in the four years since the outbreak of the China Affair and menaced the existence of Japan itself, thus disparaging its honor and prestige.

All radio-listeners throughout Japan intently keeping their receivers on for important news, the Navy Ministry at 11:20 o'clock on the same morning announced that the Imperial Naval forces successfully bombed military objectives in Singapore and also bombarded Davao, Wake and Guam.

The announcement added that the Japanese Navy succeeded in making a surprise attack on the United States fleet including aircraft carriers in Hawaiian waters, and that the Japanese fleet in China waters captured the United States gunboat Wake and sank the British gunboat Petrel.

Declaration of War At 11:45 o'clock, the historic announcement of Japan's declaration of war against the United States of America and Britain was made, and the Imperial Rescript was granted (for the full text of the Imperial Rescript see p. 205). Five minutes later at 11:50 o'clock, the Army and Navy Sections of the Imperial Headquarters jointly announced Japanese army and navy forces, closely co-operating, succeeded in carrying out landing operations on the Malay Peninsula.

This was closely followed by an an-

nouncement by the Imperial Headquarters that the Japanese troops started an attack on Hongkong at dawn on December 8.

From then on, it was the rapid succession of announcements reporting successful Japanese military operations in attacks on all important military and naval bases of the United States and Britain in East Asia.

Pearl Harbor Attacked The most spectacular military achievement of Japan on the opening day of the Greater East Asia War was the dazzling victory of the Japanese navy in an attack on Hawaii, in which the Imperial Headquarters announced on the very day that two American battleships were sunk, four battleships and four first-class cruisers were severely damaged and a large number of enemy aircraft were destroyed.

The naval successes scored by the Japanese navy in Hawaiian and other Pacific fronts completely shattered a naval strategy which was popularized by United States naval experts to carry war directly to Japanese waters in the event of a Pacific war. The Japanese blitzkrieg achievements proved that the encircling program of President Roosevelt was proved to have been based entirely on an utter miscalculation of Japan's strength, thus depriving the United States of the very foundation of "Naval superiority" of its hopes to obstruct and frustrate the national growth of Japan. (The record of the Battle of Hawaii is given at the end of this chapter.)

On the morning of December 10, the Imperial Headquarters announced Japanese troops effected successful landing on the Philippines at dawn on that day. On the very day, the Japanese army and naval forces, acting in close concert, successfully landed on Guam, one of the most important outposts of the United States' Pacific strategy against Japan.

Sinking of the Prince of Wales. On December 10, the Japanese navy won another great victory when Japanese naval air forces sank, off the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula, the Prince of Wales, 35,000-ton flagship of the British Asiatic Fleet, and the British battleship Repulse, 32,000 tons. (The record of the battle is given at the end of this chapter.)

By that time, heavy fighting was in progress between Japanese and British

forces near Kota Bahru along the northern frontier of Malaya.

There was a significant parallel between the disaster which befell the British Far Eastern Fleet off Malaya on December 10 and the devastating blow which the Japanese naval aircraft inflicted on American warships in Pearl Harbor on December 8. The former was the price the British navy had to pay for its traditional over-confidence in its strength and its belittlement of the Japanese fleet while the latter was the result of the poorest intelligence and absence of expert naval strategy on the part of the American command.

Guam Occupied On December 11, Japanese landing forces operating on Guam occupied Agaña, capital of the island, and captured Captain George McMillan who was Governor-General and concurrently Commandant of the naval station of the island. The whole island fell into the hand of the Japanese forces on the following day, December 12, which also marked the successful landing of Japanese troops in the southern section of the Luzon Island in the Philippines.

On the same day came an announcement of the conclusion of a military agreement between Japan and French Indo-China, providing for the common defense of the French colony by Japanese and Indo-Chinese forces.

It was also on December 12 that the Japanese forces captured Kowloon, British leased territory at the extremity of the Kowloon Peninsula facing Hongkong, and immediately started preparations for a full-dress attack on Hongkong. With the Japanese capture of Kowloon, the British forces defending Hongkong started to withdraw from their first-line defenses.

While the Japanese forces were busy in attacks on British bases with Hongkong and Singapore as their centers, Japanese naval planes continued their incessant attacks on American military objectives in the Philippines, and repeatedly bombed Batangas, Iba, Clark field and other points of military importance in the islands.

Landing on British Borneo At dawn on December 16, 1941, the Japanese expeditionary forces effected a successful landing on the coast of British Borneo thus further expanding the Japanese penetration into the Anglo-American spheres of influence in East Asia. The

landing on British Borneo was carried out in the face of a heavy gale of twenty-meter velocity a second.

On the afternoon of December 17, the Imperial Headquarters announced Japanese naval units attacked Baker Island and Johnston Island, both in the South Pacific, and destroyed many enemy defense facilities on December 11 and 16, respectively.

By December 17, the Japanese forces operating in Malaya succeeded in slashing through British defenses in the peninsula to its west coast, thus completely cutting land communications between Singapore and Rangoon.

Results of the Battle of Hawaii At 3 o'clock on the afternoon on December 18, the Imperial Headquarters made a sensational announcement reporting the details of the casualties which were inflicted on the United States Pacific Fleet by the Japanese naval attack on the eve of the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. The announcement said that five battleships were sunk, including one of California class, one Maryland class, one Arizona class, one Utah class and another of unidentified category, in addition to two heavy cruisers and one oil tanker. The report also added that the United States vessels which were damaged beyond repair included one battleship of California class, one of Maryland class and one of Nevada class as well as two light cruisers and two destroyers. It also said that 464 enemy planes were destroyed in the course of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor including 450 which were machine-gunned on the ground and 14 which were shot down in aerial combats.

Meanwhile, the Japanese forces operating from Kowloon landed Hongkong on December 18 and occupied the Jardines Hill shortly later, thus placing half of the British Crown Colony under their control.

At dawn on December 20, the Japanese army and navy units effected a successful landing at Mindanao Island of the Philippines and immediately occupied Davao, thus gaining another foothold for the capture of the whole islands. In the wake of those favorable developments in the Philippine area, the Japanese landing party on the night of December 22 landed on Wake, another important Pacific outpost of the United States, and completely occupied the island during the following day.

On the morning of December 25, the

Imperial Headquarters announced the start of landing operations by Japanese army units on the eastern coast of the Luzon Island of the Philippines at dawn in the preceding day, and added that the Japanese troops which landed the coast of the Lingayen Bay continued an active advance toward the south.

Fall of Hongkong On the same day, December 25, Hongkong, unable to withstand the terrific Japanese attacks from sea, land and air, was occupied. At 7:05 o'clock that evening, Sir Mark Young, Governor-General of Hongkong, unconditionally surrendered to the Japanese as a result of a parley which took place at the Peninsular Hotel in Kowloon.

The surrender of Hongkong marked the first step of the retrocession of British interests from East Asia and concluded the first stage of Japan's war against Britain.

The fall of Hongkong was equally significant to Chiang Kai-shek, as the former British Crown Colony was the nerve center of political activities of the Chiang Kai-shek regime against Japan as well as the most important port for exports from Chungking-controlled areas. With the fall of Hongkong, all fetters which had been imposed on China by Britain and the United States were removed and China was thus given liberty to co-operate with Japan for the construction of a new order in the Greater East Asia.

Enemy Losses up to December 26 On December 27, Premier General Hideki Tojo, reporting on Japanese army operations on the southern fronts including the Philippines since the outbreak of the war in an address before the Imperial Diet, summarized the Japanese military successes up to that date as follows: 1,758 automobiles, 58 tanks and light armored cars, 108 cannons, 4,157 rifles as well as huge stocks of gasoline, rubber, oils and fats and other munitions in land operations: 60 gunboats either sunk or irreparably damaged and 74 other vessels captured in sea operations: 427 enemy planes either shot down in aerial combats or destroyed on the ground.

On the same day, Admiral Shigetaro Shimada at the Diet listed the Anglo-American naval losses since the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War as follows:

Battleships:

7 sunk

3 heavily damaged

1 less heavily damaged

Cruisers:

- 2 sunk
- 2 heavily damaged
- 2 partially damaged

Submarines:

- 9 sunk

Smaller Naval Craft:

- 6 gunboats and mine-sweepers destroyed, more than 7 torpedo boats sunk

Merchant Ships:

- 16 sunk
- 3 damaged

The Navy Minister added that 50 ships aggregating 130,000 tons were captured by the Japanese navy in the period under review, and 803 Anglo-American planes were shot down by the naval air forces in aerial combats.

On December 28, the Japanese fighting forces who presented Hongkong to the Japanese people as a Christmas gift made their triumphant entry into Hongkong, three days after the surrender of the Crown Colony.

With Hongkong thus completely occupied, the Japanese forces came to bring all power to bear on remaining two Anglo-American strongholds in East Asia, namely Manila and Singapore.

Meanwhile, the Japanese military operations in Malaya with the final goal fixed at Singapore progressed incessantly, and Ipoh, second largest city in the Malay Peninsula was captured by the Japanese forces on December 28, while the fall of Kuching, capital of Sarawak in British Borneo on December 25 was announced on the same day.

On December 31, the last day of the memorable year of 1941, the Japanese forces captured Kuantan, strategic town in the eastern part of Malaya located only 190 miles from Singapore.

Occupation of Manila The occupation of Manila, capital of the Philippines, by the Japanese forces on January 2, 1942, was officially announced by the Imperial Headquarters on January 3. The announcement said that the Japanese forces completed the occupation of Manila on the afternoon of that day and were continuing fierce assaults against American-Filipino forces defending the island fortress of Corregidor and the fortresses in the Bataan Peninsula. The dramatic raising of the Rising-Sun emblem over Manila on January 2 climaxed the intensive 24-day drive against the

capital of the Commonwealth.

The Japanese military operations in Malaya were progressing incessantly. On January 9, the Imperial Headquarters announced the Japanese forces driving down the Malay Peninsula, passed Tanjong Malim on the previous evening and were pressing hard on British mechanized troops which were thrown out of their defense positions.

On the same day, the Imperial Navy scored another triumph when Japanese submarines operating in waters south-west of the Johnston Island sank the 11,050-ton United States aircraft-tender Langley.

On January 11, the Japanese army forces completed the occupation of Kuala Lumpur and hoisted the flag of the rising sun over the capital building of the Federated Malay States. The unexpectedly speedy fall of Kuala Lumpur, which is a key point of strategic importance in the central part of the Malay Peninsula, revealed the strength of the Japanese forces since the British defenders previously declared a determined stand against the Japanese attacks.

On the Philippine front, the Japanese attacks on retreating American-Filipino forces continued unabated with Oltagapo, an important base along the eastern coast of the Bataan Peninsula captured by the Japanese on January 10.

On January 14, the Japanese people heard another sensational announcement by the Imperial Headquarters which said that Japanese submarines operating in waters west of Hawaii on the evening of January 12 scored two torpedo hits on an United States aircraft carrier of the Lexington type (33,000 tons), adding that the submarines were unable to confirm whether the aircraft carrier was sunk, but the sinking of the vessel was believed certain as two heavy explosions were noted after the submarines submerged.

On January 19, the Japanese army forces advanced into Burma and occupied Tavoy. By the following day, the Japanese forces advanced to a point only 350 kilometers from Rangoon after occupying Tavoy, with the defending British forces on fast retreat toward the northern mountain region.

Meanwhile, the combined Japanese army and naval forces at dawn on January 23 succeeded in effecting a landing on New Britain Island near Rabaul.

This was closely followed by the successful landing operation effected by the

Japanese bluejackets on Kendari on the south-eastern coast of Celebes Island on January 24.

On January 28, the Imperial Headquarters announced that the Japanese army units completed the occupation of Balikpapan in Dutch Borneo on January 25. The capture of Balikpapan gave the Japanese forces a key position to dominate the Java Sea and the Sunda Sea.

To Johore Bahru Culminating a whirlwind campaign wherein the Japanese troops covered a distance of 1,100 kilometers from the Thai-Malayan border within fifty-five days, the Japanese forces on the evening of January 31 reached the shores of the Johore Straits opposite Singapore. In the course of the 55-day campaigns through the Malayan jungles, the Japanese forces captured a total of 250 tanks and armored cars, 3,600 automobiles and trucks, 550 machine-guns and quantities of war materials and supplies and also took 8,000 enemy troops prisoners. It was on the same day, January 31, that the occupation of Moulmein by the Japanese forces was announced.

On February 2, the Imperial Headquarters announced that the Japanese army forces, closely co-operating with the naval units, at dawn on January 31 effected a successful landing near Ambon, capital of Ambon Island of the Molucca group.

On the afternoon of February 6 came another sensational announcement of an epochal naval victory in waters about 50 miles south of Kangeang in the Dutch Indies. The announcement stated that the Japanese naval bombers on February 4 spotted the main Dutch Indian fleet escorted by destroyers at a point thirty knots south of Kangeang Island and sank two Dutch cruisers and also heavily damaged one Dutch cruiser and one United States cruiser. The announcement added that the Dutch cruisers which were sunk included a cruiser of the Java type (6,067 tons) and another of the De Ruyter type (6,450 tons).

Landing on Singapore On February 9, the Japanese forces which had been poised on the northern bank of the Johore Straits for a final assault against the British Far Eastern base successfully crossed the Straits after repelling the enemy resistance and started a fierce attack on Singapore fortifications. By 10 o'clock that evening, the Japanese

forces completely occupied the Tengah Airfield, one of the four important military air bases on Singapore Island.

Continuing the ceaseless advance, the Japanese forces early on the morning of February 11 occupied Bukit Timah Peak, the highest point in Singapore. At 8 o'clock on the same morning, the Japanese forces were already entering into the city area of Singapore and started mopping up operations against the British remnants.

Fall of Singapore Unable to further withstand the Japanese attack, the British forces at Singapore sent a special messenger to the Japanese Army Headquarters at 2:30 o'clock on February 15 and offered to surrender.

At 10:10 o'clock on the evening of February 15, the Imperial Headquarters announced that the British forces in Singapore unconditionally surrendered to the Japanese forces at 7:50 o'clock on the same evening, thus marking the fall of the last and most formidable of the three Allied bases in East Asia. (A detailed account of the battles in the Malay Peninsula is given at the end of this chapter.)

On the historic day of the fall of Singapore on February 15, the Imperial Headquarters made another sensational announcement of the landing of Japanese paratrooper troops on Palembang on the morning of February 14, center of the largest oil field in Sumatra and one of the most important airports in the island.

A Visit to California The Japanese naval forces were not content with their attacks on the enemy bases in the Southern Pacific. On February 25, the Imperial Headquarters announced that Japanese submarines operating in Californian waters on the night of February 24 shelled military objectives on the Californian coast and achieved highly successful results.

Battles Off Surabaya and Batavia Another naval victory was reported on February 28 when the Imperial Headquarters announced that the Japanese fleet operating in Dutch East Indian waters intercepted the Allied fleet in the Java Sea and sank one cruiser and three destroyers in a fierce sea battle which was later named the Battle Off Surabaya. This announcement was supplemented with another announcement by the Imperial Headquarters issued on March 1. The announcement said as follows: "Reports received up to early this morning

on the results of the sea battle between the Japanese and Allied naval forces in Surabaya waters on February 27 and 28 indicate so far three enemy cruisers and six destroyers were sunk while four other enemy cruisers heavily damaged. In another naval engagement off Batavia waters early this morning, March 1, Japanese naval forces sank one large United States cruiser and one Australian cruiser."

Landing on Java Close on the heels of the report of the dazzling Japanese naval victory in Surabaya waters came another announcement of the Imperial Headquarters at 12:20 o'clock on March 2 that a large body of new Japanese forces made successful landing on Java Island at dawn on March 1.

Similarly sweeping was the progress of the Japanese military operations in the Philippines. On March 2, the Japanese forces completely occupied Zamboanga, a strategic point on the western extremity of Mindanao Island. Three days later on March 5, Japanese army and naval forces operating in Java completed the capture of Batavia, capital of the Netherlands East Indies, within only five days after the first landing made by the Japanese in Java. The fall of the capital city of the Netherlands East Indies was particularly significant as it imposed a death sentence on Java.

Occupation of Rangoon On March 8, the Japanese army forces operating in Burma completed the occupation of Rangoon, thus attaining the main objective of Japanese operations in Burma.

Surrender of Dutch Forces On the following day, March 9, the entire Dutch forces in the Netherlands East Indies ceased resistance and accepted the Japanese demand for an unconditional surrender. On March 11, the Imperial Headquarters announced the collective results of the Japanese campaigns in the Netherlands East Indies, reporting that the Japanese forces took prisoners 93,000 enemy troops including 2,000 commissioned officers and captured 152 warplanes, 367 tanks and armored cars, 732 cannons, 1,567 machine-guns, 97,384 rifles and quantities of other war materials and supplies.

Andaman Occupied Another surprise attack by the Japanese forces on British bases in the Southern Pacific was scored on March 23 when the Japanese army and naval units at dawn on that day

successfully landed at Port Blair, Southern Andaman Island. British forces defending the island, unable to withstand the Japanese attacks, surrendered immediately.

The whole Sumatra came under the Japanese control on March 27 when more than 200 Dutch troops which had been resisting Japanese attacks in a mountain stronghold at Koetadjane in Northern Sumatra made an unconditional surrender.

British Defeat in the Indian Ocean On April 9, the Imperial Headquarters made a sensational announcement of the results of Japanese naval operations in the Indian Ocean. The announcement said in the course of the Japanese operations in the Indian Ocean on April 7, the Japanese naval forces sank two British cruisers, one of the London type (8,835 tons) and another of the Cornwall type (10,000 tons) and 60 enemy planes were shot down.

This announcement was followed with a flash report from the Japanese Press at the Bataan Peninsula that 6,000 Filipino-American troops which had been resisting the Japanese forces on the peninsula begged for a halt in hostilities after the six-day fierce Japanese assault which was launched on April 7. On the following day, April 10, the Imperial Headquarters made another amazing announcement that the Japanese naval and air units in the course of their operations off Trincomalee, Ceylon, sank the British aircraft carrier *Hermes* (10,850 tons) and a 9,100-ton British cruiser of the Birmingham type as well as a 7,550-ton cruiser of the *Emerald* class. The announcement added that British cruiser of the *Leander* class (7,270 tons) was heavily damaged.

Bataan Peninsula Cleared Culminating Japanese military operations on the Philippines, the Imperial Headquarters announced on April 13 that the Japanese forces completely occupied the Bataan Peninsula on April 11 after the eight-day general offensive.

Mandalay Occupied On May 1, the Japanese forces operating in Burma captured Mandalay, key point of strategic importance in Burma, thus attaining another objective of the Japanese military operations in Burma. This was closely followed by the capture of Akyab Airfield in Arakan by the Japanese vanguard troops on May 4.

Corregidor Reduced The whole P.

Philippines was brought under Japanese control on May 7 when the Japanese army and naval units succeeded in landing on the Corregidor Island and occupied the Corregidor fort and other forts on other islands in Manila Bay.

On the following day, May 8, the Japanese forces in Burma occupied Myitkyina, the northern terminus of the Burma Railways.

Achievement on the Burma Front On May 11, the Imperial Headquarters in a special announcement reviewed the war in Burma during five months since the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. The announcement said that in the five-month period under review Japanese air forces shot down or destroyed on the ground 554 enemy planes in 126 raids, and also destroyed 1,213 motor cars and trucks as well as 333 tanks and armored cars. The announcement added that 1,543 railway cars and 92 vessels were destroyed and 666 enemy military establishments were smashed.

As the highlight of the Japanese military operations in May, the Imperial Headquarters announced on June 5 that a special submarine flotilla, which successfully penetrated into the Port of Sydney, on the night of May 31 sank an enemy warship.

On the same day, the Imperial Headquarters' announcement reported that another special submarine unit of the Imperial navy in a surprise attack on Diego Suarez, Madagascar, at dawn on May 31, torpedoed and seriously damaged a British battleship of the Queen Elizabeth class (13,600 tons) and a light cruiser of the Arethusa class (5,220 tons).

Achievements of the Imperial Navy On May 26, the Imperial Headquarters made an announcement on the brilliant success of the Imperial Navy in the Greater East Asia War up to May 20, as follows. The Imperial Navy sent the following enemy vessels to the bottom: 6 American battleships; 2 British battleships; 5 American and 1 British aircraft carriers; 6 American cruisers; 4 Dutch cruisers; 5 British cruisers; 8 American, 12 British and Dutch destroyers; 2 American and 1 Dutch special service vessels; 50 submarines; 8 gun-boats; 5 mine-layers; 6 mine-sweepers; 9 torpedo-boats, 19 small naval vessels; and 169 merchant ships with an aggregate tonnage of about 934,000 tons. It gave a heavy damage to 4 American and 1 British battleships; 9 American, 2 British

and 1 Dutch cruisers, 11 destroyers, 5 special-service vessels, 29 submarines, 6 gun-boats, 2 mine-layers, 2 torpedo-boats, 25 small naval vessels and 129 merchant ships. Those vessels captured by the Imperial Navy were 1 special service vessel, 2 gun-boats, 2 torpedo-boats, 2 small naval vessels and 503 merchant ships. The number of enemy war-planes shot down by the Imperial Naval Air Forces was 982 and that of the damaged on the ground 1,292.

The Imperial Navy established its power over vast areas of the Pacific Ocean west of Hawaii and the Indian Ocean east of Madagascar within but 6 months from December 1941 to May 1942.

Achievements of the Imperial Army On June 7 the Imperial Headquarters made another announcement on the great achievements of the Imperial Army. According to the announcement the Imperial Army occupied a vast area of about 2,521,500 square kilometers in the South Seas, bringing a population of about 93,680,000 under its administration during the past 6 months. The Imperial Army Forces victoriously fought against the enemy strength of over 2 millions. On the China front, they met about 1,530,000 Chinese soldiers and bandits, including 900,000 in North China, 580,000 in Central China and 50,000 in South China. The Chinese left about 112,400 corpses on the battle fields, including 56,300 in North China, 53,600 in Central China and 2,500 in South China. Captives taken numbered about 44,000 altogether.

In the battles in the South Seas region, the Imperial Army Forces encountered with about 505,000 officers and soldiers of British, Australian, Indian, American, Dutch, Chinese, and Filipino troops, including 15,000 in Hongkong, 100,000 in the Philippines, 120,000 in Malaya, 120,000 in the East Indies and 150,000 in Burma. The Japanese troops crushed about one division in Hongkong, 11 divisions in the Philippines, 6.5 divisions in Malaya, 4 divisions in the East Indies and 13 divisions in Burma, or a total of 35.5 divisions. The announcement further added that the 11 divisions crushed in the Philippine district consisted of the United States first division, the Philippine national defense army composed of the 11th, 21st, 81st, 31st, 41st, 51st, 61st, 91st divisions.

The 6.5 divisions crushed in Malaya included the British 18th division, the

Australian 8th division, the Indian 9th division as well as the Indian 20th, 44th and 45th brigades, and also Malay 1st and 2nd brigades. The four divisions crushed in the East Indies included the Dutch 1st and 2nd divisions and about 15 independent battalions as well as one division of Anglo-American-Australian combined forces. The 13 divisions annihilated in Burma comprised the British 7th mechanized brigade and 6 other British battalions as well as the Indian 17th, 13th and 63rd brigades, and also the Chungking's 22nd, 96th, 200th, 55th, 93rd, 2nd, 29th and 39th divisions as well as the Burmese 1st division.

Besides, the number of enemy war-planes, shot down or damaged on the ground, reached 1,636 (241 uncertain), while one gunboat, one submarine, one torpedo-boat and 41 steamships were sunk, and one cruiser, 3 gunboats, 3 destroyers, 2 submarines, five torpedo boats and 46 steamships were heavily damaged.

The number of captives reached 342,000, composed of 25,000 Americans, 64,000 British, Canadian and Australian soldiers, 24,000 Dutch, 44,000 Chungking soldiers, 185,000 mixed soldiers taken in various battle fields. Of the total, about 100,000 Indonesians were released.

The war booties taken by the Japanese forces in the course of these campaigns included 3,763 guns, 1,440 tanks, 31,589 automobiles, 240 airplanes, 11,548 machine-guns, 216,714 rifles, 12,200 locomotives and passenger cars as well as 48 ships aggregating 117,000 tons.

Dutch Harbor On June 10, the Imperial Headquarters made an announcement of a surprise attack made by the Japanese naval units on Dutch Harbor, Alaska as well as on the Aleutians on June 4 and 5. The announcement also said that the Japanese naval units carried out fierce attacks on Midway Island on June 5 and inflicted heavy damage on the enemy fleet reinforcements. In the latter engagement, the Japanese naval units sank two United States carriers of the Enterprise and Hornet types, both of 19,000 tons, as well as one United States cruiser of the San Francisco type (9,950 tons).

The highlights of the Japanese operations during July were the two Imperial Headquarters announcements disclosing the continued successes of the Japanese submarines and naval air units. The one announcement as issued on July 24

revealed that 325 enemy planes were shot down and 109 planes smashed by naval air forces in their attacks on enemy bases in New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Horn Island and in battles over Japanese bases during the period from February 2 to July 20. On July 19, the Imperial Headquarters revealed that through relentless efforts of Japanese powerful naval forces, 59 enemy submarines were sunk in a brief period of exactly seven months and two days since the start of the Greater East Asia War.

As the war progressed, the Japanese operations were not confined only to the Pacific areas. On September 23, the Imperial Headquarters announced part of the Imperial Japanese Navy advanced to the Atlantic and were engaged in strategic operations in co-operation with the Axis navies. The announcement said that one Japanese submarine operated in the Atlantic recently called at a certain German port and again set sail for strategic waters. The announcement stressed the operations of the Japanese navy in the Atlantic with the German navy which paralleled the German naval operations in the Indian Ocean were highly significant as representing the joint-Japanese-Axis naval operations against the anti-Axis Powers.

Battles off the Solomons The Japanese navy scored another overwhelming victory on August 7 when the Japanese fleet fought against the combined Anglo-American fleet off the Solomons and sank one battleship of an unidentified type, two cruisers including one of the Astor type and another of the Australia type as well as three A-class cruisers of an unknown type.

The second battle off the Solomons was engaged on August 24 ending in the victory of the Imperial Navy.

Another sensational victory of the Japanese navy was announced by the Imperial Headquarters on November 12 stating that powerful Japanese naval and air units on November 12 attacked the enemy naval craft and transports at Guadalcanar Island in the Solomon group.

On December 3, the Imperial Headquarters made the following announcement: A Japanese Destroyer Squadron launched a furious attack on a powerful enemy naval unit off Lunga on Guadalcanar Island on the night of November 30.

The Achievements in the First Year of the Great East Asia War On December 7 the Imperial Headquarters made public the following composite war results attained by the Imperial Army and Navy during the course of the past one year.

The Imperial Army:

The Southern Area and the Area of the Aleutians:

Strength of the enemy forces engaged 600,000

Bodies left behind by the enemy 51,000

Prisoners taken 303,000

Trophies:

Guns of various types 3,620

Heavy and light machine-guns 11,300

Other firearms 206,000

Tanks 1,440

Automobiles 31,700

Railway carriages 12,200

Planes:

Shot down 731

Destroyed 993

Captured 235

Total 1,959

Enemy naval and merchant vessels sunk and heavily damaged 104

The China area:

Strength of the enemy forces engaged 3,600,000

Number of engagements 25,000

Bodies left behind by the enemy 280,000

Prisoners taken 123,000

Trophies:

Guns of various types 846

Heavy and light machine-guns 3,200

Other firearms 159,100

Automobiles 129

Railway carriages 208

Planes captured, shot down and destroyed 118

Note: Of the results given, those concerning planes and merchant vessels are as ascertained up to November 30. The others are as ascertained up to October 31.

The Imperial Navy:

War Vessels Sunk:

Battleships 11

Aircraft Carriers (including seaplane tenders) 11

Cruisers 46

Destroyers 48

Special Service Shps 4

Submarines 93

Gunboats 8

Mine-layers 5

Mine-sweepers 7

Torpedo-boats 9

Other small and special war vessels 19

Warship (type unidentified) 1

Total 262

War Vessels Damaged:

Battleships 9

Aircraft Carriers 4

Cruisers 19

Destroyers 23

Special Service Ships 2

Submarines 58

Gunboats 6

Mine-layers 2

Mine-sweeper 1

Torpedo-boats 2

Other small and special war vessels 26

Warships (type unidentified) 3

Total 155

Special Service Ships, Gun-

boats, Mine-sweepers, torpedo-boats and others captured 9

Transport and other ships:

Sunk or damaged 418

(2,240,000 tons)

Captured 503

(220,000 tons)

Warplanes shot down or

damaged Over 3,798

Note: The figures are for the one year ending December 7, 1942.

The loss of the Imperial Army and Navy sustained during the same period is insignificant as compared with that of the enemy forces mentioned above, all battles ending in the victory of the Japanese forces.

So far the main steps and development of the Greater East Asia War were mentioned in a summary way. In closing the special section of the national defense of Japan, several minute records of the victorious battles of the Japanese forces in the beginning of the present war are hereunder extracted as examples of the fierce battle in which the brave men of Dai Nippon have fully manifested and are clearly revealing their loyalty to His Majesty the Emperor and the country.

The Battle of Hawaii

The following is an eye-witness account of the Hawaiian debacles on December 8, 1941, (Japan Time) told by a commander who led the air squadron which made the historic attack on Pearl Harbor and startled the whole world, and sent shivers running down the national spine of the United States.

"We received the order to attack Oahu Island at sea. At that time our ship was sailing east. The order we had long been waiting for had come at last. We were all expecting it, and we felt a thrill of excitement run through our entire being as the order was delivered to us. The order was read to all aboard the ship when the famous Z flag was hoisted atop the main mast. The Z flag which fluttered in the breeze of the Japan Sea atop the mast of the flagship Mikasa 37 years ago, once more waved in the wind of the Pacific Ocean. As we looked upon the flag fluttering atop the mast, tears swelled into our eyes. Hot blood ran through our bodies, telling us that now we were made the masters of the historic moment in which the rise or fall of the Japanese Empire would be determined. While giving out his final instruction to us, the commander of the raiding air squadron said, 'I expect all of you to fulfil your duty without fail even at the sacrifice of your life.' Our hearts were filled by overflowing happiness and joy that we were able to take part in the historical battle which was about to take place. A few minutes later, the Z flag was lowered. Our ship was sailing eastward at an amazing speed.

"The weather was rather bad, but every preparation for battle was being made. The deck crew presented the flying crew with strips of white cloth, asking the latter to fight with these pieces of white cloth tightly bound round their heads, and to think that the spirit of the deck crew was always with them in those pieces of white cloth. Ten minutes before the sun-rise on the morning of December 8, (7th Hawaii Time) we received the order to take off. In his order, our commander said, 'We have succeeded in carrying out coup de main. Now all men charge.' It was still dark with the weather condition little improved. Our ship was rolling over the big swell of the sea. A north-easterly gale with a velocity of 17 meters a second was blowing.

"The skies 1,500 to 2,000 meters above

the sea were covered with thick clouds. Under such circumstances, it was thought very difficult, if not absolutely impossible, to rush a large formation of planes for the surprise attack on Pearl Harbor. If we were not engaged in war, the flight under such weather conditions would have been postponed. But the training we underwent for years in the past was just for this day, and for this morning! Whether the weather was favorable or not was out of question.

"Planes took off one by one from the deck of the ship which was now pitching and rolling wildly. Flying high above the ship, I silently prayed that every one of us would make good in the surprise attack on Hawaii. Having arrayed ourselves in a formation, we rushed toward Hawaii at full speed. What worried me most as the commander of the formation, however, was whether or not we can reach Hawaii in due time. Might there not be mistake in the measurement of the distance between Oahu Island and our ship, which had arrived in the offing of Hawaii after cruising such a long distance? If so we can never reach our destination. While I was thus thinking, the sun rose from the distant horizon.

"In the South Seas, I can usually see as far as 30 to 50 miles from the plane, but now the view was almost zero as the skies were covered with dense white clouds. As the mountains on the Hawaiian Islands stand some 1,000 meters high, they could be seen by us at least 20 minutes before our arrival there. I calculated, and was looking through my glass in the likely direction when the coast line of Oahu Island jumped into the lens of the glass. Then, my glass caught an airfield just below my feet. 'Now is the time for all to make a thrust at the enemy,' I realized, and immediately ordered all the planes under my command to take the battle formation. Each squad took its position respectively, some high and some low according to the task to be performed by each. Pearl Harbor was fast asleep in the morning mist, and no smoke was rising from the numerous American warships anchored in the calm waters in the Bay. We saw barracks standing in good order, and automobile highways winding up to the summit. Especially white-washed oil tanks lined along the shore offered the best targets. In the harbor the capital ships of the United States Pacific Fleet were at anchor two by two.

"The torpedo planes began swooping

straight down on the enemy battleships. It was very difficult for our torpedo plane units to make an assault on the enemy ships en masse as the harbor was narrow and shallow. So these planes had to attack the ships in the harbor in turn. One plunged down as low as a few meters above the water while another approached within a few hundred meters of the battleships, and hurled torpedoes against them. Two torpedoes raced toward the marked battleships, leaving behind them two white traces over the water. I was following with my eyes these two torpedoes in rapt admiration when tremendous columns of water flew high up in the air from the side of a battleship. The torpedoes had hit the side of the capital ship! The huge pillars of water were as high as the clouds hanging over the bay. The water-sprouts, large and small, high and low, stood up incessantly from the surging sea. All this was done within three or four minutes. The enemy anti-aircraft batteries were still silent, and no enemy fighter yet appeared in front of us. We took the enemy completely by surprise. 'We succeeded in making a surprise attack on the enemy,'—this was the first message I flashed to our mother ship. In the wake of the torpedo planes, the dive-bombers went straight down on the marked enemy warships. A few seconds later, the hangars and planes on the ground were wrapped up in red-black flames. As the units of the torpedo planes and dive-bombers turned up after having dealt the first blows upon the enemy ships, hangars and planes, the shells of the high-angle guns began bursting around my plane. Now it was my turn to shower the special large bombs on these American ships. I carefully aimed at one large battleship just below my plane, while flying at the head of the formation. But the air currents were so bad that I could not take aim. I turned my plane as I was afraid of missing the mark. Once more I swerved my plane amid the enemy shells exploding right and left, and others followed my step. I took aim again for the third time. This time, the enemy battleship was caught right in the middle of my sight. While I was about to push the button, I felt a great shock about myself. I looked behind, and witnessed a pillar of fire as long as 500 meters shooting up from below. Later on, I found out that that pillar of fire had been caused by a torpedo shot at an enemy battleship

by the special attacking flotilla, which had patiently been waiting for the commencement of the aerial bombardment of Pearl Harbor below the sea in the bay.

"To be sure, it was the explosion of the powder-magazine of the enemy battleship. The lower-half of the ship was torn off, and the water around it was covered with the black heavy oil oozing out of the destroyed ship. It was the ship of the Arizona type. Now the firing of the anti-aircraft guns became intensified. Shells and bullets made thick walls all around our planes. A bullet pierced through the left side of the fuselage of the commander's plane while gasoline began to leak from the body of the No. 5 plane, but no plane dropped out of the line. I signalled to the No. 5 plane, asking the extent of the damage it received. Soon the reply was made. The pilot of the No. 5 plane simply said, 'No heavy damage at all. Only our reserve tank is hit, and nothing else.' All continued the most relentless attacks to their hearts' content caring neither for life nor death. The dive-bombers and fighters were making vigorous and daring assaults on the enemy large-size bombers and fighting machines, numbering 200 in all, neatly lined up on the Wheeler Airfield, and the hangars were blowing up black smokes. Perhaps some oil tanks were also set on fire. The sky became dark with the rising smokes, making it impossible for the enemy airmen to take to the air to meet the Japanese. Again I turned my plane, and took aim at one of the battleships lined up in pairs, the easiest target to hit in the world. One squad sprang at one battleship while the other assailed another. Ruthless assaults were inflicted upon these high-prized craft of the United States Pacific Fleet, in a relay fashion, first by torpedo planes, then, dive-bombers, and the horizontal bombers at last. When No. 1 plane attacked, a water-sprout of some 100 meters high shot up. In order to avoid being hit by this sprout, the No. 2 plane had to wait until the sprout went down. So our planes circled over the enemy ships beneath with great composure, waiting for their turn to discharge their deadly load. At about this time, the assaults of the torpedo planes reached the climax. Some of them caught fire as they were hit by the enemy shells when the pilots of these planes were trying to jump over the

ships after letting loose the torpedoes within the nearest possible distance of their targets. Shooting balls of fire, these planes kept their respective positions as firm as possible until they crushed themselves against the enemy ships. My eyes actually witnessed a plane diving into the deck of a huge warship.

"While we were about to return after having accomplished our purpose, Pearl Harbor was standing out in bold relief in the rays of the morning sun. In the bright sun-shine, I saw a battleship split in two in the thick layer of heavy oil, two battleships overturned, disgracefully exposing their red abdomens to the air, another on its way down to the bottom of the sea with its side inclining 45 degrees, and three others wrapped up in flames. Not a single enemy capital ship along the shore of Ford's Island escaped our relentless bombardment which was conducted with deadly accuracy. I circled over the harbor as many times as the fuel of my plane could permit, because I could not give up my hope, though very frail, of seeing once more my wounded subordinates coming on my trail while operating their damaged planes as best they can, although I witnessed the end of some of these ill-fated planes with my own eyes several minutes ago. As soon as the planes under my command returned to our mother ship, the new raiders took off. It was to deliver coup de grace to the crippled forces of the United States Pacific Fleet in Pearl Harbor."

The Special Attack Flotilla The brilliant achievements of the Special Attack Flotilla in its most dauntless assault on Pearl Harbor, unequalled in the annals of the naval history of the world was made public in a communique issued by the Imperial Headquarters on March 6 at 3 p.m.

The communique reads: As to the daring attack of Pearl Harbor by the Special Attack Flotilla, announcements were already made on various occasions. The plan of the attack which struck the world with amazement and wonder was conceived by Lieutenant Iwasa and several other officers who took part in the heroic coup de main on December 8, 1941. Several months before the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia these officers resolved to fulfil their highest duty of serving His Majesty the Emperor and their country through the realization of the said plan in case of emer-

gency, and submitted the plan with detailed explanation to the Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet of the Imperial Navy through their superiors.

Having examined the plan carefully, the Commander-in-Chief was convinced of the high probability of success of the plan, and also the possibility of taking back safely the crew of the flotilla after the fulfilment of their purpose, and complied with the ardent wishes of the applicants. The non-commissioned officers who participated in this illustrious undertaking were the cream of the personnel of the Imperial Navy. All of these non-commissioned officers were the most trusted and intimate subordinates of the said officers. As it was their pledge to die together with their superiors if necessary, no special step was taken to invite volunteers for the enforcement of the plan. As officers simply requested for permission to take these non-commissioned officers with them, the request was readily complied with by the Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet.

The project was strictly kept in secret even among the personnel of the Navy, and these selected officers and non-commissioned officers and engineers and mechanics worked day and night frantically for the construction of the flotilla and the conducting of experiments with the designed boats as well as for making every preparation and undergoing training. On account of their strenuous efforts, the building of the flotilla which demonstrated fully to the world the excellent technical ability of the Imperial Navy and the unique loyal spirit of those who manned the flotilla and the devotion of the engineers and mechanics who built the craft, was completed within a short space of time just before the outbreak of the current war.

Needless to say, every necessary measure was considered for the bringing back of the crew after the fulfilment of the purpose, but much difficulty was anticipated about it, for the vigilance against our ships by the enemy would be multiplied after the attack had been carried out, and besides, the flotilla would have to make its way out of the harbor through a long narrow watercourse strewn with the wreckage of the sunken enemy ships in the teeth of the intense counter-attacks by the enemy forces. Considering all this, the crew also made preparations for sinking the craft by

their own hands, when necessary.

The Special Attack Flotilla, confident of its success under the glory of the Imperial Throne and Providence left the base secretly on a certain day of a certain month. The flotilla sailed straight to Pearl Harbor. By the steady and smart operation of the boats, the whole flotilla finally got into the harbor, breaking through the enemy mines and nets planted and drawn throughout the waters near the entrance of the harbor and sailed through a complicated water-course leading into the harbor from the offing of Oahu Island.

Having assaulted on the enemy warships in the day and making a thrust at them at night, the flotilla carried out the most daring undertaking ever known in the annals of the sea-battles of the world. After having discharged their supreme duty, the crew died the most glorious death, sharing the same fate as the boats which now lie at the bottom of the Pearl Harbor.

Above all, the sinking of the enemy battleship of the Arizona type was most amazing. The sinking of that battleship with a great detonation was recognized distinctly even by our naval forces then operating outside Pearl Harbor. On December 8 at 4:31 p.m. (December 7th, 9:10 p.m., Hawaii Time),—two minutes after the moon-rise—a great explosion occurred in Pearl Harbor. Flames soared into the sky and fragments of red-hot iron flew high up in the air. Before the flames were extinguished, the enemy anti-aircraft batteries were brought into full play, apparently under the impression that the action was the result of the Japanese air attack. At 6:11 p.m. the same day (10:41 p.m. Hawaii Time), one craft of the flotilla began to send wireless messages to our naval forces operating outside the harbor, reporting the success of the surprise attack. However, the radio message ceased at 7:14 p.m., and nothing was heard from that craft ever since.

Most probably, the Special Attack Flotilla sank itself by its own hands, realizing that there was no means of getting out of the harbor; or the flotilla might have been destroyed by enemy hands.

When the flotilla carried out its daring attack on enemy capital ships during the day time, only a few enemy ships seemed to have grasped the situation correctly, that is to say, the havoc was wrought by the underwater craft from

Japan. So the majority of the enemy forces in the harbor totally failed to ascertain what was the cause of the explosion that had blown up the ship of the Arizona type.

It is easy to imagine that the damage inflicted on the enemy fleet by the Special Attack Flotilla would have been quite large as the whole harbor was immediately plunged into great confusion. It is very difficult, however, to ascertain exactly the extent of the damage wrought by the flotilla or to distinguish the work of destruction done by the flotilla from that by the naval planes.

Upon their start for Hawaii from the base, the crew of the flotilla was ordered to come back to the base as soon as the attack was over, but none of the crew seemed to have paid much attention to that order. In fact, none returned to the base after the attack. Undoubtedly all the crew of the flotilla, whose minds were not at all bothered by the idea of life and death, must have been too busy in smashing the enemy craft to think about their safe return to the base. Amid the shower of bombs and torpedoes let loose by our naval planes flying all over the harbor, they made dauntless assaults on American capital ships from such a close distance as the never recorded in history.

When the bright tropical moon of Hawaii rose over the mountains of Oahu Island, the boats manned by these fearless Samurai from Japan quietly floated up to the surface of the water from the bottom of Pearl Harbor where they had patiently been awaiting for hours the best chances to strike, and after ascertaining in the bright moon-light the exact extent of the damage they inflicted on the enemy fleet during the day time, they delivered coup de grace to those already crippled but unsunk.

The unique fighting spirit which was displayed by the crew of the Special Attack Flotilla fully demonstrated the glorious tradition of the Imperial Navy, adorning as it does the first page of the history of the current war against the United States and the British Empire with the unforgettable memoirs of its magnificent achievements in the Pearl Harbor.

The names of those who manned the Special Attack Flotilla were revealed in a communique issued by the Navy Ministry on March 6. In appreciation of

their distinguished services, they have all been promoted posthumously to ranks two grades higher than those held by them at the time of their death, according to the same communiqué.

These national heroes, who are now called "Nine Gods of War" are:

Commander Naoji Iwasa

Lieutenant-Commander Masaji Yokoyama

Lieutenant-Commander Shigemitsu Furu-no

Lieutenant Akira Hiroo

Special Lieutenant Shigenori Yokolama

Special Lieutenant Naokichi Sasaki

Chief Warrant Officer Sadamu Uyeda

Chief Warrant Officer Yoshio Katayama

Chief Warrant Officer Kiyoshi Inagaki

Sinking of the Prince of Wales

Ever since the outbreak of World War II, nothing has given such a tremendous shock to the British navy as the sinking of the Prince of Wales and the Repulse, which formed the backbone of Britain's Asiatic Fleet, in the waters off Kuantan, Malaya, by the air arm of the Japanese Navy. The air units of the Imperial Navy have added a brilliant page to the annals of the Imperial Navy by sending to the bottom of the sea off Malaya almost instantly, these two British super-dreadnoughts, the pride of the British navy.

The following is the full report of the Battle off Malaya given to the Japanese press by the members of a certain naval air unit, which participated in that historic battle.

Hitherto the main force of the British Asiatic Fleet operating in the East Asian waters with Singapore at the center has been made of cruisers. Britain, however, decided to dispatch a capital ship to the Oriental waters to reinforce the defense of its dominions and colonies in East Asia when it saw the war clouds had begun to hang over and lower over the south-western Pacific during the latter part of 1941. It was on December 2nd of that year that the famous unsinkable 35,000 tonner, Prince of Wales, arrived at Singapore. Britain proudly announced to the world, "With the arrival of the Prince of Wales, the defense of Malaya has become complete."

Upon receipt of the reports that Japanese troops had landed on Singora and Kotabharu immediately after the start of lightning attacks on British and Ame-

rican possessions in the Pacific, Admiral Sir Thomas Philips, Commander-in-Chief of the British Asiatic Fleet immediately put his entire fleet on duty. On the very night of December 8, the Prince of Wales, accompanied by one battleship and three destroyers, left Singapore and sailed northward. Apparently they planned to attack Japanese convoys at sea.

A Japanese submarine sighted this group of British warships north of Ananbas Island on December 9 at 3:15 p.m. The weather was very bad on this day, however. The clouds were hanging very low, and violent squalls were raging all over the sea. The Japanese submarine was for a while on the trail of the enemy battleships but lost sight of in the squall at 5:25 p.m.

Our fleet was put in battle-formation as it was informed by this submarine of the appearance of the enemy battleships and all the units of our Naval Air Force each led by its commander and heavily loaded with bombs and torpedoes took to the air toward 6 p.m.

Describing the activities of our Naval Air Force on this day a Lieutenant, who was decorated on November 3, 1941, with the Fourth Order of the Golden Kite for his distinguished services he had rendered in the bombing of Chungking and other places in China said:

"While we were talking about a plan of attacking the British battleships, in order to attack the Prince of Wales and the Repulse was delivered to us.

"We were extremely happy. We knew that the Prince of Wales was now in Singapore and were just talking about the sinking of that high-prized British battleship by flinging our planes heavily loaded with torpedoes at it. Our planes hugged torpedoes and were soon ready to start.

"Our commander, standing in front of the lined-up men said, in his instruction. 'This is the best chance we ever had. We return here dead. Let us meet each other in the Yasukuni Shrine.' When I heard these words from the commander, I felt something hot thrusting up my heart. The members of our units, not to mention the commanders, were all veterans of aerial combats, each having bombing experiences ranging between 50 and 100 times to his credit. But it was the first time for all of them to be engaged in an operation of this nature, and our hearts were filled with such deep and inexplicable emotion.

"Unluckily it was a moon-less night

and we knew that the moon would not rise until after midnight. We had only about one hour and a half before the sunset. It was very difficult for us to spot the enemy at a time like this. We, nevertheless, flew southward in search of the spot where the submarine had lost trail of the Prince of Wales and the Repulse.

"Suddenly we saw ahead of us thick clouds spreading far and wide and our formation immediately plunged into the squall. It became dark, but we continued the hunt, scanning the surface of the sea through darkness. We could not find the enemy and our commander ordered at last to return to the base.

"The Prince of Wales and other British craft had been fleeing back to Singapore as they felt danger lying quite close to them. But our efforts were finally rewarded. At 3:40 a.m. the following morning our submarine sighted the enemy fleet again. The flash relayed to our base by the submarine made all the 'Sea Eagles' very happy, who had hardly slept the previous night as they were vexed at their failure of spotting the enemy. The weather condition, however, was not much better than the day before. The clouds were still hanging low over the sea. Soon we received from the submarine a discouraging news that it had again lost its contact with the enemy fleet. So the Naval Air Force decided to dispatch reconnaissance planes, and under the command of a certain Lieutenant, several planes took off from the base at dawn. The weather condition was little better with thick black clouds spreading far and wide over the sea, and sight was almost zero. At 8:30 a.m., several units of torpedo planes took to the air, immediately followed by the units of other torpedo planes and bombers.

"The enemy battleships were first spotted by the No. 3 plane of the reconnaissance squad, piloted by a sub-lieutenant. While that sub-lieutenant was flying through the cloud walls, he noticed that he had already flown past the marked line. So he turned round, and was flying back to the marked line when he glimpsed through the clouds two battleships guarded by three destroyers on the sea below. All the crew in his plane held their breath. 'Oh!' they exclaimed, and said nothing else. What a luck and chance! They doubted their own eyes. The sub-lieutenant grasped the control stick and

swooped down. A few minutes later, the large ships below began flashing. Within a second everything became clear to him. It was the enemy and the enemy ships started cross-firing. 'At 11:45 a.m., the enemy battleships were sighted at lat. 4° N. and long. 103° 55' E.' was flashed by the plane to all others in flight. Flying from clouds to clouds, the plane kept on scouting and soon could see the close-up figure of the entire enemy fleet. 'The main force of the enemy fleet is guarded by three destroyers. The battleships are a ship of the King George type and the Repulse.' This message was wired at 0:05 p.m. Having received this message, all the torpedo planes and bombers rushed to the direction given by that scout-plane. Several bombers led by a lieutenant first appeared over the marked spot at 0:45 p.m. This formation of bombers was rushing to the spot when the crew found three destroyers of the given description. The bombers kept on flying for about five minutes and then the pilots saw clearly several white long-drawn traces over the waters just below. The enemy battleships were there! The eyes of the crew flashed with great joy and satisfaction.

The First Bombing of the Repulse
"The enemy fleet was sailing toward Singapore in perfect formation with three destroyers at its head, and the Prince of Wales and the Repulse running side by side behind them. It was just one hour since the No. 3 scout-plane sighted the enemy for the first time. When the bombers under the command of the said lieutenant were ready to let loose the huge bombs, they received immense shocks which made the entire crew dizzy. Now the enemy ships brought their anti-aircraft guns into full play. The wings clanged as the bullets hit them, and the bombers were wrapped up in the brownish smokes of powder. At this moment our men calmly pushed the button. The huge bombs were swallowed into the Repulse. One of them scored a direct hit on the quarter-deck of the battleship and columns of black smokes shot high up in the air. At the same moment there stood several columns of water from both sides of the ship—higher than the masts. 'Hit hit!' the crew shouted. Now the formation of the enemy ships was thrown into confusion.

The First Attack on the Prince of

Wales "It was at 1:08 p.m. that our Naval Air Force started attacking the Prince of Wales. The torpedo-plane units under the command of a commander and lieutenant-commander had made frantic efforts to catch the enemy fleet at the entrance of Singapore. The search was unsuccessful up to the noon of the day. On this day the weather was fine in the vicinity of Singapore and they could point at Singapore and Batam Island under the cloudless skies. When the units were flying past the waters near the entrance of Singapore, the report of the sighting of the enemy fleet was received. They changed the course and were flying back toward the given direction when a destroyer steaming at full speed in the direction of Singapore was sighted, but no enemy battleships were sighted. 'The Prince of Wales must be around here, if the message were correct,' they all thought and were greatly discouraged, believing that they missed the Prince of Wales once more. All of sudden, through a break in the clouds, two white traces were seen. It was 1:08 p.m. Three destroyers were marching ahead of the Prince of Wales, and the Repulse, from which black smoke was gushing out, was seen to its left side.

"Our planes all hugging heavy torpedoes under their wings started power-diving one after another. One group made a thrust against the Prince of Wales and the other challenged the Repulse. The five enemy ships simultaneously opened fire. The air was instantly filled with brownish smoke and the roar of the anti-aircraft batteries and pompom guns and the sea looked white by the splashes made by the falling fragments of enemy bullets. One, who knows that the Prince of Wales alone can fire 60,000 bullets a minute, can imagine how intense the enemy fire was at this moment.

"The planes of each unit under the command of the said commander and lieutenant attacked the Prince of Wales and the Repulse one by one with deadly accuracy as if they were doing a drill. A torpedo shot by plane No. 1 hit the Prince of Wales and a high column of water sprang up at the ship's side. Another torpedo let loose by the No. 1 plane at the Repulse, also scored a direct hit. Seriously wounded, these two enemy battleships writhed with agony and began to change their course. The Prince of Wales turned to the right and the Repulse to the left. The No. 2

planes of the attacking units hurled the deadly missiles at them from right and left. The No. 2 plane, which assaulted the Prince of Wales, was about to fly past the starboard after shooting the torpedo, when it spat out red flames and in flames nose-dived into the sea. At the same moment, the torpedo shot by that plane wedged itself deep into the body of this pride of the British Navy. Within a short space of eight minutes from 1:14 p.m. to 1:22 p.m. all the torpedoes were flung at these two British battleships. To all the crew of our torpedo planes, the deadly struggles of eight minutes seemed hours. In order to discharge torpedoes at right angles against the enemy craft they had to come, hopping over the sea and after letting loose the torpedo, jump barely over the masts. Our men saw the enemy officers and men running about on the deck in great haste and the firing of the famous pompom guns. The machine-guns of our planes poured bullets over the heads of those frenzied British sailors.

"When the commander was circling over the ships in order to ascertain the results of the assault another unit of torpedo planes appeared on the scene. This unit, in two groups, immediately commenced business. Once again the Prince of Wales received a few hits, and inclined 45 degrees. The crew of the commander's plane stood up and shouted 'Banzai,' but look! the Prince of Wales gradually recovered its lost balance and assumed its original position. What a statilical stability! Despite the heavy damage caused by several torpedoes it regained the balance true to the proud name of 'Unsinkable' super-dreadnought. Quietness reigned the sea once more. The Repulse was still running, blowing up white smoke. The commander turned the nose of his machine to the base reluctantly.

The Sinking of the Repulse "The Prince of Wales and the Repulse were hurrying back to Singapore. Apart from those which made daring attacks on these two enemy battleships, a unit of torpedo planes had left the base at 8:15 o'clock on that morning. This unit, like others, could not find the enemy fleet, and was flying past the Ananbas Island when it received the flash from the scout plane No. 3. The unit spotted the British ships at 1:48 p.m. At that time, the Repulse lagged some 2,500 meters behind

the Prince of Wales. Very fortunately, through the break of clouds, the entire British fleet was sighted clearly. Instantly the enemy men-of-war covered themselves with a barrage of fire. The No. 1 plane operated by a young lieutenant swooped on them like a hawk. His plane jerked its body wildly amid the exploding shells. It threw a torpedo at the Prince of Wales and hopped a few feet over its bridge. The machine-guns mopped the enemy sailors on the deck, who stuck to their guns. The crew of the plane saw the pale and starched faces of the enemy sailors. The commander of this unit turned back and saw the big splashes rising high from the side of the Prince of Wales. The torpedoes shot by the No. 2 and No. 3 planes also hit the mark. It was a miracle that these planes could charge through such an intense protective barrage. The planes led by that young lieutenant swooped down on the Prince of Wales and flung torpedoes at it with deadly accuracy, scoring hits on its side. It was at this moment that the No. 2 plane under his command caught fire and nose-dived into the sea. But the torpedo of this hapless machine struck the enemy ship. All men aboard other planes witnessed this sublime and glorious end of the No. 2 plane, and rose from their seats in the plane and bld good-bye to this lost hero. The No. 3 plane suffered the same fate, although its torpedo shocked the enemy battleship once more. While this unit was heavily pounding the Prince of Wales, other bombers and torpedo-planes were tearing off the Repulse like a bunch of sharks attacking a wounded whale. The huge body of the Repulse trembled and made a sharp turn. It gradually inclined, indicating the approach of its end. One destroyer drew near it. But it was soon hit by a torpedo and sank at once. At last the quarter-deck of the Repulse was submerged, but no man on the deck left his respective post, displaying the traditional spirit of the British Navy. With a sudden and immense jerk, the Repulse went down to the bottom of the sea. "The Repulse sunk!" our men rose and yelled. Before the Repulse sank, we scored so many hits and lost two planes. The Prince of Wales, now inclined to the left, was in flames. Black smoke is gushing out of the central part of the ship. Yet it was still running north at the speed of some 10 knots. In this deadly struggle with the Prince of

Wales, a young non-commissioned officer under the said lieutenant distinguished himself by carrying out the most daring attack in such a manner that made his superiors overjoyed. When this non-commissioned officer came shooting down on the Prince of Wales, the ship made a sharp turn as it received a huge torpedo. He missed his chance to hurl the torpedo. So he climbed up and circled over the masts of the ship once again in sheer disregard of the shells bursting out all around his plane. Calmly he aimed again and then delivered the coup de grace to the Prince of Wales.

The Last of the Prince of Wales
"Though the Repulse was sunk, the Prince of Wales was still on the water. With its inflexible will and indomitable fighting spirit, it continued fighting. Now our new bombing squadron appeared on the scene. When these bombers were about to set to work, a destroyer began to draw a curtain of smoke over the Prince of Wales. Our bombers lost no time in letting loose their special large bombs. One hit the mast and the other, the quarter-deck. With a great detonation, a section near the base of the mast exploded. Thick smoke, some of it brown and some black whirled high up in the air—the explosion of the powder-magazine! The side of the ship inclined more but it still held its right position. A great number of the crew of the Repulse were seen adrift on life-boats and boards. The flaming quarter-deck of the Prince of Wales was now only one meter above the water which was glittering ominously with the heavy oil oozing out of the sinking of the 'Unsinkable' dreadnought. Fatally wounded as it was, the Prince of Wales kept on cruising at the speed of about eight knots an hour, a destroyer faithfully following it 100 meters behind. After a short while it lost the speed all of sudden, and came to a stand-still. The destroyer came up hurrying and stood alongside. At this moment big flames shot up from the Prince of Wales with deafening detonation. Another explosion followed. The huge body of the battleship was swallowed up by the blue water with stern foremost. It was 30 seconds after the destroyer had stood alongside. There was no time to rescue the crew of the sinking ship.

"Admiral Sir Thomas Philips, Commander-in-Chief of the British Asiatic Fleet and his staff officers shared the

same fate with the Prince of Wales. Now the main force of the British Asiatic Fleet was annihilated. Our naval airmen who witnessed the most impressive moment in the war history of the century seemed to have forgotten to speak for a while. Overwhelmed by uncontrollable emotions, they looked at each other in silence with tearful eyes. Suddenly, as if awakened from a long dream, they burst into a frenzy of joy as they shouted 'Banzai' at the top of their voice.

"When several planes were circling over the sea which swallowed the two British capital ships, three British fighters came flying at an amazing speed. As the base of the British air force at Kuantan had been bombed by Japanese raiders, they might have come here from a far-off base. Six other fast planes also came to the scene, and rose to challenge us over the waters where the two British capital ships had met their end. Our planes ran into the clouds to avert these British fighters, and sped to the base. After flying through clouds for a while, our men turned back and saw no British planes on their trail. In this Battle off Malaya marked with the most brilliant victories, we lost only three planes, and a man was wounded aboard a plane."

One of the rescued crew of the Prince of Wales, in an interview with the members of the Naval Press Corps at the naval base of Shonan (Singapore) on March 3 related the death of Admiral Sir Thomas Phillips, Commander-in-Chief of the British Asiatic Fleet, as follows:

"Admiral Sir Thomas Phillips was always standing on the bridge. When our ship was about to sink, a destroyer came close to our ship and signaled to the Admiral, 'Please come on board our ship.' But the Admiral said: 'No. Thank you,' and while saluting the crew of the destroyer, he went down with the Prince of Wales. Captain Leech of the Prince of Wales, who was standing by Admiral Phillips on the bridge, also raised his hand to the crew of the destroyer and was swallowed into the sea when the ship raised its stern high up in the air."

The Malay Campaign

Singapore upon which the British Government had relied for its defense of all British possessions in East Asia collapsed before the relentless attacks of the Imperial Forces and fell into Japa-

nese hands on February 15, 1942.

The fall of Singapore, together with the surrender of Hongkong at the outset of the war, marked the first stage in the wholesale retreat of British Imperialism from East Asia. For the Japanese, the collapse of Singapore meant the end of the first stage of the war in a series of brilliant victories. The Japanese Army Forces, which effected landings in the face of the enemy on Singora and Koo Bharu on the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula on December 8, 1941, simultaneously with the declaration of war on the United States and the British Empire, smashed the stubborn resistance offered by the combined forces of Britain and Australia along the Jitler line, at Slim and in Johore, and pursuing the British, Australian and Indian troops under the torrid tropical sun and through the steaming jungles, covered the peninsula from one end to the other—a distance of some 1,100 kilometers—in 55 days.

The following is a full report of the Malay campaign starting with the landing at Singora, and ending in the fall of Singapore, as told by the chief staff officer of the Japanese Army Forces in the Malay Region, who directed the historical operations on that front:

"Here I will tell you about the strategic and tactical operations of the historic Malay campaign that taxed the resources of the staff officers to the utmost. At first, let me give you a general picture of the Malay front. The distance between the point at which we first landed and Singapore is about 1,100 kilometers—a distance equal to that between Tokyo and Shimonoseki. In the blitzkrieg on the western front in Europe, the Germans advanced 15 kilometers a day on an average, and 30 kilometers in the best conditions. According to the records of the current war in Europe, the Germans took from 50 to 60 days to cover a distance of 1,100 kilometers. I calculated that the Malay campaign, starting with the landing at Singora to the capture of Singapore, would take at least 100 days. Our Army Forces will take about a month for the landing operations and they will be at Johore Bharu three months after the landing and then two or three weeks would be necessary to complete the occupation of Singapore. In other words the campaign must come to an end by March 10, the 100th day from the start of the War of Greater East Asia, at

accordingly laid out plans to reduce Singapore by the auspicious day of Kigen-setsu. But in actuality, the campaign came to a close in 70 days.

Landing on Singora "I was very much worried about whether or not a large army can be transported safely over a distance of several hundred kilometers across the sea from its base to Singora under constant danger of being attacked by enemy submarines and bombers. According to the principles of strategy, a vanguard must have been sent first and then, the main force of the army sent under cover of the vanguard. But in the Singora landing operations nothing of this sort was done. All the principles of strategy were disregarded. No scouts were dispatched and several contingents of army forces were sent out across the waters which were patrolled from time to time and guarded strictly by enemy planes and craft. We ran a great risk. Our Army pretended to advance into Bangkok and the enemy never expected that we would land in southern Thailand or Singora.

"The ingenuity of the staff officers was fully taxed in this operation. The ardent wishes on the part of the Army to carry out the landing operations according to its own plan moved the Navy and it promised to cooperate fully with the Army in the hazardous undertaking. Indeed the Army was much obliged to the commander of a fleet who directly assisted with his ships for the landing of troops at Singora in close coordination with Lieutenant-General Tomoyuki Yamashita, Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Army Forces in the Malay Regions. The enemy had several airfields 100 or 200 kilometers away from Singora, but the Army had to use the poorly-constructed airfields which were about 1,000 kilometers away from it. The distance was too large for the Army planes. So the Army built two airfields in 15 days on an isle near Singora. The construction of the air base on the island was the greatest cause of the success of the landing. Our fighters could fly back and forth with ease between the isle and Singora and protect the landing troops from the air.

"The topographical features of southern Thailand make it impossible for a large army to bring its power into full play. Under such topographical condition, an army however large it may be, cannot have a front of more than a battalion. In other words, even if we

attacked the enemy with one battalion of troops, the enemy, restricted by this topographical condition, would not be able to make effective counter-attacks. Seeing a great advantage for our Army in the nature of southern Thailand, I drastically changed the contents of the original plan of operations. The original plan of landing troops on Singora after the completion of the air base on the said isle near Singora was discarded and a new plan was conceived whereby a battalion of troops could be marched as far as the Perak River over a distance of 350 kilometers from Singora without awaiting the arrival of reinforcements there. This change in the plan of operations made immediately before the enforcement of the landing operations became a basic factor in bringing about an epochal success of the Malay campaign. Without losing time, a battalion of picked soldiers was organized. I resolved to go with it. I had never seen in my life a group of men so cheerful and serene as this battalion which had determined to walk into the mouth of Death.

"The landing on Singora was conducted on December 8 at 3.40 a.m., from the ship on which the Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Army Forces in the Malay Regions sailed at the head of the convoy. When the convoy arrived on the shore of Singora, the homes of the natives along the shore were lighted brilliantly. A company of soldiers was soon ordered to seize the British consulate there. I first entered the building and found a tall fellow who spoke to me in English. As I hardly understand English, a soldier who talked English fluently, interpreted for me what the tall fellow said. "Are you Chinese soldiers?" he asked and we said, "No." "Thai soldiers?" he asked again. When we replied that we were not the soldiers of Thailand but the soldiers from Japan, that man yelled, raised his hands and stood petrified. We, however, could not afford to spend much time on such an incident, for we had to break through the border into Malaya as soon as possible. Fortunately we met a unit of Japanese contingents patrolling the border. Although the unit was only 200 strong, the commander of the unit consented to assist us to force our way into enemy territory. Soon the unit together with a company of tank force and field artillery began moving into the Malayan jungle.

"We first encountered the enemy at Sadao. On the night of December 9, I looked into the darkness beyond the border line, but heard no shots or rifles nor saw the enemy. For a while I walked with Captain Oshima of the Saeki unit through the darkness after trespassing the border and came upon a destroyed bridge. Suddenly, the Captain said in a hushed voice, 'There, the enemies!' The same moment I heard a volley on the road. Immediately I ordered a group of soldiers to charge. Like a bunch of shepherd-dogs, they smartly jumped into the forest of rubber trees. Soon hand-to-hand fights ensued in the forest. The enemy shot up a white signal shell, and the sounds of starting the automobile engines were heard. I first felt that the enemy was about to make a charge at us. But soon I found that the enemy troops were on the retreat. I ordered my men to chase after them, but it was too late. Without much fighting, our unit captured several enemy tanks and cannons. Our pursuit was greatly delayed by the destruction of bridges by the retreating foe. I thought that if we allowed the enemy to destroy bridges one after another along the road, we could never catch up with the retreating enemy, and conceived new tactics. I made our infantrymen wipe out the sentinels first and the members of the engineering corps repaired the bridges at night. Then, with tank corps, infantry on trucks and the artillery concentrated around the repaired bridge very close to the enemy positions I ordered the infantrymen to attack the enemy positions at night. As soon as the enemy positions were taken by the infantrymen, the tank corps would rush into the enemy and swarm into the next enemy position while running side by side with the retreating enemies on the wheel.

"I knew that the enemy would never blow up bridges until the last of their men cross them. The motto of the new tactics was to 'jump into the enemy position together with the enemies.' This ostensibly pell-mell tactics, however, proved to be great success in the subsequent battles and we were able to push through the peninsula from Singora down to Johore Bharu—a distance of some 1,100 kilometers—in 55 days.

Battle on the Jitler Line "The enemy had constructed the first line of defense along Jitler, Kota Bharu, Endau, Kuantan and Melsin. I decided to break through the enemy position in front of

Jitler and then bring under our control the bridge spanning the Perak River. To bring this plan into execution, a suicide corps was organized with a unit of infantrymen, two sections of engineers and 10 tanks and two field guns. The attack against this position in front of Jitler was started by this suicide corps toward the noon of December 11, and about 4 o'clock in the afternoon the enemy began withdrawing, when a tremendous squall broke out and hid the chasing Japanese from the sight of the enemy. Riding in my car, I kept marching on in the torrential down pour along the finely paved road. When I advanced about 20 kilometers, I saw several guns placed on both sides of the road. No enemy soldier, however, was seen there. Then I found nearly one hundred trucks in a rubber plantation along the road, but no enemy was there. I thought it very strange, and made my men scout around the place. The scouts soon returned and said that all the enemy soldiers were taking shelter, covering their bodies with tents in the wood off the road while leaving their tanks on the road in the rain. 'Good! Now is the choicest time to smash the foe root and branch,' I said to myself and ordered the tank unit to strike at once. The enemy was taken completely by surprise, and in utter confusion took to their heels in a manner that made me laugh heartily. Behind an enemy tank, went our tanks followed by other enemy tanks which were being pursued by our tanks from behind. The enemy tanks which were sandwiched between our tanks could not use their guns, because they were afraid of shooting down their own men. They attacked us with hand grenades and pistols. Our tanks much larger and heavier than these enemy tanks hit them from behind, shoving them off the road and overturning them. In a few moments, the enemy tanks numbering about 20 were destroyed. The suicide corps kept on marching and came across a big rubber plantation when it received the cross-fire of scores of enemy field guns. It was toward midnight. The gun fire was very intense and no man was able to raise the head for a while. Nor were we able to move the fire off the road, because both sides of the road were swamps. If we remained here in this fashion till the day-break, we felt, all of us would surely perish under the enemy fire. So I sent an officer to scout the strength of the enemy as

resolved to push further in before the dawn. The officer returned and told me that the enemy forces were not so large as we had imagined. At 4 o'clock the following morning I made a company of infantrymen to thrust into the enemy position.

"Soon the air was filled with the reports of guns and rifles. Upon hearing these reports, I instinctively felt that the enemy forces were quite large contrary to the report made by my officer. A wounded soldier stood before me in attention and said, 'The enemy position in front of us is of a large scale, and guarded with two or three folds of barbed wire and pill boxes. Our company took the largest pill box in the center, but was subjected to a fierce attack from all directions'. Presently the day broke and I knew that the commander of the company was heavily wounded and nearly half of the company was lost. The commander of the suicide corps sat down on the ground and remarked 'The report made by that officer was totally wrong. I did not know this enemy position was so strongly fortified. Before long the whole corps would be annihilated. I want to fight together with my men on the forefront.' I consoled and encouraged him and walked through the jungle and waded across the swamp to join our forces at the forefront. Soon after we had arrived at the forefront, an Indian soldier, together with a British soldier, came to us to surrender. I looked at a map of the enemy position which the British soldier had, and was greatly surprised at the scale of the enemy position.

"According to the map, the position was defended by a whole division of enemy forces and was able to hold out for three months against the enemy. While I was considering measures to convey as soon as possible the present battle condition in which the suicide corps was finding itself to our main force in the rear and to ask its commander to rush to the forefront for the rescue of the suicide corps, an infantryman, smeared with blood, returned and standing in attention before the commander of the corps said, 'The commander of our company is heavily wounded, but the company is defending the position with all its might,' and fell dead. Under such circumstances, there was nothing he could do but make a thrust with his last men, the commander of the suicide corps resolved, and was mak-

ing preparations when two fresh regiments arrived from the rear. At the same time, a message was brought from the forefront reporting that the enemy had started withdrawing, and the company was going to cross the bridge on the Perak River.

"These two regiments advanced further along the road on which numerous spoils of war piled up. There were left behind tanks, guns and military trucks fully loaded with foodstuffs, medicine and medical equipment. The whole division of the enemy seemed to have run away into the jungle. Everything seemed quite strange to me. Later on, I found out that our suicide corps of 400 strong with the mistaken estimate of the enemy forces defending the Jitler line drove a wedge into it, and finally succeeded to break it open, as the suicide corps totally ignorant of the real strength of the foe, kept on pounding, in sheer disregard of the heavy losses the corps suffered under the cross-fire of enemy field guns surpassing by far in number those possessed by our corps. According to the confessions made by captives, Japanese tanks appeared in front of them all of sudden and Japanese soldiers with dark faces burst into their pill boxes, causing a great panic among British and Indian soldiers. This panic, in turn, caused them to run in a stampede.

The Landing on Kota Bharu A certain contingent which had landed on Kota Bharu dashed into the enemy position defying every difficulty. It did its best first of all to secure bridges before they were destroyed by the enemy. For example 10 soldiers led by a young section commander named Asai, all on motorcycles, dashed ahead of the contingent in order to take possession of a bridge at Alor Star. When this daring squad came upon the bridge, it received a volley of enemy fire. Two non-commissioned officers leaped into the enemy with their motorcycles. Commander Asai was cutting with his sword the wire connected with dynamite on both sides of the bridge when his body together with the bridge was blown high up into the air as the enemy put the switch in. While the enemy was engrossed in the fighting with this daring squad, another squad came dashing and brought under its control a railway bridge not far from the scene of the battle. From this bridge hung an explosive weighing about one ton, but this

was quickly removed before the enemy could do anything with it. Planks were promptly laid over this bridge to let the mechanized units of the contingent pass as soon as possible and chase the enemy without delay. There was no large-scale battle anywhere, except hand-to-hand fighting. With an amazing speed, our contingent advanced close upon the heels of the enemy, and breaking through Alor Star, occupied six airfields and seized a great quantity of gasoline and food. Thus, we smashed the Jitler line which, the enemy calculated, would hold out at least three months against the attack of the Japanese, and reached the line of the Perak River.

"Now I was confronted by a difficult problem to solve. It was how to reach Kuala Lumpur from the Perak River. Kuala Lumpur was connected by only one road winding through steaming jungles. I had two plans in mind. One was to bring the craft for the landing purposes to the coast facing the Indian Ocean from Singora, and send troops aboard these vessels to the rear of the enemy; the other was to make every preparation against the destruction of bridges by the enemy so that the main force of the contingent may keep on going without delay after repairing the bridges within the shortest possible time. Although the bridge spanning the Perak River was destroyed by the foe, ferries were ready to transport the infantry and tanks across the river. Beyond the river was the impassable jungle stretching for 200 kilometers. So I made the vessels transported from Singora to Taiping by rail and a few regiments of troops landed on Kampar after sailing down south from Taiping on December 31.

"At that time, the enemy naval forces were quite active in the Indian Ocean and British and Dutch planes were frequently visiting Malaya from Sumatra for the bombing of the Japanese land forces advancing south in the peninsula. Under such circumstances the transport of troops aboard unarmed steamers to strike the back of the enemy was evidently against the principle of strategy. I feared that half of the troops might be lost before they reach their destination. By mistake these ships entered an enemy naval port at night. A few enemy gun-boats which were at anchor in that port, thought this group of transports a fleet of Japanese gun-boats, and after having fired a couple of shots they fled. This

ostensively reckless operation had a far-reaching effect on the subsequent battles in Malaya, and as a sequence to it, Kuala Lumpur, capital of the Federated Malay States fell into Japanese hands without much resistance. The capitulation of Kuala Lumpur affected the morale of the enemy very seriously and no doubt precipitated the fall of Singapore.

The Battle of Slim "The greatest difference between the Battle of the Jitler Line and the Battle of Slim is that in the former the Japanese completely took the enemy by surprise, and overwhelmed the enemy spiritually but in the latter, the Japanese literally annihilated the whole enemy forces concentrated in that sector of Malaya. Certain infantry regiments and two tank companies took the initiative in the attack. On the morning of January 7, the tank companies, assisted by the members of an engineering corps removed all the land mines planted in front of the position and went through it at 5 a.m. A battalion of infantry had gone behind the enemy to cut its retreat before the offensive started. Our tank companies, infantry and engineering corps swept like a whirlwind over the enemy position with a depth of some 20 kilometers. In this battle a tank company first arrived at the foot of the Slim Bridge where there was the general headquarters of the enemy brigade. After shelling this headquarters, the tank company rushed into a position of heavy artillery.

"In short, we practically wiped out all the enemy forces in this battle of Slim. and up to January 8, one brigade of the enemy forces was exterminated. The enemy soldiers threw away all they had and crept into the jungle. About a week later when I was riding to the forefront, these enemy soldiers exhausted extremely by hunger came out staggering from the jungle with white flags in their hands.

"The rest of the enemy troops which had escaped the iron hand of the Japanese detachment at Slim retreated in a stampede to Kuala Lumpur, and from there to Singapore as the enemy had lost the confidence of stopping the onrushing Japanese at the line in the northern sectors of Johore Bharu. The waters of Kuantan were guarded heavily by the enemy who, it appears, never dreamed that the Japanese after landing on Kuantan might come through the impassable jungle to attack them in the rear. The

detachment which drove the enemy off Kuantan marched through the dense jungle from 27 to 30 miles a day. The soldiers walked, crept, waded and swam like the denizens of the jungle, day and night without taking enough food or water.

From Kuala Lumpur to Gemas "As the contingent which had occupied Kuala Lumpur, and which fought non-stop for 35 days since its landing on Singora began to show signs of exhaustion, I decided to let it rest. However, I organized a special attack corps with the pick of the contingent, and ordered the corps, together with certain tank units and engineering squads to rush on Gemas, which is about 160 kilometers from Kuala Lumpur.

"I calculated that the special attack corps would take at least three days before it reaches Gemas after mopping up enemy remnants and repairing bridges on its way. This would allow the main force of the contingent to take rest for three days at Kuala Lumpur. And if I use trucks and cars for the transport of the main force, the distance between Kuala Lumpur and Gemas can be covered in a few hours, the three-day rest given to the main force at Kuala Lumpur giving no effect whatsoever to the strategy of the subsequent campaign.

"While this contingent was pressing hard the enemy's front, another contingent sailed down along the western coast of the peninsula and threatened to attack the foe from the flank. Determined to stop the Japanese at any cost, the enemy stuck to the defense line of Gemas. Pitched battles were fought from dawn till late at night for a week around Muar, and here one battalion of the contingent lost half of its soldiers. Though the enemy resisted very stubbornly, the line on Gemas, Muar and Kuala Lumpur gave way to the fearless soldiers of Japan in two weeks. Finally the enemy fled into Singapore, Britain's last stand in East Asia.

The Attack on Singapore "I had an idea that the defense of Singapore facing the sea is considerably strong, while its defense facing Johore is not complete, and that the much-talked-about 45 centimeter guns installed in the fortresses on the island would prove quite powerful only to the foe trying to attack Singapore from the front. Pending the commencement of a general offensive against what Britain proudly called an 'Impreg-

nable Fortress," opinions among our staff members were divided as to the defenses of Singapore. Some of us were of the opinion that the enemy forces defending Singapore would surrender without much resistance while the others asserted that they would fight to the last man. When the main force of our expeditionary forces in the Malay regions entered the City of Kuala Lumpur on January 13, I laid out a plan of attack on Singapore. I decided on the number of shells per cannon and also figured out the number of vessels to be used for the landing operations. It was my plan to throw in all the soldiers and weapons we had into the attack.

"Thereupon I immediately proceeded to get gun-shells delivered to Johore Bharu without delay, and sent thousands of cars and trucks to transport reinforcements from Singora to Johore within the shortest possible time.

"Another important point of my plan was to make the enemy forces scatter by what we call 'demonstration' in military terms.

"There is a tiny islet called Ubin in the Johore waterway. On the night of February 8, our unit of 400 strong landed on this isle. This operation was to attract the attention of the enemy more to the eastern coast of Singapore and let it concentrate more forces for the defense of the eastern side of the island. On that night I was standing on the shore to watch the vessels fully loaded with our soldiers stealthily crossing the water to Ubin Isle. A few minutes later, a signal light, telling the success of landing was shot up. So, I sent several small caliber guns to Ubin, and let the artillery make a great noise.

"In the midnight of the 8th, all the Japanese forces which had been on stand-by in Johore started landings on Singapore according to program. On the morning of the 10th, several other detachments also landed on the island and marched on the Tengah airfield. On this day, the headquarters of the Japanese Expeditionary Forces in the Malay Regions was set up near this airfield. When I went into the field headquarters, I saw the left shoulder of Lieutenant-General Mudaguchi smeared with blood. 'What's the matter?' I asked. He waved his hand and signalled 'silence.' Soon I discovered one of the staff officers was missing. Once more I questioned 'Where is the staff officer Ino?' 'He is wounded heavily,' was the reply. 'By what?' 'By

a hand-grenade,' said one of the officers there. To be wounded by a hand-grenade meant that the battle was fought at very close quarters. As a matter of fact, during the battle around the Tengah airfield, the headquarters of the contingent was within 15 meters of the enemy line. Up to that time, the dead and wounded in the contingent totaled about 1,000.

The Deadly Battle at Bukit Timah
 "Standing amid roaring cannons, rattling machine-guns, rumbling tanks, shrieking dive-bombers and all kinds of cracking sounds caused by shells and bombs on the ground, I thought and established a plan of operation to crush the enemy counter-attacking the Japanese from the Bukit Timah height. Picked troops of certain contingents made a thrust at the enemy on this height once or twice, but the enemy position remained intact as if nothing had happened. I saw a squad made up of 3 soldiers rushing to an enemy pill box, and engaging the enemy in a grim hand-to-hand fight with swords, revolvers, bayonets and hand-grenades around the pill-box. More guns were apparently necessary to silence the stubborn resistance of the enemy on the hill. But the intention of the Commander-in-Chief of our attacking forces was to get this position by a night-attack on the 10th. I was quite confident of the capture of Bukit Timah by the night-attack, for I clearly saw unmistakable unrest and dissipation of confidence and morale among the enemy on the hill. The night-attack was started at 5 p.m., and after a series of hand-to-hand fights all through that night, the 177 meter summit of the Bukit Timah height fell into our hands at the dawn of the following morning.

"On the same morning our planes dropped hand-bills over enemy positions, suggesting surrender. No reply was made by the enemy, although we waited for the answer till the evening of that day. Instead of complying with our wishes, the enemy intensified its counter-attack, and tried to strike back by concentration of gun-fire. During the whole night, guns of all calibers of attackers and defenders on the island kept on roaring without interruption. The hill of Bukit Timah was surrounded by pillars of flames. Our forces on the forefront, however, advanced inch by inch, and on the morning of the 13th, a reservoir near the hill was brought under our control.

"At about this time, our artillery join-

ed the battle, and started shelling the park in the center of the City of Singapore and the heavy artillery position around Canning Barracks. I ordered the men of our heavy artillery to destroy all the principal buildings in the city as they were all military establishments. Unable to stand the severe fighting between our forces and the enemy, the wife of the Governor of Singapore, it is said, asked her husband to stop fighting. This might have been one of the positive factors which precipitated the fall of Singapore. The pride of Britain that she is the greatest empire in the world, caused the enemy fight very bravely, and the defenders of Singapore were also well aware of the profound effect the fall of Singapore would have on the war situation in other parts of the world. The battle intensified further on the morning of the 15th with no sign of surrender on the part of the defenders. Our soldiers on the forefront made one thrust after another, with glittering bayonet in one hand, and a hand-grenade in the other.

"Our artillery fired hundreds of shells each at Johore and crossed the waterway with remaining shells. Up to the morning of the 15th, they used another hundreds. As the Mudaguchi-Contingent was reported to have made a charge against the enemy's last stand in the vicinity of the Bukit Timah height at 10 o'clock in the morning, I went to the first battle line for inspection. A little before 10, I arrived at a regimental headquarters on the forefront. The headquarters was literally under a shower of steel fragments. Nobody was able to raise his head. I never put on a steel helmet in all campaigns in which I participated in the past, but this time, I regretted not to have carried one with me. Enemy shells exploded incessantly within a few feet of the headquarters, and I could hardly breathe freely as the sand and the shattered pieces of glass and wood fell on my body and hurt my unguarded head. Nor could I see 10 meters ahead due to the powder-smoke and sand-dust that filled the air. The appointed time to charge came, but the enemy fire continued unabated. We had to postpone the time. Now it was toward noon and the situation remained unchanged. In this fashion, the deadly battle raged on until 3 o'clock in the afternoon.

"The high officers in the regimental headquarters thought it better to charge now than to remain in this manner.

awaiting the subsiding of the enemy gun-fire. However, no man was sure whether the charge would succeed or not. I told these officers not to hurry and advised them to attack the hill in the night in order to crush the enemy with smaller losses on our part. Then, I returned to the general headquarters of the Japanese Expeditionary Forces in the Malay Regions, and with a newly conceived plan of operation, I visited the headquarters of the Mudaguchi Contingent where I saw the Contingent's staff officers standing worried and speechless. One of them asked me to advise Lieutenant-General Mudaguchi not to go to the forefront. He added that all of the staff officers there tried to keep him there but in vain. So I went to the commander of the contingent and told him that it was not the proper time for the contingent commander to visit the forefront. 'Your men,' I assured him, 'are fighting with all their might. They will make a thrust toward the night-fall. Their morale is quite high. There is no doubt about it. If you go to the forefront now, they might think you had come to press them, and might carry on a reckless attack in sheer disregard of their losses which could be avoided if they wait a little longer and attack the hill in the night.'

"Upon hearing these words of mine Lieutenant-General Mudaguchi seemed obviously moved and said to me, 'No, no, I'm not going to the forefront with such an idea. I haven't the slightest idea of pressing my men whose ideas and feelings I know very well. But I feel that the regiments under my command will make the final thrust tonight and many of my immediate subordinates, —the regiment commander, the battalion commander and others—would be killed. I want to see their faces and shake hands with them once more before they die.' There were tears in his eyes as he finished his speech. I saw in his speech the divine profile of the Imperial Army —the perfect unity of the contingent and the most beautiful, harmonious and humane relations existing between officers and men and those who command and those who obey—which is typical of the armies of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor. Now I had nothing to say about his intention. 'Please go to the forefront,' I told Lieutenant-General Mudaguchi who nodded to my words smilingly.

Fall of Singapore "I was on my

way to the general headquarters to report on the latest conditions on the forefront when I heard the surrender of the enemy forces over the telephone. It was on February 15 at 7:50 p.m. At the time of the surrender, the defenders of Singapore far outnumbered. No wonder that our soldiers had to fight deadly battles one after another in this campaign. I asked one of the prisoners of war, 'How many months did you think Singapore could hold out?' The prisoner replied, 'I never thought it in terms of months, but only in terms of years.' Then he added, 'I thought that Germany would collapse while we were holding Singapore against Japanese attack for a couple of years, and with German collapse, the allies would become much stronger than ever, so that Singapore would never fall into Japanese hands.'

"In short, the Malay campaign was carried out without following the approved theories of military science. Nevertheless, we were always successful in getting the upperhand over our foe. The Army concentrated its energies in the successful prosecution of the operations in Malaya and used the best troops it had in this campaign in close collaboration with the Navy. The concentration of the entire power possessed by the Japanese Expeditionary Forces in the Malay Regions has completed the historical undertaking—the fall of Singapore. Needless to say, our 3,300 men who have given their lives to the country in the campaign offered the foundation upon which the memorial tower of brilliant victories in Malaya was erected.

"When a question as to whether we should make a triumphal entry or not was raised among the high officers a few days after the fall of Singapore, Lieutenant-General Tomoyuki Yamashita, Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Expeditionary Forces in the Malay Regions declared solemnly, 'What merits have those who have survived? The war has not come to an end yet. We have to make preparations for the operations to come.' Accordingly, he omitted the triumphal entry, but, instead, had a memorial service held for the war dead, attended by all the representatives of the contingents, detachments, regiments and all other smaller units of the army forces in Malaya on the island, re-named 'Shonan,' several days after its fall into the hands of the Japanese Army."

Chronicle of the Greater East Asia War

November 1941—November 1942

1941:

November 26—The American Government offers new proposals unacceptable to the Japanese Government.

The American Ambassador to Tokyo gives final advice to 860 Americans in Japan to evacuate.

The American landing party evacuates Shanghai.

December 1—Singapore is set on war conditions by the official order.

The Dutch East Indies mobilizes men in services.

December 2—The British capital ship "The Prince of Wales" enters the naval base of Singapore.

December 8—The Beginning of the Greater East Asia War.

At dawn Pearl Harbor is attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces and submarines.

The Imperial Army units land on Malaya, attack Hong Kong, make peaceful entrance to Thailand.

Guam, the Philippine Islands, Wake are simultaneously bombed by the Imperial Naval Air Forces.

The Japanese Declaration of War against the United States and the British Empire.

December 9—Singapore attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces on the night.

British air forces in Malaya smashed, while Japanese army units occupy points in North Malaya.

December 10—The first landing of the Imperial Army contingents on the soil of the Philippines.

The Prince of Wales and the Repulse sent to the bottom.

Landing of the Japanese forces on Guam.

December 11—Germany and Italy declare war against the United States.

The Agreement between Japan, Germany and Italy concerning the joint prosecution of the war (signed on January 18, 1942).

December 12—Military Agreement between Japan and French Indo-China.

The Information Board of Japan announces that the present war shall

be called "Dai To-A Senso" or the Greater East Asia War, including the campaigns in China.

The Japanese forces succeed in successful landing on the Southern Luzon.

Kowloon occupied.

Guam occupied.

December 13—General attack began on Hong Kong.

December 15—Rangoon is bombed.

December 16—The Extraordinary Session of The Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo.

The Japanese forces land on British Borneo.

December 17—The Extraordinary Session of the Imperial Diet adjourns.

The Government of Brazil announces neutrality.

The High Prize Court of Japan established.

December 18—New Guinea and Iloilo are first attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces.

Kunming bombed by the Imperial Army Air Forces.

Forced landing of the Japanese forces on Hong Kong Island.

December 19—Penang occupied.

December 20—The Japanese forces land on Mindanao and occupy Davao.

December 21—Alliance between Japan and Thailand concerning mutual assistance in the prosecution of the war.

December 23—Wake Island occupied.

December 24—The 79th Session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo.

New contingents of the Japanese army land on the Eastern Luzon.

December 25—Fall of Hong Kong.

Kuching in British Borneo occupied.

December 27—The Government of the Philippine Commonwealth evacuate Manila.

The Japanese forces cross the Perak River on the Malay Front.

December 28—Formal entrance of the Imperial Army into Hong Kong. Ipoh in Malaya reduced.

December 29—Singapore is bombed by a large number of the Imperial Army Air Forces.

December 31—Kuantan on the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula occupied.

1942:

January 2—Manila falls into the hands of the Imperial Army.

January 4—Changsha of China occupied.

January 5—Brunei in British Borneo occupied.

Japanese new contingents' surprise landing on Selangor, Malaya.

January 7—Manila is placed under the Military Administration of the Imperial Army in the Philippines.

January 8—The American aircraft-carrier Langley sent to the bottom near Johnston Island.

January 10—Burmese cities attacked by the Imperial Army Air Forces.

January 11—Kuala Lumpur occupied.

Imperial Navy contingents land on Tarakan Island and at Menado on Celebes Island.

Moulmein and Tavoy in Burma bombed by the Imperial Army Air Forces.

January 13—Kakas Airfield in the Dutch East Indies occupied.

January 14—Minahassa in Celebes reduced by a special landing party of the Imperial Navy.

January 15—Malacca in Malaya occupied.

Attack of the Imperial Army Air Forces on Sembawang and Tengah Airfields in Singapore.

Attack of the Imperial Navy Air Forces on Babo and Sorong in New Guinea, Amboina in the Moluccas Islands and Rabaul in New Britain.

January 16—Likoepong in Celebes occupied.

Landing of the Japanese forces in Malaya at Batu Pahat and occupation of the airfield.

January 17—Bombing raids on Singapore.

Mengtze in Yunnan Province, China, attacked by the Imperial Army Air Squadron.

January 18—The Imperial Navy Air Forces attack enemy ships along the coast of Cebu Island in the Philippines,

and stage a bombing raid on Singapore.

Signing of the Military Agreement among Japan, Germany and Italy in Berlin.

January 19—Occupation of Tavoy in Burma.

Lieutenant-General Rensuké Isogai appointed the first Governor-General of the Hong Kong Occupied Area.

January 20—Air raid on Singapore. Occupation of Endau in Malaya.

January 21—Air raids on Singapore.

Prime Minister General Hidéki Tōjō enunciates in his address before the Diet Japan's basic policy for the prosecution of the current war into the final victory. (See Chapter on Parties and Politics.)

January 22—Attacks of the Imperial Navy Air Forces on Balikh Papan in Borneo, Macasar, Palopo, Kolonedale and Kendari in Celebes, Ternate and Labuha in the Habmahera Islands, Amboina in Ceram Island, Singapore and Sumatra.

A special landing party of the Imperial Navy lands at Kavieng in New Ireland.

Attack of Mingaladon Airport, Rangoon.

January 24—Occupation of Taao in the British Borneo.

Bombing of Seletar Airfield in Singapore.

Landing of Japanese forces on Balikh Papan in Borneo and Kendari in Celebes.

January 25—Occupation of Balikh Papan.

Thailand declares war against the United States and the British Empire.

Occupation of Kavieng in New Ireland.

January 26—Occupation of Kendari.

Air fight over the vicinity of Endau in Malaya and attack on Tengah Airfield in Singapore.

January 27—Two Japanese destroyers meet two British destroyers off Endau and sink one of the enemy.

January 29—Attack of Seletar Airfield in Singapore.

Occupation of Pontianak in Borneo.

Tripartite Alliance among Britain, Soviet Russia and the United States signed in London.

- January 31—Johore Bahru occupied.
Moulmeien occupied.
Landing of Japanese forces at Amboina in Ceram Island.
- February 1—The Imperial Navy stages a counterattack on an enemy naval unit coming to attack the Marshall Islands.
- February 3—The Imperial Navy Air Forces attack Sourabaya and Nalang in Java.
The Imperial Army Air Forces bomb piers and dockyards in Singapore and Toungoo Airfield in Burma.
- February 4—Occupation of Powan in South Burma.
Bombing of Rangoon and Hlegn airfields.
Commencement of bombarding on Singapore.
Java Sea Battle. The Dutch East Indies Navy practically annihilated.
- February 5—The Imperial Army in China commences a new operation in the southern part of Shantung Province.
- February 6—Bombing of Mingaladon Airport in Burma and Muntok Airfield in Banka Island, Sumatra.
- February 7—Bombing of Palembang Airfield, Sumatra and Mingaladon Airport in Burma.
- February 8—Bombing of Palembang Airfield, Sumatra.
- February 9—The Imperial Army crosses Johore Straits at 12:16 a.m. and occupies Tengah Airfield in Singapore.
Bombing of Batavia, capital of the Dutch colony.
Occupation of Macassar in Celebes, and Gasmata in New Britain.
The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Supreme Commander of the Imperial Army on the Malay front as Lieutenant-General Tomoyuki Yamashita.
- February 10—Occupation of Banjarmasin in Borneo and Martaban in Burma.
- February 11—A contingent of the Imperial Army thrusts into the city of Singapore.
- February 14—Some 32 enemy warships and transports trying to escape from Singapore sunk or destroyed by the Imperial Navy between Feb. 10 and 14.
Occupation of Seletar Naval Base, in Singapore.

The Imperial Army Parachuters descend on Palembang, Sumatra and occupy the airfield.

February 15—The Fall of Singapore. British Commander A. E. Percival surrenders unconditionally at 7:50 p.m.

The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Highest Commander-in-Chief of All Imperial Armies in the South Seas as General Hisahichi Terauchi and that of the Chief of the General Staff as Lieutenant-General Osamu Tsukada.

Occupation of Palembang, Sumatra.

February 17—Singapore is renamed as "Shōnan."

The Imperial Navy enters into the Shonan Naval Station.

February 18—Bombing of Sourabaya in Java.

February 19—The Imperial Army and Navy units occupy Den Pasar in Bali.

Extensive air raids on Port Darwin, Australia.

February 20—Occupation of Delli in Timor Island, and Tandjoengkaraung in Sumatra.

February 24—Bombardment of the coast of California by an Imperial submarine.

Occupation of Bankulen, Sumatra.

American attempt of attacking Orot Island (Wake) of Japan frustrated by the Imperial Navy units.

February 25—Bombing of airfields in Java.

February 27-28—The Naval Battle of Java. Complete defeat of the combined fleet of British, American and Dutch navies.

March 1—Landing of the Imperial Army units on Java.

Sea battle off Sourabaya between the Imperial Fleet and the British fleet escaping toward India.

March 2—Landing of the Imperial Navy units at Zamboanga, Mindanao.

Activities of the Imperial submarines near San Francisco on March 1 and near Mendocino on March 2.

The American cruiser Marblehead sunk off the west coast of Australia.

March 3—Air attack on Broome, Australia.

March 4—Bombing of Pearl Harbor.
Some 30 enemy warplanes appear.

- over Minami-Torishima Island of Japan and are driven away, losing 7.
- March 5—Occupation of Batavia.**
- March 6—**The Imperial Headquarters publishes the activities and personnel of the Special Attack Flotilla in Pearl Harbor on December 8, 1941.
- March 7—Occupation of Sourabaya in Java and Pegu in Burma.**
The East Indies is places under the Imperial Military Administration.
- March 8—Occupation of Rangoon in Burma.**
Landing of the Imperial forces on the east coast of the Dutch New Guinea.
The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Supreme Commander of the Imperial Army in Burma as Lieutenant-General Shojiro Iida.
- March 9—Surrender of the enemy combined forces in Java.**
The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Supreme Commander in the East Indies as Lieutenant-General Hitoshi Imamura.
- March 10—**The Imperial Naval ensign hoisted on Buka in the Solomon Islands.
- March 11—**Malaya and Shonan Island are placed under the Imperial Military Administration.
- March 12—**Landing of the Imperial Army units on North Sumatra.
- March 13—Occupation of Medan, Sumatra.**
Bombing of Port Moresby, New Guinea.
- March 16—Occupation of San Jose, Mindanao.**
- March 23—**Landing of the Japanese forces at Port Blair, South Andaman Island in Bengal Bay.
- March 25—**The Imperial Diet closes its 79th Session.
- March 26—**Surrender of enemy troops in the mountains in Sumatra.
- March 28—**The 7th bombing of Port Darwin, Australia.
- March 31—Occupation of Christmas Island south of Java.**
Continued air raids on Corregidor Island in Manila Bay since March 24.
- April 5—**Colombo, Ceylon, attacked by the Imperial Navy Forces.
The 15th bombing of Port Darwin.
- April 6—**Bombing of Vizagapatam and Cocanada in Madras province, India.
The 23rd bombing of Port Moresby.
- April 9—**The Imperial Navy units storm Trincomalee, Ceylon, and sink one British aircraft carrier, two cruisers and others.
- April 10—**Landing of the Imperial Naval units on Cebu in the Philippines.
- April 11—**Complete occupation of the Bataan Peninsula, Luzon.
Lieutenant-General Marquis Toshitame Mayeda appointed Supreme Commander of the Highest Army Headquarters established in North Borneo.
- April 16—**Landing of the Japanese forces on Panay Island in the Philippines and occupation of Iloilo.
- April 18—**American bombers make a show over Tokyo and other cities, aiming at no military establishment but willingly killing school boys playing on a school ground and burning a few number of private houses.
- April 19—**The Imperial Air Forces attack enemy airfields at Chinchow, Lishui, and Yushan in China during 3 days.
- April 29—Occupation of Cota Bato, Mindanao.**
Bombing of Sian, China.
Occupation of Lahsio, Burma.
- April 30—**The General Election of House of Representatives of Japan.
- May 1—**Occupation of Mandalay, Burma.
- May 3—**Occupation of Bhamo, Burma.
- May 4—**Occupation of Akyab Airfield in Burma.
- May 5—**The Imperial forces make forced landing on Corregidor.
- May 6—**Occupation of Myitkyna, Burma.
- May 7—Fall of the Corregidor Fortress.**
The Coral Sea Battle. The Imperial Navy sends 2 enemy battleships, two aircraft carriers, and one cruiser to the bottom of the Coral Sea on May 7 and 8.
- May 8—**Bombing of Chittagong, India.
- May 9—**The Imperial Navy enters into Manila Bay.
The Imperial Army in the Philippines under the Supreme Commander

- Lieutenant-General Masaharu Homma triumphantly enters the city of Manila at noon.
- May 10—Occupation of Tengyueh, West Yunnan, China.
- May 17—Air attack on Bahadurpur and Silchar in Assam Province, India.
- May 18—Air raid on Paoshan airfield in Yunnan Province, China.
- May 19—Bombing of enemy air bases at Kweilin and Linchow in Kwangsi Province, China.
- May 21—Commencement of the clean-up operations of the Imperial Army in China in the eastern and northern regions of China.
- May 25—The 80th Session of the Imperial Diet convened and closed on May 28.
- May 31—Attack of the Imperial Special submarines on Diego Saurez of Madagascar and the port of Sydney, Australia.
- June 4—A surprise attack on Dutch Harbor in the Aleutian Islands.
Burma is placed under the Imperial Military Administration.
- June 5—The Imperial Navy attacks the American naval base of Midway, and sinks two American aircraft carriers.
- June 7—The Imperial Naval units reduce a number of important points in the Aleutian Islands within a few days following June 7.
- June 13—Aerial combats over Port Darwin on June 13 and 14.
- June 16—Occupation of Kweiki in Kiangsi Province, and Sanshui in Kwangtung Province, China.
- June 21—The Imperial submarines bombard the U.S. military establishments near Port Brown and West Port, Oregon.
- June 24—Occupation of the Chinese airfield at Lishui in Chekiang Province.
- July 5—American air forces in China defeated in air combats over several airports in Kwangsi and Hunan provinces.
- July 7—Occupation of Haikowshih in Chekiang Province.
- July 11—Occupation of Wenchow in Chekiang Province.
- July 13—Occupation of Julian in Chekiang Province.
- July 25—The Imperial Navy Air units conducts night raids on Townsville, Australia on July 25, 27 and 28.
- July 30—Air attack on Port Headland, Australia.
- August 1—The inauguration of the Central Administrative Organ of Burma under Dr. Ba Maw.
- August 7—The Sea Battle off the Solomon Islands. The battle lasted 3 days and the Imperial Navy sent 25 enemy warships and 10 transports to the bottom. This is the beginning of the deadly sea battles in the South Pacific Ocean.
- August 8—The Imperial Naval units beat off an enemy naval force which appeared in the Aleutian waters.
- The Indian Congress Party adopts an Anti-British Decision and Mahatma Gandhi issues order of nonobedience.
- August 9—British wholesale arrest of Indian Leaders. Beginning of the death struggle of the Indian people for Independence.
- August 24—The Second Battle off the Solomon Islands. The Enemy fleet again defeated.
- September 23—Bombing of Nosan Bay in Atka Island, the Aleutians.
- September 25—The Imperial Headquarters announces that a part of the Japanese Naval Forces has turned its operations to the Atlantic.
- November 12—The sea battle off Guadalcanar Island in the Solomon Islands.
- The battle continued for 3 days against eight enemy cruisers and four or five destroyers were sent to the bottom while 9 warships were heavily damaged, including 2 battleships.
- November 30—The night battle off L. I., Guadalcanar.

APPENDIX

THE CONSTITUTION

CHAPTER I THE EMPEROR

ARTICLE I The Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by Imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE III The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

ARTICLE IV The Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercises them according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

ARTICLE V The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE VI The Emperor gives sanction to laws, and orders them to be promulgated and executed.

ARTICLE VII The Emperor convokes the Imperial Diet, opens, closes and prorogues it, and dissolves the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE VIII The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in the place of law.

Such Imperial Ordinances are to be laid before the Imperial Diet at its next session, and when the Diet does not approve the said Ordinances, the Government shall declare them to be invalid for the future.

ARTICLE IX The Emperor issues, or causes to be issued, the Ordinances necessary for the carrying out of the laws, or for the maintenance of the public peace and order, and for the promotion of the welfare of the subjects. But no Ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

ARTICLE X The Emperor determines the organization of the different branches of the administration, and salaries of all civil and military officers, and appoints and dismisses the same.

Exceptions especially provided for in the present Constitution or in other laws shall be in accordance with the respective provisions bearing thereon.

ARTICLE XI The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XII The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

ARTICLE XIV The Emperor declares a state of siege.

The conditions and effects of a state of siege shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XV. The Emperor confers titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honor.

ARTICLE XVI The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabilitation.

ARTICLE XVII A Regency shall be instituted in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

The Regent shall exercise the powers appertaining to the Emperor in His name.

CHAPTER II RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF SUBJECTS

ARTICLE XVIII The conditions necessary for being a Japanese subject shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XIX Japanese subjects may, according to qualifications determined in laws or ordinances, be appointed to civil or military or any other public offices equally.

ARTICLE XX Japanese subjects are amenable to service in the Army or Navy according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXI Japanese subjects are amenable to duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXII Japanese subjects shall have the liberty of abode and of changing the same within the limits of law.

ARTICLE XXIII No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried or punished, unless according to law.

ARTICLE XXIV No Japanese subject shall be deprived of his right of being tried by the judges determined by law.

ARTICLE XXV Except in the cases provided for in the law, the house of no Japanese subject shall be entered or searched without his consent.

ARTICLE XXVI Except in the cases mentioned in the law, the secrecy of the letters of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

ARTICLE XXVII The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided for by law.

ARTICLE XXVIII Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief.

ARTICLE XXIX Japanese subjects shall, within the limits of law, enjoy the liberty of speech, writing, publication, public meetings and associations.

ARTICLE XXX Japanese subjects may present petitions, by observing the proper forms of respect, and by complying with the rules specially provided for the same.

ARTICLE XXXI The provisions contained in the present chapter shall not affect the exercise of the powers appertaining to the Emperor, in times of war or in cases of a national emergency.

ARTICLE XXXII Each and every one of the provisions contained in the preceding Articles of the present chapter, that are not in conflict with the laws or the rules and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall apply to the officers and men of the Army and of the Navy.

CHAPTER III

THE IMPERIAL DIET

ARTICLE XXXIII The Imperial Diet shall consist of two Houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.

ARTICLE XXXIV The House of Peers shall, in accordance with the Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, be composed of the members of

the Imperial Family, of the orders of nobility, and of those persons who have been nominated thereto by the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXV The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members elected by the people according to the provisions of the Law of Election.

ARTICLE XXXVI No one can at one and the same time be a Member of both Houses.

ARTICLE XXXVII Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE XXXVIII Both Houses shall vote upon projects of law submitted to them by the Government, and may respectively initiate projects of law.

ARTICLE XXXIX A Bill which has been rejected by either the one or the other of the two Houses shall not be again brought in during the same session.

ARTICLE XL Both Houses can make representations to the Government as to laws or upon any other subject. When, however, such representations are not accepted, they cannot be made a second time during the same session.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial Diet shall be convoked every year.

ARTICLE XLII A session of the Imperial Diet shall last during three months. In case of necessity, the duration of a session may be prolonged by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIII When urgent necessity arises, an extraordinary session may be convoked in addition to the ordinary one.

The duration of an extraordinary session shall be determined by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIV The opening, closing, prolongation of session and prorogation of the Imperial Diet, shall be effected simultaneously for both Houses.

In case the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, the House of Peers shall at the same time be prorogued.

ARTICLE XLV When the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, Members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

ARTICLE XLVI No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the Members thereof is present.

ARTICLE XLVII Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of a tie vote, the President shall have the casting vote.

ARTICLE XLVIII The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret sitting.

ARTICLE XLIX Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

ARTICLE L Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

ARTICLE LI Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

ARTICLE LII No Member of either House shall be held responsible outside the respective Houses for any opinion uttered or for any vote given in the House. When, however, a Member himself has given publicity to his opinions by public speech, by documents in print or in writing, or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

ARTICLE LIII The Members of both Houses shall, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrant delicts, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with a foreign trouble.

ARTICLE LIV The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take seats and speak in either House.

CHAPTER IV

THE MINISTERS OF STATE AND THE PRIVY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the Emperor, and be responsible for it. All Laws, Imperial Ordinances and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of the State,

require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

ARTICLE LVI The Privy Counsellors shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

CHAPTER V

THE JUDICATURE

ARTICLE LVII The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor.

The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LVIII The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law.

No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment.

Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LIX Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear, that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

ARTICLE LX All matters, that fall within the competency of a special Court, shall be specially provided for by law.

ARTICLE LXI No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the illegal measures of the administrative authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation specially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of by a Court of Law.

CHAPTER VI

FINANCE

ARTICLE LXII The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates of an existing one shall be determined by law.

However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause.

The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXIII The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by a new law, be collected according to the old system.

ARTICLE LXIV The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget.

Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXV The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE LXVI The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

ARTICLE LXVII Those already fixed expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

ARTICLE LXVIII In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

ARTICLE LXIX In order to supply deficiencies, which are unavoidable, in the Budget, and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided in the Budget.

ARTICLE LXX When the Imperial Diet cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance.

In the case mentioned in the preceding

clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LXXI When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

ARTICLE LXXII The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board.

The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

CHAPTER VII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LXXIII When it has become necessary in future to amend the provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order.

In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless not less than two-thirds of the whole number of Members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of not less than two-thirds of the Members present is obtained.

ARTICLE LXXIV No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet.

No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE LXXV No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

ARTICLE LXXVI Existing legal enactments such as laws, regulations, Ordinances, or by whatever names they may be called, shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force.

All existing contracts or orders, that entail obligations upon the Government and that are connected with expenditure, shall come within the scope of Art. LXVII.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

CHAPTER I

SUCCESSION TO THE IMPERIAL THRONE

ARTICLE I The Imperial Throne of Japan shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

ARTICLE III When there is no Imperial eldest son, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendant of his, it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age, and so on in every successive case.

ARTICLE IV For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, the one of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases only, when there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

ARTICLE V When there is no Imperial descendant, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VI When there is no such Imperial brother or descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VII When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VIII Among the Imperial brothers and the remoter Imperial relations, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood over those of half blood, and to the elder over the younger.

ARTICLE IX When the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with the foregoing provisions, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER II

ASCENSION AND CORONATION

ARTICLE X Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the Throne, and shall acquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE XI The ceremonies of Coronation shall be performed and a Grand Coronation Banquet (Daijiosai) shall be held at Kyoto.

ARTICLE XII Upon an accension to the Throne, a new era shall be inaugurated, and the name of it shall remain unchanged during the whole reign, in agreement with the established rule of the 1st year of Meiji.

CHAPTER III

MAJORITY. INSTITUTION OF EMPRESS AND OF HEIR-APPARENT

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor, the Kōtaishi and the Kōtaison shall attain their majority at eighteen full years of age.

ARTICLE XIV Members of the Imperial Family, other than those mentioned in the preceding Article, shall attain their majority at twenty full years of age.

ARTICLE XV The son of the Emperor, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kōtaishi." In case there is no Kōtaishi, the Imperial grandson, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kōtaison."

ARTICLE XVI The institution of Empress and that of Kōtaishi or of Kōtaison shall be proclaimed by an Imperial Rescript.

CHAPTER IV

STYLES OF ADDRESS

ARTICLE XVII The style of address for the Emperor, the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and of the Empress, shall be His, or Her or Your Majesty.

ARTICLE XVIII The Kōtaishi and his consort, the Kōtaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the

Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses shall be styled His, Her, Their, or Your Highness or Highnesses.

CHAPTER V

REGENCY

ARTICLE XIX When the Emperor is a minor, a Regency shall be instituted.

When He is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing, a Regency shall be instituted, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XX The Regency shall be assumed by the Kotsaihi or the Kotsai, being of full age of majority.

ARTICLE XXI When there is neither Kotsaihi nor Kotsai, or when the Kotsaihi or the Kotsai has not yet arrived at his majority, the Regency shall be assumed in the following order:

1. An Imperial Prince or a Prince.
2. The Empress.
3. The Empress Dowager.
4. The Grand Empress Dowager.
5. An Imperial Princess or a Princess.

ARTICLE XXII In case the Regency is to be assumed from among the male members of the Imperial Family, it shall be done in agreement with the order of succession to the Imperial Throne. The same shall apply to the case of female members of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE XXIII A female member of the Imperial Family to assume the Regency shall be exclusively one who has no consort.

ARTICLE XXIV When, on account of the minority of the nearest related member of the Imperial Family, or for some other cause, another member has to assume the Regency, the latter shall not, upon the arrival at majority of the above mentioned nearest related member, or upon the disappearance of the aforesaid cause, resign his or her post in favor of any person other than of the Kotsaihi or of the Kotsai.

ARTICLE XXV When a Regent or one who should become such, is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists therefor, the order of the Regency may be changed, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VI

THE IMPERIAL GOVERNOR

ARTICLE XXVI When the Emperor is a minor, an Imperial Governor shall be appointed to take charge of His bringing up and of His education.

ARTICLE XXVII In case no Imperial Governor has been nominated in the will of the preceding Emperor, the Regent shall appoint one, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XXVIII Neither the Regent nor any of his descendants can be appointed Imperial Governor.

ARTICLE XXIX The Imperial Governor cannot be removed from his post by the Regent, unless upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council and upon that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VII

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XXX The term "Imperial Family" shall include the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, the Empress, the Kotsaihi and his consort, the Kotsai and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXI From Imperial sons to Imperial great-great-grandsons Imperial male descendants shall be called Imperial Princes; and from Imperial daughters to Imperial great-great-granddaughters, Imperial female descendants shall be called Imperial Princesses. From the fifth generation downwards they shall be called, male descendants, Princes, female ones, Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXII When the Imperial Throne is succeeded to by a member of a branch line, the title of Imperial Prince or Imperial Princess shall be specially granted to the Imperial brothers and sisters, being already Princes or Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXIII The births, namings, marriages and deaths in the Imperial Family shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XXXIV Genealogical and other records relating to the matters mentioned in the preceding Article shall be kept in the Imperial archives.

ARTICLE XXXV The members of the Imperial Family shall be under the control of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXVI When a Regency is instituted, the Regent shall exercise the power of control referred to in the preceding Article.

ARTICLE XXXVII When a member, male or female, of the Imperial family is a minor and has been bereft of his or her father, the officials of the Imperial Court shall be ordered to take charge of his or her bringing up and education. Under certain circumstances, the Emperor may either approve the guardian chosen by his or her parent, or may nominate one.

ARTICLE XXXVIII The guardian of a member of the Imperial Family must be himself a member thereof and of age.

ARTICLE XXXIX Marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall be restricted to the circle of the Family, or to certain noble families specially approved by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XL Marriages of the members of the Imperial Family shall be subject to the sanction of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial writs sanctioning the marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall bear the countersignature of the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XLII No member of the Imperial Family can adopt any one as his son.

ARTICLE XLIII When a member of the Imperial Family wishes to travel beyond the boundaries of the Empire, he shall first obtain the sanction of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XLIV A female member of the Imperial Family, who has married a subject, shall be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family. However, she may be allowed, by the special grace of the Emperor, to retain her title of Imperial Princess or of Princess, as the case may be.

CHAPTER VIII

IMPERIAL HEREDITARY ESTATES

ARTICLE XLV No landed or other property that has been fixed as the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be divided up and alienated.

ARTICLE XLVI The landed and other property to be included in the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be settled by Imperial writ with the advice of the Privy Council, and shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

CHAPTER IX

EXPENDITURES OF THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

ARTICLE XLVII The expenditures of the Imperial House of all kinds shall be defrayed out of the National Treasury at a certain fixed amount.

ARTICLE XLVIII The estimates and audit of accounts of the expenditures of the Imperial House and all other rules of the kind shall be regulated by the Finance Regulations of the Imperial House.

CHAPTER X

LITIGATIONS. DISCIPLINARY RULES FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XLIX Litigation between members of the Imperial Family shall be decided by judicial functionaries specially designated by the Emperor to the Ministry of the Imperial Household, and execution issued, after Imperial sanction thereto has been obtained.

ARTICLE L Civil actions brought by private individuals against members of the Imperial Family, shall be decided in the Court of Appeal in Tokyo. Members of the Imperial Family shall, however, be represented by attorneys, and no personal attendance in the Court shall be done in agreement with the Court.

ARTICLE LI No member of the Imperial Family can be arrested, or summoned before a Court of Law, unless the sanction of the Emperor has been first obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LII When a member of the Imperial Family has committed an act derogatory to his (or her) dignity, or when he has exhibited disloyalty to the Imperial House, he shall, by way of disciplinary punishment and by order of the Emperor, be deprived of the whole or a part of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial

Family, or shall be suspended therefrom.

ARTICLE LIII When a member of the Imperial Family acts in a way tending to the squandering of his (or her) property, he shall be pronounced incapable by the Emperor, prohibited from administering his property, and a manager shall be appointed therefor.

ARTICLE LIV The two foregoing Articles shall be enforced upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council.

CHAPTER XI

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The Imperial Family Council shall be composed of the male members of the Imperial Family, who have reached the age of majority. The Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, the President of the Privy Council, the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of State for Justice and the President of the Supreme Court shall be ordered to take part in the deliberations of the Council.

ARTICLE LVI The Emperor personally presides over the meeting of the Imperial Family Council, or directs one of the members of the Imperial Family to do so.

CHAPTER XII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LVII Those of the present members of the Imperial Family of the fifth generation and downwards, who have already been invested with the title of Imperial Prince, shall retain the same as heretofore.

ARTICLE LVIII The order of succession to the Imperial Throne shall in every case relate to the descendants of absolute lineage. There shall be no admission to this line of succession for any one, as a consequence of his being an adopted Imperial son, Koyushi or heir to a princely house.

ARTICLE LIX The grades of rank among the Imperial Princes, Imperial Princesses, Princes and Princesses shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LX The family rank of Imperial Princes and all usages conflicting with the present Law shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LXI The property, annual expenses and all other rules concerning the members of the Imperial Family shall be specially determined.

ARTICLE LXII When in the future it shall become necessary either to amend or make additions to the present Law, the matter shall be decided by the Emperor, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council, and with that of the Privy Council.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(February 11, 1907)

ARTICLE I A Prince may be granted a family name and be caused to join the order of nobility by Imperial Order or through a petition.

ARTICLE II A Prince may become by obtaining the sanction of the Emperor, the successor to the headship of a noble family, or be adopted into a noble family, with the object of succeeding to its headship.

ARTICLE III The wife and direct descendants of a Prince, who has in accordance with the two preceding Articles, become a subject, and the wives of such descendants, enter such subject's family. This rule does not apply, however, to females married to other members of the Imperial Family and the direct descendants of such females.

ARTICLE IV A member of the Imperial Family, who has been deprived of its privileges may, by Imperial order, be caused to descend to the status of subject.

ARTICLE V The cases provided for in Articles I, II, and IV (of the supplementary law) shall be subject to the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE VI A member of the Imperial Family who has become a subject cannot be restored into the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VII Regulations relating to personal status and other rights and duties of members of the Imperial Family, shall be especially determined besides those prescribed in the present Law.

The regulations referred to in the preceding clause apply when a member of the Imperial Family and a private

individual are parties to a matter, concerning which different rules are provided to apply to such parties respectively.

ARTICLE VIII Provisions in Laws and Ordinances, which are set down as applicable to members of the Imperial Family, shall be applicable only when there are no special provisions in the present Law or in Regulations that

may be issued in conformity with the present Law.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(November 28, 1918)

A female member of the Imperial Family may marry a Prince of the principal House or of the branch Houses of the Ri Family.

LIST OF EMPERORS

No. of Emperor Reign	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis) (B. C.)	Duration of Reign
1 JIMMU		660-581
2 SUIZEI		581-548
3 ANNEI		548-510
4 ITOKU		510-475
5 KOSHŌ		475-392
6 KŌAN		392-290
7 KŌREI		290-214
8 KŌGEN		214-157
9 KAIKA		157-97
10 SUJIN		97-29
11 SUININ		29-71
12 KEIKŌ	(A. D.)	71-131
13 SEIMU		131-192
14 CHŪAI		192-201
15 ŌJIN		270-313
	(Jingo, Regent)	201-270
16 NINTOKU		313-400
17 RICHU		400-406
18 HANZEI		406-412
19 INGYŌ		412-453
20 ANKŌ		453-456
21 YŌRYAKU		456-480
22 SEINEI		480-485
23 KENZO		485-488
24 NINKEN		488-499
25 BURETSU		499-507
26 KEITAI		507-531
27 ANKAN		531-535
28 SENKA		535-539
29 KIMMEI		539-572
30 BIDATSU		572-585
31 YŌMEI		585-587
32 SUSHUN		587-592
33 SUIKO (Empress)		592-629
34 JOMEI		629-642
35 KŌGYOKU (Empress)		642-645
36 KŌTOKU		645-654
	Taika (645-650), Hakuchi (650-654)	
37 SAIMEI (Empress)		655-661
38 TENJI		661-671
39 KŌBUN		671-672

No. of Emperor Reign	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
40 TEMMU		672-686
	Hakuhō (672-686), Suchō (686-)	
41 JITŌ (Empress)		686-697
	Suchō (686-697)	
42 MOMMU		697-707
	Taihō (701-704), Keiun (704-707)	
43 GEMMEI (Empress)		707-715
	Keiun (707-708), Wadō (708-715)	
44 GENSHŌ (Empress)		715-724
	Reiki (715-717), Yōrō (717-724)	
45 SHŌMU		724-749
	Jinki (724-729), Tempyo (729-749), Tempyokanhō (749)	
46 KŌKEN (Empress)		749-758
	Tempyōshōhō (749-757) Tempyōshōji (757-758)	
47 JUNNIN		758-764
	Tempyōshōji (758-764)	
48 ShōTOKU (Empress)		764-770
	Tempyōshōji (764-765), Tempyōjingo (765-767), Jingokeiun (767-770)	
49 KŌNIN		770-781
	Jingokeiun (770), Hōki (770-781), Ten-ō (781)	
50 KAMMU		781-806
	Ten-ō (781-782), Enryaku (782-806)	
51 HEIZEI		806-809
	Enryaku (806), Daidō (806-809)	
52 SAGA		809-823
	Daidō (809-810), Kōnin (810-823)	
53 JUNNA		823-833
	Kōnin (823-824), Tenchō (824-833)	

No. of Emperor Reign	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign	No. of Emperor Reign	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
54 NIMMYŌ	Tenchō (833-834), Jowa (834-848), Kashō (848- 850)	833-850	nin (1017-1021), Chian (1021-1024), Manju (1024- 1028), Chōgen (1028- 1036)	1036-1059	
55 MONTOKU	Kashō (850-851), Ninju (851-854), Saikō (854- 857), Tennan (857-858)	850-858	69 GOSUZAKU	Chōgen (1036-1037), Chō- ryaku (1037-1040), Chō- kyū (1040-1044), Kantoku (1044-1045)	1045-1059
56 SEIWA	Tennan (858-859), Jō- gwan (859-876)	858-876	70 GOREIZEI	Kantoku (1045-1046), Eijō (1046-1053), Tenki (1053-1058), Kōhei (1058- 1065), Chiryaku (1065- 1068)	1068-1072
57 YŌZEI	Jōgwan (876-877), Gwan- gyō (877-884)	876-884	71 GOSANJŌ	Chiryaku (1068-1069), Enkyū (1069-1072)	1072-1076
58 KŌKŌ	Kwangyō (884-885), Nin- na (885-887)	884-887	72 SHIRAKAWA	Enkyū (1072-1074), Jōho (1074-1077), Jōryaku (1077-1081), Eiho (1081- 1084), Ōtoku (1084-1086)	1086-1107
59 UDA	Ninna (887-889), Kwanpyō 889-897)	887-897	73 HORIKAWA	Ōtoku (1086-1087), Kanji (1087-1094), Kaho (1094- 1096), Elchō (1096-1097), Jōtoku (1097-1099), Kōwa (1099-1104), Chōji (1104- 1106), Kajō (1106-1107)	1107-1123
60 DAIGO	Kwanpyō (897-898), Shōtai (898-901), Engi (901-923), Enchō (923- 930)	897-930	74 TOBA	Kajō (1107-1108), Tennin (1108-1110), Ten-ei (1110- 1113), Eikyū (1113-1118), Gen-ei (1118-1120), Hōan (1120-1123)	1123-1155
61 SUZAKU	Enchō (930-931), Jōhei (931-938), Tengyō (938- 946)	930-946	75 SUTOKU	Hōan (1123-1124), Tenji- (1124-1126), Daiji (1126- 1131), Tenjō (1131- 1132), Chōjō (1132-1135), Hōen (1135-1141), Eiji (1141)	1141-1155
62 MURAKAMI	Tengyō (946-947), Ten- ryaku (947-957), Tentoku (957-961), Ōwa (961-964), Kōhō (964-967)	946-967	76 KONOYE	Eiji (1141-1142), Kōji (1142-1144), Ten-yō (1144- 1145), Kyūan (1145-1151), Nimpel (1151-1154), Kyū- ju (1154-1155)	1155-1159
63 REIZEI	Kōhō (967-968), Anna (968-969)	967-969	77 GOSHIRAKAWA	Kyūju (1155-1156), Hogen (1156-1158)	1158-1163
64 ENYŪ	Anna (969-970), Tenroku (970-973), Ten-en (973- 976), Jōgen (976-978), Tengen (978-983), Eikan (983-984)	969-984	78 NIJŌ	Hogen (1158-1159), Heiji (1159-1160), Eiryaku (1160-1161), Ōho (1161- 1163), Chōkan (1163- 1165), Eiman (1165)	
65 KAZAN	Eikan (984-985), Kanna 985-986)	984-986			
66 ICHIJŌ	Kanna (986-987), Elen 987-989), Elso (989-990), Shōryaku (990-995), Chō- toku (995-999), Chōho (999-1004), Kankō (1004- 1011)	986-1011			
67 SANJŌ	Kankō (1011-1012), Chō- wa (1012-1016)	1011-1016			
68 GOICHIJŌ	Chōwa (1016-1017), Kan-	1016-1036			

No. of Emperor Reign	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign	No. of Emperor Reign	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
79	ROKUJŌ	1165-1168		Bun'ei (1274-1275), Kenji (1275-1278), Kōan (1278- 1287)	
	Eiman (1165-1166), Ninnan (1166-1168)		92	FUSHIMI	1287-1298
80	TAKAKURA	1168-1180		Kōan (1287-1288), Shō-ō (1288-1293), Einin (1293- 1298)	
	Ninnan (1168-1169), Kaō (1169-1171), Jōan (1171- 1175), Angen (1175-1177), Jishō (1177-1180)		93	GOFUSHIMI	1298-1301
81	ANTOKU	1180-1185		Einin (1298-1299), Shōan (1299-1301)	
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82	GOTŌBA	1185-1198		Shōan (1301-1302), Ken- gen (1302-1303), Kagen (1303-1306), Tokujū (1306- 1308)	
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83	TSUCHIMIKADO	1198-1210		Tokuji (1308), Enkyō (1308-1311), Ōchō (1311- 1312), Shōwa (1312-1317), Bumpo (1317-1318)	
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84	JUNTOKU	1210-1221		Bumpo (1318-1319), Gennō (1319-1321), Genkyō (1321-1324), Shōchū (1324- 1326), Karyaku (1326- 1329), Gentoku (1329- 1331), Genkō (1331-1334), Kammu (1334-1336), En- gen (1336-1339)	
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85	CHŪKYŌ	1221		Engen (1339-1340), Kōko- ku (1340-1346), Shōhei (1346-1368)	
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86	GOHORIKAWA	1221-1232		Shōhei (1368-1370), Ken- toku (1370-1372), Bunchū (1372-1375), Tenju (1375- 1381), Kōwa (1381-1383)	
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88	GOSAGA	1242-1246		Genchū (1392), Meitoku 1393-1394), Ōei (1394- 1412)	
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90	KAMEYAMA	1259-1274		Shōchō (1428-1429), Eikyō (1429-1441), Kakitsu (1441-1444), Bunnan (1444-1449), Hōtoku (1449-1452), Kyōtoku (1452-1455), Kōshō (1455- 1457), Chōroku (1457- 1460), Kanshō (1460-1464)	
	Shōgen (1259-1260), Bun- nō (1260-1261), Kōchō (1261-1264), Bun'ei (1264- 1274)		103	GOTSUCHIMIKADO	1464-1500
91	GOUDA	1274-1287			

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign	No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
		Kanshō (1464-1466), Bunshō (1466-1467), Ōnin (1467-1469), Būmei (1469-1487), Chōkyō (1487-1489), Entoku (1489-1492), Meiō (1492-1500)				ku (1688-1704), Hōei (1704-1709)	
104	GOKASHIWABARA	Meiō (1500-1501), Bunka (1501-1504), Eishō (1504-1521), Daiō (1521-1526)	1500-1526	114	NAKAMIKADO	Hōei (1709-1711), Shōtoku (1711-1716), Kyōho (1716-1735)	1709-1735
105	GONARA	Daiō (1526-1528), Kyōroku (1528-1532), Temmon (1532-1555), Kōji (1555-1557)	1526-1557	115	SAKURAMACHI	Kyōho (1735-1736), Genbun (1736-1741), Kampō (1741-1744), Enkyō (1744-1747)	1735-1747
106	OGIMACHI	Kōji (1557-1558), Eiroku (1558-1570), Genki (1570-1573), Tenshō (1573-1586)	1557-1586	116	MOMOZONO	Enkyō (1747-1748), Kan'en (1748-1751), Hōryaku (1751-1762)	1747-1762
107	GOYŌZEI	Tenshō (1586-1592), Bunkoku (1592-1596), Keichō (1596-1611)	1586-1611	117	GOSAKURAMACHI	(Empress) Hōryaku (1762-1764), Meiwa (1764-1770)	1762-1770
108	GOMIZUNO-O	Keichō (1611-1615), Genna (1615-1624), Kan'ei (1624-1629)	1611-1629	118	GOMOMOZONO	Meiwa (1770-1772), An'ei (1772-1779)	1770-1779
109	MEISHŌ (Empress)	Kan'ei (1629-1643)	1629-1643	119	KŌKAKU	An'ei (1779-1781), Temmei (1781-1789), Kansei (1789-1801), Kyōwa (1801-1804), Bunka (1804-1817)	1779-1817
110	GOKŌMYŌ	Kan'ei (1643-1644), Shōho (1644-1648), Keian (1648-1652), Jōō (1652-1654)	1643-1654	120	NINKŌ	Bunka (1817-1818), Bunsel (1818-1830), Tempō (1830-1844), Kōka (1844-1846)	1817-1846
111	GOSAI	Jōō (1654-1655), Meiya-ku (1655-1658), Manji (1658-1661), Kanbun (1661-1663)	1654-1663	121	KŌMEI	Kōka (1846-1848), Kaiō (1848-1854), Ansei (1854-1860), Man'en (1860-1861), Bunkyū (1861-1864), Genji (1864-1865), Keiō (1865-1866)	1846-1866
112	REIGEN	Kanbun (1663-1673), Empō (1673-1681), Tenna (1681-1684), Jōkyō (1684-1687)	1663-1687	122	MEIJI	Keiō (1867-1868), Meiji (1868-1912)	1867-1912
113	HIGASHIYAMA	Jōkyō (1687-1688), Genro	1687-1709	123	TAISHŌ	Taishō (1912-1926)	1912-1926
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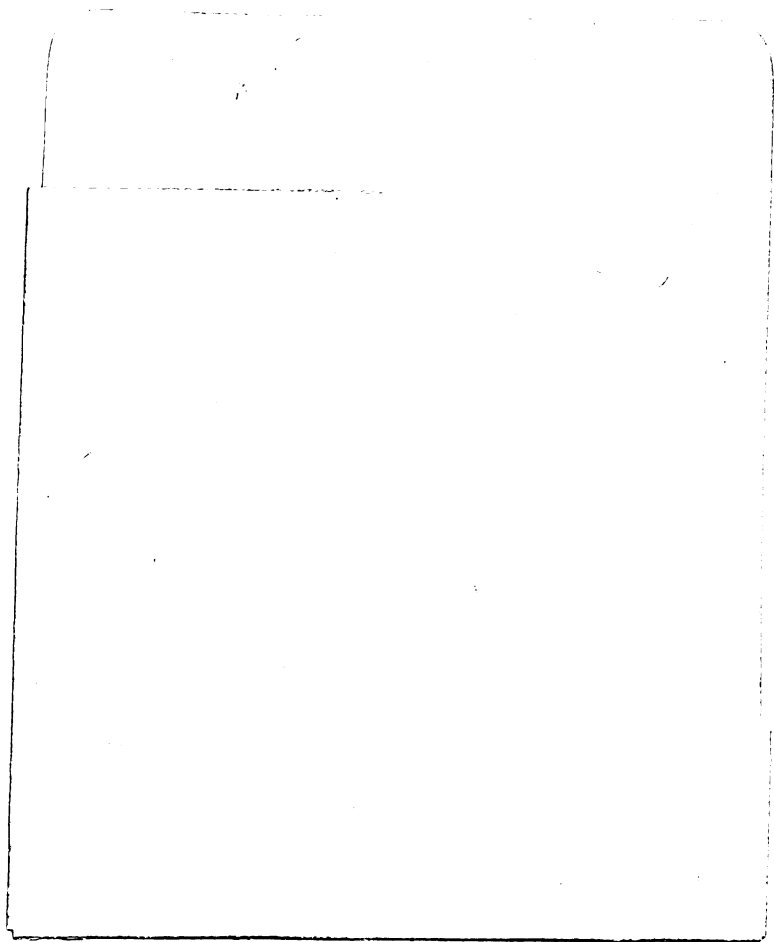
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